LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY, GLOBALISATION, INCLUSION AND THE RESULTANT
PHENOMENON OF FIRST TIME LITERACY ACQUISITION IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

by

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DECLARATION

Student number 351-39013

I declare that LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY, GLOBALISATION, INCLUSION AND THE
RESULTANT PHENOMENON OF FIRST TIME LITERACY ACQUISITION IN A SECOND
LANGUAGE
is my own work and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged
by means of complete reference.
I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at
Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

_______________________________
Gien Snelgar E.C.

_______________________________
Date
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to my parents,
siblings and sons.
ON THE VALUE OF LITERACY

“As a poet, I cannot imagine a life without words. Language is the element in which the mind lives, and it is the very basis of human being. It is that which distinguishes man from all other creatures. To speak, to read and write, to encounter the power and beauty and magic of words – these are gifts that enrich and ennoble our existence. It seems almost miraculous to me that a child, only two or three years of age, can learn the complexities of language. But children take possession of language naturally, as a birthright. And it should be by birthright also that the child learns to read and write, and is therefore enabled to discover the riches of the world and to share the riches with others. I believe with all my heart that every person in the world is entitled to the gift of literacy. We must provide that gift to the best of our ability, for doing so ensures our humanity and makes possible the realization of a more perfect world” (Momaday, 2009 UNESCO).

N.C. Scott Momaday
The Alphabet of Hope, UNESCO 2009
ABSTRACT

Prevailing research presents evidence that links language proficiency to fundamental literacy acquisition. However, when language and literacy acquisition are simultaneous, as is the case with young (4-6 years) English language learners (ELL’s), who acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home in B.C. Canada, the research is limited. The aim of the study was to explore and compare the language and literacy profiles (LLP) of ELL’s and monolingual learners. The normative processes as elucidated in the theoretical frameworks of Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic model, Vygotsky’s sociocultural model and the Critical Theory (CT) model informed the comparative framework. In addition, the second language acquisition (SLA) theoretical frameworks purported by Chomsky, Vygotsky and Krashen are elaborated upon. A causal comparative approach to the mixed model research design and a complementary mixed methods approach is applied to the study. The study interactively investigated the cultural and linguistic diversity (CALD) of ELL’s and sought statistically significant differences between the language and literature profiles (LLP) of 25 ELL’s and his/her parent - whose home language is other than English during first time literacy acquisition - and 25 monolingual learners and his/her parent (selected via a simple, purposive, random sample strategy) when English is the language medium used in the inclusive classroom. The qualitative findings delineated the LLP of the ELL’s with regard to CALD, biographic and background details; the quantitative findings, delineated the at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their limited English proficiency (LEP) and limited emergent literacy and language profile (LLP). The identification of the at risk educationally vulnerable minority, informed the proposed theoretical framework for the study, namely, namely, LLP - Semiotic Scaffolding-From Theory to Practice and the attendant curriculum. Findings are discussed comparatively with the classic and current theoretical frameworks pertaining to child development, language acquisition for both first and second language acquisition (SLA) in addition to globalisation, inclusive education and social justice. The implication of the findings for policy makers, curriculum planners, schools, teachers, classrooms, parents and the learners are discussed. Opportunities for further research are noted.
KEY TERMS

Barriers to learning; Cultural and linguistic diversity (CALD); English language learner (ELL); First language (FL); First language acquisition (FLA); Home language environment; Inclusive education; Limited English Proficiency (LEP); Language literacy profile (LLP); Literacy skills; Mixed Research Design; Non official language (NOL); Second language (SL); Special Needs.
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The following list of abbreviations and acronyms are used in this study

ALL: Assessment of Literacy and Language
CALD: Cultural and linguistic diversity
CUP: Common underlying proficiency
ELL: English language learner
EDI: Early Development Instrument
FL: First language
FLA: First language acquisition
K1: Kindergarten year 1
K2: Kindergarten year 2
LEP: Limited English Proficiency
LLP: Language literacy profile
NOL: Non official language
SL: Second language
SLA: Second language acquisition
SLL: Second language learner
SLT: Second language teaching
LSEN: Learners with special educational needs
ZPD: Zone of proximal development

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LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY, GLOBALISATION, INCLUSION AND THE RESULTANT PHENOMENON OF FIRST TIME LITERACY ACQUISITION IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

KEY TERMS

a. Key words

Diversity
Learner
Limited English Proficiency
English language learner
First language
Second language
First language acquisition
Second language acquisition
Second language learners
Target language
Minority language
Limited English Proficiency
Limited language proficiency
Limited literacy proficiency
Language proficiency
Language impaired
Language deficit
Language literacy deficit
Comprehension deficit
Literacy skill
Phonology
Morphology
‘He’ or ‘she’ used intermittently – non-sexist intent used solely for ease of readability.
Semantics
Pragmatics
Lexicon
Syntactic structure
Inclusive education
Special needs
Learners with special educational needs
Independent education program
Barriers to learning
Exceptional learners
Monolingual

b. Abbreviations
ALL: Assessment of Literacy and Language
CUP: Common underlying proficiency
ELL: English language learner
ESL: English second language learner
FL: First language
FLA: First language acquisition
K1: Kindergarten year 1
K2: Kindergarten year 2
LEP: Limited English Proficiency
LLP: Language literacy profile
NOL: Non official language
SL: Second language
SLA: Second language acquisition
SLL: Second language learner
SN: Special Needs
LSEN: Learners with special educational needs
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

“Language is no longer linked to knowing things, but to men’s freedom” (Foucault, 1994:291).

1.1 Introduction: Background to the research

This study explores globalisation, multiculturalism, and its resultant diversity, cultural and linguistic diversity (CALD), inclusive education as it pertains to British Columbia Canada, exclusion, the rights dignity and equality of all children, English language learners (ELL’s), and the current education policy in British Columbia. The study pertains to the language and literacy profile (LLP) of ELL’s and simultaneous language and literacy acquisition in a second language (SL) not spoken at home, in the inclusive, multicultural institutions, namely schools, in British Columbia and focuses on the early years and the necessary support required. The study takes place in British Columbia but for clarity, necessitates a brief overview of migration and hence multiculturalism and CALD in Canada in general and concludes with a focus on British Columbia itself.

Canada is a heterogeneous country (Joe & Choice, 2005); multiculturalism is enshrined in the constitution and reflected as the current reality (Ryan, 2012:111). The 21st century, has seen Canada become one of the most diverse countries in the world, due to current immigration policies and resultant immigration (Statistics Canada, 2011²: 7, 15). Among the more than 1.1 million recent immigrants who arrived between 2001 and 2006, 58.3% were born in Asian countries contributing to the highest proportion of foreign-born in 75 years (Component of Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 11-008-x Canadian Social Trends, 2008:46). The census goes on, to enumerate, that there were 6,186,950 foreign-born in Canada in 2006, representing virtually one in five (19.8%) of the total population. In 2010 240,000 to 265,000, a total of 280,681 permanent residents were admitted to the country, an 11.3 percent increase from 2009 (Citizenship and Immigration: Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration, 2011:12). The Government of Canada continues to uphold a policy of sustained immigration and multiculturalism (Ley, 2009:202), facilitating a growing cultural, racial and linguistic diversity in schools which challenges the educating of the increasing numbers of learners, whose home language is other than English (Gearon, Miller & Kostogriz, 2009:3). Canada is therefore, one of the world’s most diverse countries with a national policy that “articulates respect for diversity, establishing a rights-based framework for multiculturalism and anti-racism. However, strategies for ensuring that these policies are more than rhetoric […] are not well established especially where young children are concerned” (Friendly & Prahbu, 2010:4).
Broadly speaking, the rhetoric pertaining to Canada’s multicultural and immigration policy and therefore diversity, imbues success as evinced in the Citizenship and Immigration Canada statement below (2013:2):

Building a stronger Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) strengthens Canada’s economic, social and cultural prosperity, helping ensure Canadian safety and security while managing one of the largest and most generous immigration programs in the world.

It is, however, the social measures and resources - particularly those relevant to education and the ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home, which speaks to the purpose of this research study. In other words, to ensure that exclusion and inequity are not the unforeseen consequences of the perceived “successful” immigration and multicultural policy that is in question when considering the success in the light of Vertovec’s (2007:1024) “super diversity” (See 1.10.1.a). The experience of super diversity in Canada, “distinguishes it from most other countries. Its 32 million inhabitants reflect a cultural, ethnic and linguistic makeup found nowhere else on earth” (Canadian Heritage, 2012:5). Canada recognises the importance of cultural diversity and strives to pursue this goal not only as an ideology but in application as is evidenced in the ratification of the UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005’a) where Canada played a leading role. However, aspects of Canadian diversity, namely the principles of equity, inclusivity and the right of every learner to receive an education, continue to evolve and are of particular relevance to this study. A more immediate and pragmatic concern and again relevant to this study, includes establishing to what extent the ELL is accommodated and supported within the current reality. The extraordinary diversity, poses a challenge for teachers in the English-speaking inclusive multicultural classroom to facilitate engagement with the mainstream curriculum, for learners from CALD backgrounds (Gearon et al., 2009:3). More specifically and relative to this study, the charge to adequately prepare both the ELL’s and English monolingual learners for first time literacy acquisition in a CALD classroom. The research study is a causal-comparative exploration of learners who are monolingual and speak the national or official language (i.e., English) and those young learners who speak a different language at home while acquiring first time literacy in English. The study attempts to identify this at risk minority culturally and through their language and literacy profile (LLP) while exploring multiculturalism and its resultant super diversity in British Columbia’s inclusive classrooms. In addition, it explores the compatibility of the ELL’s needs and the support required for CALD learners, acquiring literacy in classrooms in British Columbia today. This will be addressed specifically, with regard to the inclusive education framework currently evident in British Columbia’s inclusive classrooms and the systemic micro discrimination in the schools and classrooms of the ELL via the redirection of ELL funding; lack of teacher proficiency linked to limited preparedness resulting from insufficient funding; the
violation of the learner’s right to viable and meaningful participation, both within the classroom and curriculum; and equality with regard to curriculum access and participation within the classroom as per the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, 1982.

The learner landscape of British Columbia’s classrooms is superficially inclusive, dynamic and one where the presence of the ELL is increasingly evident. For example, there are 1,956 Kindergarten to Grade 3 classes in British Columbia, each with seven or more ELL’s per class (BCTF, 2014:1). The aforementioned is legislated both under the Official Languages Act (1969) and the UNESCO Salamanca Agreement (1994) with its focus on inclusive education and the Dakar Framework for Action (2000), with its commitment to education for all. In Canada, the official language status is reinforced by the first Official Languages Act of 1969 and by the 1982 Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (the Charter), which declares English and French as Canada’s official languages (Vaillancourt, Coche, Cadieux & Ronson, 2012:2-4). Inclusive education internationally and in British Columbia, is underpinned by the philosophy that all learners can learn in regular schools and classrooms (Mitchell, 2009: xiii) while upholding the dignity and rights of every learner (Mittler, 2009:23). This is ratified in The Salamanca Statement (UNESCO 1994; 2000; 2001; 2005; 2009), The Dakar Framework For Africa (UNESCO, 2000) and reviewed and ratified again, in Canada, as Naylor’s “Always a journey, never a destination” (Naylor, 2005). The statements referenced below identify British Columbia’s Ministry of Education and the BC Teachers’ Federation’s support of and alignment to the ideals of the international movement towards inclusive education.

British Columbia promotes an inclusive education system in which students with special needs are fully participating members of a community of learners. Inclusion describes the principle that all students are entitled to equitable access to learning, achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their educational programs. The practice of inclusion is not necessarily synonymous with full integration in regular classrooms, and goes beyond placement to include meaningful participation and the promotion of interaction with others (BC Ministry of Education. Manual of Policies, Procedures and Guidelines for Special Education Services 2011:2).

Inclusion is the value system which holds that all students are entitled to equitable access to learning, achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education. The practice of inclusion transcends the idea of physical location, and incorporates basic values that promote participation, friendship and interaction. (BC Teachers Federation: 2011:1).

British Columbia teachers believe in inclusion and have adopted a policy that every student is entitled to an appropriate education. Students with special needs have a right to access an inclusionary public education system which prepares them for full citizenship in a democratic society. (BC Teachers’ Federation 2011:1).

British Columbia’s inclusive policies, are founded on The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (UNESCO, 1992-15; 2005a), which addresses the rights of all children including those with disabilities and elaborated upon in article 23 (learners with disabilities are referenced in this research as special needs (SN) (See 1.4) by addressing four fundamental principles, which apply to all children regardless of disability and are broadly interpreted as follows:
1. Non-discrimination (on any grounds including disability)
2. The best interests of the child
3. The right to life, survival and development
4. The right to be heard and participate (Mittler, 2009:23)

It is the right to be heard and participate and circuitously, discrimination, which are of interest to this research study. Dr. Dan Offord (Mc Master’s University, Ontario, Canada), the founding Director of the Offord Centre for Child studies, emphasised that initiatives for young learners must do more good than harm, and that school programs for learners should be available and accessible (Janus, 2007:183). School programmes in themselves, are not generally sufficient, even when the evidence of effectiveness for the majority dictates acceptance. Implementation of school programmes should complement all learner’s needs, their families and communities. A socially just and democratic language [and literacy] education is one that is responsive to CALD (Kostogriz, 2007:23-36). To this end the language and literacy needs of ELL’s in Kindergarten 1 (K1), Kindergarten 2, (K2) and Grade 1, are explored using the term LLP. Bearing the aforementioned in mind, “the broader conceptualisation of emergent literacy which is a precursor for literacy” as proposed by Whitehurst and Lonnnigan (1998) has expanded to include “not only the skills, knowledge and attitudes that are developmental precursors to reading and writing” (Sylva, Chan, Melhuish, Sammons, Siraj-Blatchford & Taggart, 2011:97) but are inclusive of the environments that support such developments (Whitehurst & Lonnnigan, 2003:11-29). Therefore, insight into the background, and CALD of the learner is as important as understanding the structural aspects of typical language and literacy development (Evangelou, Sylva, Kyriacou, Wild & Glenny, 2009:8) in that it provides insight into the ELL’s’ ability to tap into British Columbia’s classrooms, curricula, school system and community. Expanding the broader conceptualisation of literacy as discussed speaks to the LLP of the ELL and is explored further in order to firstly ascertain whether or not the school curriculum available to ELL’s in K1, K2 and Grade 1 is accessible when considering the LLP of the ELL’s. Secondly, whether the current ELL support programs are adequate and indeed whether they “do more harm than good “for learners in inclusive classrooms who are inhibited by language proficiency, diverse cultural backgrounds and diverse emergent literacy skills.

The Effective Pre-School and Primary Education project (EPPE) Sammons, Sylva, Melhuish, Siraj-Blatchford, Taggart, Elliot & Marsh, 2011:111) notes that the development of literacy skills is strongly influenced by emergent literacy environments in both the home and school. In addition, it was noted that exposure to a rich home language environment and high-quality pre-school environment provides learners with a markedly robust literacy “profile” at the commencement of Grade 1 (ibid). When assessing language and literacy readiness as components of a literacy profile, it
is generally understood as a learner’s ability to take advantage of the educational opportunities offered by the school environment (Janus, Hughes & Duku, 2010:3). This study describes and quantifies the LLP of the ELL and then proceeds to evaluate it, as it pertains to the current inclusive education policy in British Columbia’s schools and classrooms. In addition, the study explores whether or not, the educational opportunities available to the ELL’s, are accessible to and accessed by the ELL’s, bearing in mind that access to educational opportunities made available by the school environment is not a given for all learners. This research study argues that the current inclusive education system is accessible provided a compatible LLP is available to the learner. For the purposes of this research study, the LLP is defined as the language and literacy skills required to successfully access and participate in the school curriculum, currently provided for first time literacy acquisition in K1, K2 and, Grade 1 classrooms.

Research findings (Kamiloff & Kamiloff-Smith, 2001:17; Teale & Sulzby, 1986: xix; Yaden, Rowe & MacGillivray, 2000: 425-454; Justice, 2006:1-6) suggest that components of first language are absorbed in utero as are the beginnings of the language profile. “[N]ewborns’ cries already bear the mark of the language their parents speak” (Science Daily, 2009). Early exposure to rich language promotes vocabulary growth, and in turn builds the foundation for later literacy acquisition (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:3). One can argue then, that the LLP profile begins in utero and continues to feed a multitude of hierarchical and interlinked skills (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008) critical for and to literacy acquisition, namely robust expressive and receptive language. The ‘breadth’, ‘depth’ and “precision of meaning” in young learners’ vocabulary development and early lexicon building, enhances the development of phonological development and lexical semantic memory (Kaiser, Roberts & McLeod, 2011:154) which form an important foundation for literacy acquisition. It stands that language development is critical in the development of literacy translated as and termed the language and literacy profile for this research study. The LLP is divided into the following components:

a) **Letter Knowledge** – letter identification, letter naming and letter production.

b) **Rhyme Knowledge** – a) indicate whether two words rhyme b) identify the word which does not rhyme c) produce a word that rhymes with a stimulus word d) produce words that rhyme from a story format.

c) **Basic Concepts** – concepts of size, number, location, shape, position and comparison.

d) **Receptive Vocabulary** – referential meaning of increasingly difficult nouns and verbs.
e) **Parallel Sentence Production** – evaluates production of grammatical morphemes and syntactic structures.

f) **Elision** - manipulation of syllables and sounds.

g) **Word Relationships** – identify and express shared meanings or similarities between two words.

h) **Phonics Knowledge** – a) sound the letter makes b) sound a group of letters make c) sound out nonsense words.

i) **Sound Categorisation** – assess the ability to recognize the singleton or cluster in a word.

j) **Sight Word Recognition** – read a list of words that become increasingly difficult due to frequency in learners literature.

k) **Listening Comprehension** – understanding of stories of increasing length and complexity (Lombardino, et al., 2005:12-21).

It is the delicate yet critical development of the aforementioned language and literacy skills termed the LLP of the young ELL’s which will be explored and quantified in this research study. In addition, the efficacy, viability and compatibility of the LLP of ELL’s acquiring literacy in K1, K2 and Grade 1 classrooms in British Columbia in a language not spoken at home and importantly how the inclusive school, classroom and current support structures include or exclude these learners based on linguistic and literacy skills.

Over the past nine years, the enrolment of ELL’s in British Columbia’s schools has markedly increased, thus altering the social, schooling and classroom context as aforementioned. For example, ELL’s enrolment as a percent of total public school enrolment increased from 9.4% in the period between 2001 to 2002 to 10.7% in 2009 to 2010 (BC MOE Summary of Key Information 2009/10:14). The “picture of remarkable [linguistic] diversity” (Von Ahn, Lupton, Greenwood & Wiggins, 2010:2) has attendant linguistic consequences for classrooms, teachers and learners.

As globalization continues to facilitate labour force migration, school systems in labour receiving countries such as Canada are experiencing a heretofore unseen and unforeseen phenomenon: ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home, in other words a second (SL) or third language, who for the purposes of this research study, are also deemed to be limited English proficiency learners (LEP) in the K1, K2 and Grade 1 classrooms. This phenomenon is not isolated to British Columbia and Canada, it is evident in most labour-receiving, English-speaking countries today, who are struggling to maintain their “one state- one language policies (Anderson, 2008:79-89). (The term ELL is used in this study, which by implication, encapsulates the term LEP (See 1.10.1e and
1.10.1 d.). In addition, it is the term recommended by British Columbia’s Ministry of Education (MOE) and is defined as “English language learners (often referred to as ELL students) are those whose primary language, or languages, of the home are other than English” (BC MOE, English Language Learning Policy and Guidelines Paper, 2013:4).

This comparative study attempts to identify, delineate and quantify the LLP of the ELL’s in order to ascertain its viability and therefore compatibility within and with the fiscally attuned, inclusive education policy, presently in place in British Columbia, where English is the teaching medium in the classroom. This research study merely introduces the LLP of the ELL to highlight an ‘at risk educationally vulnerable’ minority and encourage further research within this challenging framework.

In sum, the success of inclusive education demands the re-evaluating of the old with brutal, vigorous honesty and integrity and a recreation of the new, based on the founding principles of the Salamanca Agreement, yet with careful, reflective consideration of every aspect of schooling and the social context in which it functions (Sayed, Soudien, & Carrim 2003:245). The aforementioned forms the essence of this research study.

The implication of the findings of this research study is that there are large numbers of learners who comprise an ‘at risk educationally vulnerable minority’ by virtue of their LLP’s in inclusive classrooms in British Columbia. These ELL’s, whose home language is other than English and whose attendant LLP is in discord with current inclusive educational policies, are the target of this research study and inform the research aim.

1.2 Research aim

This research study aims to explore the LLP of learners, whose home language is other than English and its attendant efficacy and compatibility in facilitating the level of equitable participation and understanding necessary when acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home in an inclusive classroom.

More specifically, the aim of the research is to identify, isolate and specify the at risk educational minority namely, the ELL’s by virtue of their LLP and identify their vulnerability, as it pertains to equitable access, participation, excellence and the rights of the learner in an inclusive classroom as they acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. The problem statement and context of the problem statement follow.
1.3 Problem Statement

Canada, specifically British Columbia has seen marked changes in legislation, attitudes to, and practice in education, as underlying beliefs and assumptions regarding globalism, multiculturalism and ultimately education evolve. However, there continue to be “major challenges to creating an inclusive and seamless educational system that is designed for the needs of all students” (McLauchlin & Jordan, 2009:99). In order to contextualise the present conceptual policy of inclusion and the societal and school contexts, a brief historic overview is necessary.

The commitment of the United Nation (UN) to human rights underpins the whole of its work in the social and humanitarian field, as first expressed in its Charter and in the Universal Declaration of Human rights (1948) and most recently in the above commitment made by heads of state at the World Summit on Children in 2002 (Mittler, 2009: 22).

More specifically and speaking to this research, the United Nations goes on to state:

Each girl and boy is born free and equal in dignity and rights; therefore all forms of discrimination affecting children must end...[and to] ensure the recognition of their dignity; to promote their self reliance and to facilitate their active participation in the community (Statement by Heads of State, United Nations 2002) (UNESCO, 2007: IV*).

The aforementioned, speaks to the heart of this study, the rights, dignity and ability of the ELL to access and participate in, the inclusive classroom currently prescribed in British Columbia. British Columbia’s Ministry of Education (MOE) English Language Learning Policy and Guidelines Paper (2013:6) notes that “ELL services should reflect current research with regard to effective practices”. This research study explores whether or not, current practices in British Columbia’s classrooms, reflect current research with regard to effective practices with the view to provide adequate support via support programs and teacher proficiency, currently available to the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

Effective, targeted, quality implementation of instruction and interactional support for literacy acquisition is critical for both monolingual and ELL’s alike as is evidenced in the importance of proven, effective curricula and instructional approaches in order to positively impact learner’s language and literacy skills (Davidson Fields & Yang, 2009:177-208). Abbate-Vaughn (2008:175-202) substantiates this by noting that if teachers received targeted, focused and appropriate training, they could be more instrumental in minimizing the problems of exclusion in schools and thereby facilitate access to the classroom curriculum. Pappamihiel, (2007:42-60) furthers the debate, noting that although many classrooms have proportionately large numbers of ELL’s and therefore CALD learners, teachers are not always trained to teach to the needs of these learners. Presently, the current qualification, knowledge and skill base for an ELL specialist certified to teach in British
Columbia does not include nor specify the specific skill training required to facilitate literacy acquisition in young learners (BC MOE Policy and Guidelines Paper, 20013:14). The question then must asked: Are there currently proficient safeguards in place, to uphold the rights and dignity of the ELL’s while ensuring active participation within and access to classroom and curricula activities, specifically those relating to acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home?

As a result of the current active immigration policy (See 1.1) and therefore super diversity in Canada today, the current policy of inclusive education (See 2.6) and the attendant fiscal prudence (See 2.6.3.1), a phenomenon is emerging from within British Columbia’s classrooms, namely, a LLP differential in learners whose home language differs from the language used in school and the classroom.

The current assumption and in the view of this research study an incorrect assumption, is that these learners are sufficiently proficient in English - a crucial factor in learning to read in English (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:9) to acquire first time literacy. The target group are K1, K2, and Grade 1 learners, whose home language, differs from the language in both school and the classroom. The research firstly, identifies the ELL’s LLP differential compared to the LLP’S of English speaking monolingual learners. Secondly, the compatibility, functionality, and viability of the ELL’s LLP in the inclusive classroom, as it pertains to participation, access to the curriculum and the acquisition of literacy in English - a language not spoken at home is explored. Finally, the rights, equity and exclusion of the ELL’s in inclusive classrooms, under the current education policy in British Columbia, inclusive of the current government funding cuts, specifically those pertaining to special education, teacher training and the reduction of 572 full time educators (FTE) between 2001 and 2006 (White, 2008:2) will be discussed with regard to the ELL’s in British Columbia.

The National Early Literacy Panel (2008: vii) described conventional reading and writing skills that are developed in the years from birth to five as having a “clear and consistently strong relationship with later literacy skills”. They further the notion, describing six variables which represent early literacy skills and which have predictive relationships to later measures of literacy development namely:

1. Alphabet knowledge (AK): knowledge of the names and sounds associated with printed letters
2. Phonological awareness (PA): the ability to detect, manipulate, or analyse the auditory aspects of spoken language (including the ability to distinguish or segment words, syllables or phonemes), independent of meaning
3. Rapid automatic naming (RAN) of letters or digits: the ability to rapidly name a sequence of random letters or digits
4. RAN of objects or colours: the ability to rapidly name a sequence of repeating random sets of pictures of objects (e.g., “car,” “tree,” “house,” “man”) or colours

5. Writing or writing name: the ability to write letters in isolation on request or to write one’s own name

6. Phonological memory: the ability to remember spoken information for a short period of time.

(National early literacy panel 2008:vii).

The six indicators relate to two broad predictors of literacy outcomes, namely, language proficiency and phonological awareness, which in general terms, are fundamental to and influential in the development of a viable LLP in young learners acquiring literacy (Kaiser et al., 2011:154). Preston, Frost, Einer Mencle, Fulbright, Landi, Grigirenco, Jacobsen and Pugh (2010:2185) further the notion, noting that “early language development [in monolinguals] sets the stage for a lifetime of competence in language and literacy”. Catts, Fey and Proctor Williams (2008: 1569-1579) concur that persistent language deficits are even more strongly associated with literacy skills. Dooley (2009:75) broadens the discussion, noting that understanding the content of the teacher’s lesson, that is, understanding the language of delivery and what he/she writes on the classroom board is, in addition, a key to academic success. The aforementioned speak to the aim of this study (See 1.2), namely the viability of the LLP of ELL’s whose home language is other than English and its viability in the inclusive classroom.

1.4 Context of the problem statement

The most prominent indication of the “transformed realities of contemporary education in a globalised world” is the extent of cultural, racial and linguistic diversity in schools (Bianco, 2009:113) which subsequently creates a “diverse ethnolinguistic landscape” (Costly & Leung, 2009:152).

The commitment to inclusive education for learners with special needs, and the study argues, the ELL (who is not deemed nor categorised as a learner with special needs in British Columbia) is a remarkable undertaking, particularly considering the ethnolinguistic diversity and economic challenges present in British Columbia today. Within this overarching framework of super diversity, inclusion, funding, linguistic proficiency of the ELL, teacher preparedness and exclusion, the context of the ELL learner in British Columbia is framed for this research study. The distinction between an ELL learner and a learner with SN’s as it pertains to the education system in British Columbia, needs to be clarified. In other words who is the ELL learner and what services are available to the ELL in British Columbia?
In British Columbia, there is a semantic distinction between a learner with SN’s and an ELL evidenced in the respective definitions to follow:

A special needs learner (SNL) is defined as:

A [learner] student with special needs is a learner who “…who has a disability of an intellectual, physical, sensory, emotional or behavioural nature, has a learning disability or has special gifts or talents (Special Education Services: Manual of Policies, Procedures, and Guidelines, Section E, 2013:1).

An ELL is defined as:

English language (learners) often referred to as ELL students are those whose primary language, or languages, of the home are other than English. For this reason, they require additional services in order to develop their individual potential within British Columbia’s school system. English language learners may be immigrants or may be born in Canada (BC MOE English Language Learning: Policy and Guidelines, 2013:4). In the United States of America ELL’s and LEP learners are specifically mentioned and included under the learners with SN’s umbrella (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:541). UNESCO (2011:79a.) references but does not limit the definition to disadvantages in physical, behavioural, intellectual, emotional and social capacities; South Africa, is more definitive in that reference is made to “barriers to learning”, which can either be intrinsic (i.e., physical) or extrinsic (i.e., environmental) (Engelbrecht, 2009:112). However, it must be noted that some literature in South Africa still references learner’s with special educational needs (LSEN’s).

The MOE in British Columbia is obligated to provide an educational program to learners with SN, where the learner is integrated with other learners who do not have SN, provided the needs of the SNL or the other learners in the classroom, indicate otherwise. In other words, special educational needs are those characteristics which make it necessary to provide a learner undertaking an educational program with resources different from those which are needed by most learners, for example the ELL in British Columbia

The ELL in British Columbia is provided with an educational program and integrated with other learners who are not ELL. However, the services provided are specific to ELL’s and in the context of British Columbia are not deemed SN. ELL services for ELL’s are referenced as English as an Additional Language services. Learners, who have SN and who are in addition ELL, require services to address both the language proficiency skills and the SN. ESL in and of itself does not define a learner as a SN candidate. (English as a Second Language Learners: A Guide for ELL Specialists English as a Second Language Policy and Guidelines, 2013:3). The study argues that ELL’s require more than the general inclusive environment, current teaching practices and curriculum presently offered in order to address their specific needs specifically with regard to the LLP and therefore, fall under the umbrella of learners with SN’s. The Guidelines Policy goes on to state that learners acquiring a SL or a third
language as the case may be and in addition, acquiring new cultural norms while adjusting to a new social and physical setting, can affect a learners ability to adjust and learn. They further the discussion, noting that the aforementioned factors combined with a disability or impairment “can significantly undermine school achievement” and therefore the planning for and assessment of these learners is complex. The findings of this research study intend to highlight the LLP of the ELL’s; therefore the study argues that more than English as an additional language services are necessary to uphold the principles of “…equitable access to learning achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their educational programs” (Special Education Services: Manual of Policies, Procedures, and Guidelines, Section A, 2011:2).

In British Columbia, the learner enrolment in ELL programs, in public schools over the past nine years has seen a steady increase in enrolment presented as a percentage of total public school enrolment from 9.4% in 2001 to 2002 to 10.7% in 2009 to 2010 (BC Ministry of Education, 2010:14). In 2010, 22.5% of all learners in public schools in British Columbia spoke a primary language at home that was other than English.

Many area schools comprise of predominantly or significantly of learners for whom the language of instruction is not one they speak at home. Over 37% of the Greater Vancouver School District has a mother tongue other than English (Garnet, & Aman, 2008). Iker (2014) notes that there are currently, 4,636 classrooms with seven or more ELL’s registered (BCTF, 2014:1). Surrey, one of many cities in Metro Vancouver and in the Province of British Columbia, is one of Canada’s fastest growing cities. Surrey hosts the largest school district in British Columbia. The percentage of vulnerable learners in Surrey is on the increase, presently at 32% compared to the province-wide (30.9%) and Vancouver (40%). The Communication Skills Scale, which typically has a higher vulnerability in communities with a higher proportion of ELL learners for Surrey, is at 17% compared to the provincial level which is at 13.7% (The Human Early Learning Partnerships (HELP) EDI Wave, SD 36, 2013:9). Sara Grant, the Surrey library manager, estimates that 1,000 new residents move to the Surrey area each month increasing the demand for literacy support services (O Connor, The Province, 2012). British Columbia’s government’s goal is to reduce childhood vulnerability to 15% by 2015/16, to date only 5% of all neighbourhoods in British Columbia have rates below that figure (The Royal College of Surgeons, 2014:5; HELP, 2012:4).

The Statistics Canada census data (Statistics Canada, 2011) substantiates the aforementioned, noting that half of the population of Surrey, speak a language other than English as their primary language at home. The Surrey Library Literacy study notes that approximately three quarters of immigrants under fourteen years of age have no knowledge of English prior to arrival in British Columbia Canada wide one in five people speak a language other than English or French as their
mother tongue (Statistics Canada, 2008:11). This clearly has “serious implications” for official language policies and education, Canada wide (Guo, 2012:17).

The defining principals and legal framework of UNESCO, the Canadian government and more specifically the provincial government of British Columbia, have provided the ideology, initial framework and rhetoric of equal opportunity for and integration of the “diverse ethno linguistic” minority groups (See 1.1) within classrooms and broader society. However, the scarcity of funds and obscure targeting of funding for the English additional language programs provided for ELL’s in and out of the classrooms fail to achieve the aforementioned principals, in other words, where learners reach their full potential (Wild, Helmer, Tanaka & Dean, 2009:1).

In 2002, British Columbia’s Government passed Bill 28, a Public Education Flexibility and Choice Act, thereby removing guaranteed funding for educational services such as ELL, SN, counselling and school libraries from British Columbia’s teachers’ collective bargaining agreements. A decade later, many school districts face significant funding shortfalls that could facilitate further reductions to the aforementioned programs. Presently, funding for an ELL is available for five years, which is not sufficient to acquire the language skills necessary for classroom functionality – namely an ability to “grasp [the] academic language, which is required in the ‘normal’ schooling stream (Gunderson, 2011a).” Gunderson (2011a) further notes, that learners, supported by parents, often feel that they are capable of functioning well in the ‘regular stream’ without ELL assistance as their basic interpersonal communication (BICS) is adequate. In other words they “speak English” only to realise that they are unable to comprehend the academic language. Gunderson (2011a) furthers the discussion, noting:

[It]The provincial government says ESL funding doesn’t have to be used for five consecutive years, however, meaning students can do some programming, go into the regular stream, then go back to ESL programming later if necessary. But Gunderson says ESL students who begin school in kindergarten to Grades 3 or 4 will be put in regular classes, even though the district is receiving funds for ESL programming, because of the belief that younger children take to other languages much easier than older students. Which sometimes is true, except when you get into a classroom where there are 30 students and 28 are ESL, their English development is not as advantaged because they’re not surrounded by the target language, which is English.

The guidelines pertaining to ELL funding are vague and sanction the application of funds to areas other than ELL, in other words, districts, which “use it for purposes other than ELL” (ibid). On a practical and language skill based level, Jeanne Chall (1983:293) described and identified two major phases of reading development: learning to read and reading to learn. The first phase typically occurs in Grades 1, 2, and 3, and the second phase in grades 4 and beyond. “Learning to read” encompasses decoding words contained in simple relative texts that use familiar language. In the fourth grade however, texts become more complex, abstract and therefore more challenging often lending to a lack of fluency resulting in learners reading less and avoiding more difficult materials
Early language development is linked to the fourth grade slump (Chall, Jacobs & Baldwin, 1990:27) and is in fact evident and unmeasured in the early grades – it is not only a reading gap between advantaged and disadvantaged learners (and relevant to this study, the ELL) but a marked language gap. While Pinkham and Neuman (2012:32) broaden the notion, noting that learners’ comprehension skills tend to be overlooked in the early years. Guo (2012:17), concludes that ELL’s educational success is not ensured in Canada. The intricate balance between funding, teacher preparedness, curriculum planning and proficiency is a complex, vigorous and ongoing debate which informs the critical need for further research in the area of young ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. The validation of funding allocation for the provision of well-prepared specialist teachers, who are respectful of and sensitive to the cultural and linguistic diversity of the ELL and therefore able to efficiently deliver a specialised curriculum to the young ELL can only be achieved via vigorous and sound research in this field. Currently, ELL - formerly termed ESL - (BCTF, 2012a:11) teachers, are required to have a professional teaching certificate and basic classroom experience. However, “Training in methodology, for teaching ES[L]L, cross cultural sensitization and strategy training, multicultural studies, first and second language learning, and applied linguistics are suggested, but not required” (Geva, Gottardo, Farnia & Boyd Clark, 2009:12). Currently, support for learners with SN [inclusive of the ELL] to cope with the mainstream curriculum is varied and limited (Gearon et al., 2009:3). A shift in policy can and needs to come about if “…our rapidly changing demographic, where one in three British Columbians will have neither English nor French as a mother tongue by 2017” (Gibson & Mumford, 2012:2) is recognised and all teachers are “educated in and experienced at providing ESL [ELL]instruction (ibid).

The only way to ensure that this and other necessary changes occur is if everyone, from immigrant families to educators to the government, recognizes that ESL [ELL] is not an afterthought, but an integral part of the academic program for many students (ibid).

Current government shifts in education policy, are skewed toward economic accountability and away from the concerns for social justice, equity, participation and accessibility for all, namely the ideal of inclusion. Government both federal and provincial, continue to reduce the funding available for special education (White 2008a), which forces school districts to reduce expenditure and minimise support programs inclusive of the ELL services and teacher training. Teacher proficiency, if bettered, would better address issues of exclusion in the inclusive classrooms (Gerin-Lajoie, 2008:9-28; Abbatte Vaughn, 2008:175-202). Meaningful and functional inclusion as originally envisioned in the 1980s when the Canadian Teachers’ associations became deeply immersed in the reform movement that called for inclusion of learners with SN, inclusive of the ELL, into mainstream classrooms, is almost impossible to achieve when considering the CALD of the ELL’s, in today’s
classrooms in British Columbia. Prior to the 2002/03 school year, most school districts “recognized and organized discrete specialist support areas” (BCTF, 2004), encompassing set ratios for the number of ELL’s per teacher, availability of funding and ELL specialist teachers as set out in the 1998 provincial contract. An ELL specialist teacher is referenced as one which works collaboratively with classroom teachers to provide the additional support services needed for these learners to acquire social and academic language fluency in English (BCTF, 2012:14a). However, by 2002/3, Bill 28 – Public Education Flexibility and Choice Act, removed funding, resulting in contractual changes and the ratio teacher formula made redundant. This in turn was interpreted by some school districts as licence to employ fewer SN’s and ELL specialist teachers, resulting in reduced support (BCTF, 2004) for learners. Simultaneously, regulations increasing class sizes, minimal limits on class composition and inadequate funding began to erode the ideals of democracy, equal rights and therefore inclusive education cogently stated by Saul Ralston as “Canada’s democracy is eroding with every dime cut from education budgets” (Saul, 2004). Between 2002/2003, three thousand teachers in British Columbia were laid off. Provicially, there were 18.9% fewer Special Education teachers in 2003 than in 2001 and 20.3% fewer ELL specialist teachers (BCTF Research discussion paper 2004). ELL’s who begin school in Kindergarten and/or Grades 1, 2 and 3, are placed in regular classes based on the premise that young learners are able to learn additional languages more easily (Gunderson, 2007:69). This is generally true but when class composition comprises of twenty eight ELL’s in a class of thirty, the English language learning is not as vigorous as it would be if immersed with the target language (ibid). Compounding the issue, teachers are often unsure how to teach learners from CALD backgrounds (Gunderson, 2000:692-706).

As early as 1994, McLaughlin (1994:32) posited that many North American teachers “simply do not know how to help those students, who are unlike the students they are trained to teach or those whom they have taught in the past”. Abbate - Vaughn, (2008:175) elaborates on the requirements for what it means to be a highly qualified teacher and how the debate has paid little if any attention to the specific skills needed to work with learners from CALD backgrounds. Considering the increasing CALD of the Canadian population, current teacher preparation is unable to prepare the number of ELL teacher specialists for the ELL population. This suggests, that “all teachers need to be prepared for this population” (Guo, 2012:18).

The British Columbia’s Teachers Federation’s (BCTF) survey (Naylor, 2002) raised concerns over marginalisation and racism evidenced in the response by teachers to the survey. The survey, highlighted systemic discrimination in schools, evidenced in room allocation and by district pertaining to funding. The aforementioned, indicates that ELL support and provision is not considered a priority by administrators and reflected in government policies (Guo, 2012:18).
Gunderson (2000:692-702) and Guo (2011) report that parents too evidenced racism and
discrimination in schools which clearly is not in line with the inclusive policy mandated in British
Columbia.
Considering the aforementioned, there is increasing concern among Canadian researchers
pertaining to the inadequacies of the school system in the support of and response to the ELL’s
needs (Ngo, 2007:1-20). The redirection of ELL funding, inadequate teacher training and the
prevalence of fragmented programming for LEP learners a deficiency model which underlies the
systemic discrimination of ELL in schools (Ngo, 2009:96) “limit[s] rather than enhance learner
The theoretical framework and the literature review will detail how the aforementioned framework
of CALD, current educational policies, funding and teacher proficiency supports the rights of the
learner and the ideals of inclusion and ultimately the viability of the ELL’s access to and participation
in the K1, K2, and Grade 1 classroom, while acquiring literacy in English and how this impacts an at
risk and vulnerable community. This is the focus of the study: a visible minority population in British
Columbia, acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. To this end, the
ELL is an ‘outlier’ (Gien Snelgar 2010:4) in the British Columbian inclusive classroom.

1.5 Research question and objectives
Considering the problem statement of the study (See 1.3), the research question formulated is as
follows: Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose
home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English
speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

The objective of the study is to isolate and specify the extent of an ‘at risk and educationally
vulnerable minority’ through the identification of their LLP; thereby highlighting the disconnect
when preparing the ELL for literacy acquisition in English and the current inclusive classroom
practices. In support of and in order to sustain the primary objective, the following general
objectives were addressed.

1. To explore the CALD and therefore reality of ELL’s acquiring literacy in English.
2. To explore the ELL’s cultural, linguistic and participatory needs within the current
ideology of inclusion and the attendant fiscal austerity prevalent in today’s classroom.
3. To identify a high risk (i.e. educationally vulnerable) ELL population acquiring literacy and how the ideals of equity and excellence, translate in both practice and application for these young learners.

4. To explore and describe the barriers to learning and participation experienced by the young ELL learner acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

5. To explore and describe the rights of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

6. To identify, describe and quantify the LLP associated with ELL’s acquiring literacy in a second or third language.

7. To understand, describe and quantify the difference between the ELL’s LLP as it supports literacy acquisition, accessibility and participation when compared to English speaking monolinguals in the high risk population identified for this study.

8. To explore and describe current budget austerity and how it supports or not, ELL’s during first time literacy acquisition in the high risk population identified for this study.

9. To describe inclusive education legislation and policy in British Columbia and how they pertain to and accommodate or not, the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

10. To explore and describe teacher preparedness and therefore efficacy, as it pertains to addressing the LLP and the CALD of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

11. To explore the teacher’s ability for inclusion of parents in decision making processes which pertain to their children, the classroom and the school, when language is a barrier to communication.

Secondary objectives of this research are:

- To provide policy makers, curriculum developers and teachers with a framework for and awareness of the language and literacy vulnerabilities of the ELL and to highlight the attendant exclusion via the inability to access and participate in the inclusive classroom.

- Making inclusive education a tangible reality, rather than a silent, covert exclusionary process as a result of difference and diversity for an at risk minority acquiring first time literacy in a second language.

- To provide substantive evidence in support of teachers who presently uphold and support, an inspirational ideology without the necessary tools for success.
To facilitate further research into the needs of this previously unidentified CALD community and their subsequent educational vulnerability in inclusive classrooms.

1.6 Hypothesis

On the basis of the literature reviewed, the null and alternative hypotheses question, could be formally stated as,

\[ H_{0m}: \]
There are no statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills and when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis:

\[ H_{1m}: \]
There are statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.

The difference will be investigated in ELL’s whose home language is other than English, and who acquire English language and literacy in K1, K2, and Grade 1.

1.6.1. Sub hypothesis

The most efficient way of evaluating the main hypothesis was to divide the main hypothesis into the eleven components of language and literacy ability and evaluate achievement on each component separately. To this effect sub hypothesis were formulated as follows:

1. Letter Knowledge
2. Rhyme Knowledge
3. Basic Concepts
4. Receptive Vocabulary
5. Parallel Sentence Production
6. Elision
7. Word Relationships
8. Phonics Knowledge  
9. Sound Categorisation  
10. Sight Word Recognition  
11. Listening Comprehension  

1.7 Research methodology and design  

In support of the research aim, research question, purpose of the study and informed by the literature review (See Ch. 2), a pragmatic paradigm and a mixed methods approach and therefore mixed research design inform the research framework for this study (See Ch. 3). Pragmatism is the theoretical framework urged for a mixed methods design (Bergman, 2009:12), is not bound by any one philosophy or reality (Creswell, 2009a:10) and provides for the combination of multiple paradigms, methods, data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014a:11) to effectively evaluate the research question. In this regard, the researcher in accordance with the pragmatic paradigm framework draws upon the underlying philosophical assumptions of constructivism and post positivism for this research study (See Ch. 3).

Informed by the research question, a simple causal-comparative approach to the mixed research design and a complementary mixed method approach to the mixed model research design encompassing an interactive qualitative and a non-experimental quantitative mode of enquiry were applied in this study. Mixed methods is a growing trend in education research methodology (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:395) while the complementary nature of mixed methods research, “is of great value in bringing a wider range of evidence to strengthen and expand our understanding of a phenomenon” (Lieber & Weisner, 2010:560). A working definition, is noted as “an approach to inquiry in which the researcher links, in some way (e.g. merges, integrates, connects), both quantitative and qualitative data to provide a unified understanding of a research problem (adapted from Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell & Plano Garrett, 2008:2). Research itself is dynamic, reflecting the pragmatic paradigm, as it responds to the needs of an “increasingly complex phenomena” (Cresswell & Garrett, 2008:1), namely the interconnected, global community.

Mixed methods research, often termed a movement propelled by educational research, is founded on novel methodologies based on “sound and complete evidence” (ibid). Quantitative research has traditionally provided measurement oriented data, while qualitative research provides a platform for the voice of the participant, the contextualised settings provide meaning and background to the experience described (Cresswell, 2011:17). Cresswell & Garrett (2008:2) note that when both quantitative and qualitative research are combined, this leads to a “better understanding” of the research challenges that are not addressed by either quantitative or qualitative research design on its own. They further the discussion noting that an educational research study requires a “large
toolkit of methods and designs to address [the] complex, interdisciplinary research problems” (Creswell & Garrett, 2008:2). In this regard, a mixed methods research design is the research design of choice for this research study as it utilizes the strengths of a qualitative and quantitative approach, leading to a “better understanding of research problems than either standing alone” (Cresswell & Garret, 2008:2). Subsequently, in support of the research aim, purpose of the study, research question and the pragmatic theoretical framework, a mixed methods approach and therefore mixed research design were selected for this research study. A causal-comparative approach to the mixed research design and a complementary mixed method approach to the mixed model research design encompassing an interactive qualitative mode of enquiry and a non-experimental quantitative mode of enquiry were applied to the study.

1.7.1 Sampling

The Sample size draws from the research objective, the research question and the research design. In this regard, Onwuegbuzie’s and Collins’ Major Sampling Schemes Typology (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:285; Collins, 2010:358) and the Minimum Sample Size Recommendations for most Common Designs (Collins, 2010:362; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:288) inform the sampling design/framework and is further detailed in Chapter 3. In this regard, a predetermined sampling unit and sampling size, based on a simple random sampling was selected for this causal comparative research study, bearing in mind that the choice of sample size is as critical as the sample type, as it determines the efficacy of statistical inference and generalization (Ongwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:287; Collins, 2010:361).

In compliance with, the research objective, the research question, the research design, statistical formulas and the economic and logistical limitations of the researcher, 50 parents (25 plus 25) for the qualitative strand (See 3.4.9.1) and 50 learners (25 plus 25) for the quantitative strand (See 3.9.4.2) - were randomly selected from the areas of Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island in the province of British Columbia. The assessment or investigation phase of the study comprised of two phases for both the monolingual and the ELL groups. Phase 1: A structured open-ended questionnaire the qualitative strand (for the parents mother or father) and phase 2 the quantitative strand - the ALL assessment for the learners. The assessment phases were sequential (i.e, the questionnaire was administered to the parent and after that, the ALL was administered to the learner in the parent’s company – a sequential application delivered at the information rich sites (See Chapter 3).

Purposefully selected sites (elementary schools, Immigration Centres, Associations and public community sites) rendering ‘information rich’ subjects, in other words sites saturated with CALD and
monolingual age appropriate learners were selected. To this end, compliant with a purposive, simple random sampling strategy (i.e., a small, targeted, random sample where every member of the population - i.e., all monolingual learners, ELL’s and their respective parents in the purposefully selected sites - has the same chance of being selected (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:489,490)). Access to the target population, for simple random selection, was captured via the distribution of flyers, within the information rich sites. The parents of the monolingual learners and ELL’s self-volunteered for the research study in response to the flyer distribution at the various sites. The choice of sample size and sampling method is in line with Onwuegbuzie’s and Collins Major Sampling Schemes Typology for mixed methods research (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:285; Collins, 2010:358) and is further elaborated upon in Chapter 3.

1.7.2 Methods of data collection
Data are defined as the results obtained by research from which interpretations and conclusions are drawn (Mc Millan & Schumacher, 2010:486). In this instance, data were collected with the following instruments deemed by the researcher to have a reasonable degree of validity (See 3.8); the literature review, a structured open-ended questionnaire and a standardised measuring instrument, the Assessment for Language and Literacy (ALL) (Lombardino, Lieberman & Brown, 2005a).

1.7.2.1 The theoretical framework and literature review
The data collection process, instruments used and subsequent analyses, are informed by the theoretical framework and the literature review. The theoretical framework and literature review provided the theoretical scaffolding and factual information, enabling the researcher to investigate the reality of the ELL in the K1, K2 and Grade 1 inclusive classroom acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

1.7.2.2 Structured open-ended questionnaire
The instrument used for the qualitative strand of the research study was a structured open-ended questionnaire. For a detailed explanation of the instrument, method, application and justification for use, see 3.4.9.1. The term questionnaire is used in this study, in that it generally implies the use of a research instrument for the measurement and collection of reliable and in this instance factual data (Dornyei, 2010:3). However, the administration of the structured open-ended questionnaire is somewhat more similar to an opinion poll, in that it is delivered by the researcher, individually, in the form of an interview, in consideration of the LEP of the respondents and in the pursuit of efficient and accurate data retrieval. The structured, open-ended questionnaire was designed and
administered by the researcher and, informed by the procedures, protocols and ethics for survey and questionnaire design and application (Cross Cultural Survey Guidelines, 2008:6; United States Department of Health and Human Services Office for Human research Protections, 2005:46.102/d; Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010:11-19; 80-82) and the ELL Checklist (Gien, 2010:107). An informal preliminary pilot study, soliciting broad and general information was applied to determine the predetermined categories (i.e., sections A, B, C and D) of the structured open-ended questionnaire. An additional pilot study for the structured questionnaire was conducted as part of an adult ELL class exercise specifically to isolate and eliminate potential problem areas. Based on the findings of the second pilot study, the structured open-ended questionnaire was adjusted accordingly prior to final administration, promoting efficient data retrieval. The structured open-ended questionnaire was administered individually by the researcher to each parent (qualitative strand) of the 25 monolinguals and the 25 ELL’s who participated in the language and literacy assessment (ALL) (quantitative strand). To this end, the ‘social story’ (Hesse-Biber, 2010:26), namely background information, was retrieved from the parent/translator by the researcher.

1.7.2.3 Literacy and Language Assessment (ALL)

The standardised norm referenced instrument used for the quantitative strand of the study was the Literacy and Language Assessment for young children (ALL), consisting of a series of sub tests (See table 3.6), and a scaled assessment in order to evaluate the development of language and emergent literacy skills of K1, K2 and Grade 1 learners. The immediate purpose of the ALL is to identify learners who exhibit language disorders, in this instance LEP and identify learners who are at risk for later literacy acquisition due to specific risk factors including environment, hereditary and difficulties with the phonological system of language. The purpose of the ALL analysis is an investigation into the literacy and language skills of both the comparison group (the monolinguals) and the ELL’s (the subject group) for comparative purposes. For a detailed explanation of the instrument, method, application and justification for use, see 3.4.9.2.

1.7.3 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is concerned with the analysis of numerous sources of data (Onwuegbuzie & Coombs, 2010:404), is descriptive and thematic text or image analysis (Cresswell, 2009*:218). In this instance, it is concerned with the analysis of the structured open-ended questionnaire (technically a non-conformist approach to qualitative design (Bryman, 2004:822)) (See 3.4.9.1). Two pilot studies compliant qualitatively, informed the predetermined categories and sub categories of the aforementioned. To this end, the textual data retrieved from the two pilot studies, was
organised for analysis, coded, categorised and sub categorised within the constructivist paradigm (See 3.3.2) to bring meaning, validity and a framework to the structured open-ended questionnaire. Quantitative data analysis on the other hand, is descriptive and inferential numeric analysis (ibid.) and with regard to this study, the analysis strategy, is structured by the following statistical analyses:

1. Frequency tables
2. Bar graphs
3. Cochran-Armitage trend test
4. Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test (or The Mann-Whitney)
5. Parametric analysis of variance (or t test for the two group case)
6. Box plots graphical presentation

A structured open-ended questionnaire (qualitative) and the ALL (quantitative) were used in the exploration, description and quantification of the at risk educational minority. The purpose of the qualitative data is to investigate the “lived experience” (Hesse-Beber, 2010:12) and background of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. The quantitative data analysis is to evaluate and compare the LLP between the two groups, namely the ELL (the subject group) and the monolingual (the comparison group).

The analyses described, are informed by the research methodology detailed further and motivated in Chapter 3. Inference drawn from these results, including the subsequent deductions and recommendations are discussed in Chapter 4.

1.7.4 Validity, reliability and credibility

Shipman’s (1988) questions pertaining to validity, reliability and credibility (Shipman, 2014:VII) with regard to this research study are informed and guided by the Methodology of the research study, namely pragmatism and the literature review (detailed in Chapter 2) which form the overarching framework for the research study. The research design is informed by the National Research Council’s (2002) six principles (See 3.9) which underpin scientific evidence based inquiry in education and research. The research design, a mixed methods approach, in addition to and in accordance with the six principles, informs the ability to generalise the findings of the research study (validity), the ability to replicate the findings in further research studies (reliability) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:8) and the extent to which the results of the study are trustworthy and reasonable (credibility) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:2).

Mixed methods research development is evolving and the use increasing, particularly in the social behavioural and related sciences (Bergman, 2009:11; McMillan & Shumacher, 2011:395) and therefore is the choice of this research study. The integration of the qualitative and quantitative
components is conceptualised by the researcher as complimentary, in that aspects of the qualitative research study bolster weaknesses in the quantitative study and vice versa (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:259). In other words, a mixed methods study elaborates and/or clarifies the results of one method based on another (Nastasi, Hitchcock & Brown, 2010:307). In addressing the research aim (See 1.2) the background and social perceptions of the ELL are explored in a micro ethnographic qualitative design that complements the evaluation of the scientific LLP phenomenon in the quantitative design and is in accordance with the mixed methods research design approach. In this regard, a brief overview of the terms validity, reliability and credibility and how they are integrated into this research study to enhance the quality of the research follow.

Validity is the process whereby steps are taken to ensure the accuracy of both the qualitative and quantitative findings and this process is advocated for in both the qualitative and quantitative strands of the study (Tashakori & Teddlie, 1998:219; Creswell, 2014:227) - each method with its own specific criteria for upholding the validity principle. Validity, in its initial conception, focused solely on causal relationships in experimental designs (Bergman, 2009:107). Today, social and behavioural research tends to be non-experimental as is the case in this research study thereby, facilitating a more malleable approach to internal validity when it is used to denote inferences that rule out an alternate, plausible explanation for gathered results (Krathwohl, 2004:139; Bergman, 2009:107). The internal validity of a research study references the design of the research study, the data it yields and the ability to draw accurate conclusions regarding the cause and effect within the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:243). The external validity of a study refers to the extent the data from the research study “can be generalised to other subjects, conditions and situations” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:487). Validity in qualitative research is measured by the agreement between the ‘explanations of the phenomena’ and the reality (McMillan & Shumacher, 2011:330) and is checked by strategies to enhance validity detailed in chapter 3. However, in the quantitative design, external validity is considered in two categories, namely, population external validity where generalizability is limited to respondent characteristics (in this instance the ELL) and ecological external validity where generalizability is limited to the context of the study (McMillan & Schumacher:116), which in this instance is the at risk educational minority acquiring literacy in English, a language not spoken at home and who by virtue of their LLP are excluded from participation in the inclusive classroom of British Columbia. Validity for the purposes of this research study is pursued by seeking compatibility between the ‘realities of the [ELL] world’ via a faithful reconstruction of the respondents’ multiple perceptions, namely background and sense of inclusion in British Columbia’s classrooms and the scientific explanation of the phenomenon, namely the LLP (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:603).
However, validity concerns are ongoing in mixed methods research. The traditional perspective of separating the discussion for qualitative and quantitative research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) has moved toward conceptualising validity, initially within a framework assembled by Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan & Tanaka (2010:17-33) who introduce the term construct validity, an umbrella term which permeates all phases of the research process (Tashakori & Teddlie, 2010:60). While Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006:48-63) conceptualised a battery of new and unique terms specifically relevant to mixed methods research by creating a ‘bilingual language’ for mixed methods research. Validity in this regard is termed ‘validity legitimation’ and is embedded in a typology of nine forms of legitimation for mixed method research. Tashakori and Teddlie (2003) poignantly note that the discussion on procedures for mixed method research has moved on from justification and into detailed suggestions on how to conduct a mixed method research study. Chapter 3 further details and elaborates on the process of change in terminology and application, when applying mixed methods research methodology and the rational of its application to this study. The terms validity, reliability and credibility are the terms used in this study.

Validity and reliability are usually relational and complementary; however, they can be conflicting, in that a measure may be reliable, however there is no certainty that what is being measured is valid (Neumann, 2003:186). Reliability, speaks to the extent to which measurements from a measuring instrument are consistent (Leedy & Ormond, 2013:91) and is a prerequisite for validity (Hesse-Biber, 2010:86; McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:185). Reliability in qualitative research, as in quantitative research, is related to dependability and consistent findings. In other words, findings reviewed by peers should remain consistent and therefore substantiate the accurate capture of the phenomenon under investigation (Tashakori & Teddlie, 2003:694).

Credibility encapsulates the compatibility between data collected and reality; in addition, the “accuracy, trustworthy[iness] and reason[ability]” of the data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:102) contributes to the credibility of the study. The credibility of a study is enhanced when the researcher is able to show hypothesised relationships within the study and acknowledges potential errors and limitations which may influence the results of the study (See 3.9). In this regard, the definitive meanings and application of validity, reliability and credibility remain dynamic and controversial.

Furthering the discussion on a proposed typology of terminology for quantitative research when incorporated in a mixed methods research model, Teddlie and Tashakori (2003) introduced the term “inference quality” and Ongwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006), introduced the term legitimation” with the intention of not only replacing the term validity but creating more specifically focused terms. Druckman (2005) adds to the new terminology and uses the term “authenticity”, while Guba and
Lincoln (1989), introduced the term trustworthiness as an umbrella term when referring to qualitative inferences.

This study made use of both the qualitative and the quantitative research methods drawing from the strengths of both methods to ensure validity, reliability and credibility, while addressing weaknesses to strengthen validity, reliability and credibility. In using the mixed methods approach for data collection and analysis, the researcher draws and analyses data from “sources that have diverse potential threats to validity” (Hammersley, 2008:23) reducing the possibility of drawing false conclusions. By comparing the validity of an interpretation based on a single data source to at least one other data source of a strategically different type, to promote reliability, validity and credibility imply the original use of the term, triangulation (Bergman, 2009:23). This, however, in its original use within the social science methodology, does not imply the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, it merely suggests that by comparing data from sources that have different and varied potential threats to validity, it is possible to diminish the risk of drawing false conclusions (Hammersley, 2008:23) as is the intention of this research study. Triangulation with its convergent data is used for cross validation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:331) within this mixed methods research design.

Validity for this research study was further pursued via a rigorous review of the literature pertaining to the ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. In addition, from the qualitative perspective, the questionnaire seeking to establish the ELL’s background details and perceptions pertaining to inclusion was compiled bearing in mind Creswell’s’ (2009:101) strategies recommending triangulation. Strategies noted in McMillan & Schumcher (2011:331-2) notably, an external auditor in order to retrieve and analyse quality data plus the use of low inference descriptors for clarity, participant review for accuracy and negative and or discrepant data investigated are followed (See 3.8).

From the quantitative perspective, validity is sought via the researchers’ experience and exposure to hands-on knowledge of the selected standardised instrument namely, The Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL) and a detailed review of the literature pertaining to the development and the standardisation of the instrument. In addition, numerous pilot studies were carried out to minimise bias, review sample selection, data collection, analysis and addressed cultural sensitivities and dialectical variances and are detailed in Chapter 3.9.

Reliability is addressed by the researcher describing the steps taken to ensure sound research design and statistical analysis; credibility was sought by the researcher via transparency throughout the research process, justifying the choices and presenting the research study in a logical and well-reasoned manner. The aforementioned are further discussed in 1.8 below and detailed in Chapter 3.
1.8 Role and limitation of the researcher

This study examines the degree to which LEP in young ELL’s excludes these learners from equitable participation within the classroom, school and curricular activities, via a comparative analysis between the LLP of monolingual learners and ELL’s. In order to credibly explore the reality of the young ELL’s world, a qualitative interpretation of findings looks to seek mutual meaning between the researcher and the participants, complemented by the scientific explanations of the phenomena via the quantitative method. However, the common denominator in both the qualitative and quantitative research methods is the researcher - the “human instrument” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:187), who defines the research problem, clarifies the purpose of the research, the data collection and the analyses and the interpretation thereof. Therefore, a degree of bias or fallibility is a given, although reliability, is sought throughout the research process. Bias is a term assumed to mean a prejudice both deliberate or unintentional for or against a learner (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:113) and consistency is a “broader term referring to repeatability[reliability] of results that can vary due to either bias or human error” (Haley, Thomas, Petre & De Roeck, 2009:2). The “human instrument”, is therefore limited in its ability to produce meaningful data (Merriam, 1998:20), in other words, data free of bias. In consideration of the inherent bias within the researcher and therefore within the research study, an existing standardised norm referenced instrument, namely the ALL, is selected for the quantitative component of the study assuring an established validity, reliability and credibility. However, absolute objectivity is “impossible to attain and of questionable desirability in the first place since it ignores the intrinsically social nature of and human purpose of research” (Patton, 2002:50). For this reason, a qualitative component is applied to the research study. In consideration of fallibility and bias, a vigorous approach is purposefully applied to the qualitative component of the study, as demanded by the subjective nature of the researcher’s position. Denzin and Lincoln (2008:1-28) summed up the qualitative data collected and subsequent research findings gleamed from a complex phenomenon as the *bricolage* (translated as trifle) of the qualitative researcher, while Levy Strauss (1966) references the researcher as the *bricolour*. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) note that the primary focus of the researcher is to capture:

> [the]lived experience of the participants by noting “[s]uch experience, it is argued, is created in the social text written by the researcher. This is the representational problem. It confronts the inescapable problem of representation, but does so within a framework that makes the direct link between experience and text problematic (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:19).

The credibility of the research is largely dependent upon the researcher’s skill, competence, rigour and integrity and most importantly, the interpersonal skills of the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:332). The researcher’s skills, such as building trust, maintaining good relations,
being non-judgemental, respecting the norms of the respondents and situation, and being sensitive to ethical and cultural issues, speaks to the integrity of the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:411). A salient concern and one relevant to this study is the subjective nature of the qualitative approach. Objectivity is both a procedure and a characteristic in that it is considered as being open minded and unbiased as a characteristic; in research, it is referenced and is considered a strength of quantitative research, in that it pertains to the quality of the data produced by procedures which either control for bias or take into account subjectivity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:11; 2010:9).

Subjectivity on the other hand is considered a weakness of qualitative research and the “antithesis of scientific enquiry” (Patton, 2002:50; Newman & Ramlo, 2010:507). Patton further states, that the terms ‘objectivity’ and ‘subjectivity’ fuel the methodological paradigm debate. Mixed methods research “cannot claim to bridge the unbridgeable gap between positivism and constructivism” (Bergmann, 2009:19). It does however, provide an alternative to mono method designs, which for specific research questions, under specific research circumstances is one of the “most exciting (and oldest) research designs in the social sciences” (ibid:19). The mixed methods research strategy brings about the possibility of the advancement of the methodology; it however, also presents possible risks (Brannan, 2009:54).

In consideration of the aforementioned, past and current methodologies and potential resources (Brannen, 2009:63), the researcher is aware of the opportunity to address novel and new ways to approach research questions. This however comes with the responsibility of upholding methodological rigour for both the qualitative and quantitative methods. In this regard, the qualitative research method, by design engages the researcher as the ‘human instrument’ for gathering and analysing data, which raises the question of bias and therefore fallibility once again (in this instance, cultural and language differences, values and beliefs). The researcher’s orientations, such as background, opinions, and values and personal beliefs cannot be isolated from the research process neither can the inherent characteristics of the researcher (Merriam, 1998:20). The potential to view your world through a cultural bias or ‘your own framework, is a recognised bias and therefore a limitation in qualitative research. In order to limit the bias, Mertens (2010:430) recommends maintaining a journal detailing the researcher’s changing personal perspectives throughout the study and, in addition, discussing progress with a peer de briefer in order to enhance the ability to self-detect when a “cultural lens” is influencing data collection. In addition, it is recommend, that the researcher participates in discussion with members of the culture being researched to detect divergence in viewpoints, which may be based on culturally different interpretations. In this study, the researcher endeavours to investigate not only the LLP of the ELL quantitatively but to understand the contextual information surrounding the experiences of the ELL.
and the characteristics of the community from which the ELL hails. Constructing the ELL’s contextual reality in the inclusive classroom requires the researcher to vigorously scrutinize through self-reflection, concentrating on her own personal awareness, recognizing the respondents by capturing their ‘essence’ and pursuing accuracy in order to address her own personal subjectivity and cultural context as recommended by Pillow (2003). In this regard, reflexivity, is a general term which involves the “rigorous examination of one’s personal and theoretical commitments” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011:332) and is a critical process in establishing credibility. Subjectivity and unrecognised cultural bias and the limitations of the researcher in this study are acknowledged. New paths of observation and description were sought via constant, honest, vigorous reflection, peer de briefing and reflexive journaling to mitigate subjectivity. To this end, gain new insight and a revised understanding of the diverse array of learners and their social practices in British Columbia’s classrooms.

In sum, the multiple and complex realities of the ELL learner, cannot be bound by the researcher’s subjectivity, perceptions beliefs and values but need to be approached as Lock’s tabula rasa. Old categories, boundaries and fixed views of identity and culture are now unhelpful (Gearon et al., 2009:218), and need to be excoriated through vigorous reflection. With this intent, this research study, empirically oriented and ethnographically interpreted, is aimed at reframing the current view of the inclusion of the ELL in the inclusive education classroom in British Columbia.

1.9 Motivation for research

This study grew from a personal need, to highlight and identify the struggle of the ELL acquiring literacy in an inclusive classroom. By so doing, furthering the implementation of the policy of inclusive education and the requisite support services for success of the ELL which is the fundamental motivation for this study. As a vice principal and an ELL teacher in Singapore, a further eleven years in Canada as a special needs coordinator and three years as an ELL family program coordinator, the researcher became acutely aware while working with ELL’s who manifest with the slightest degree of LEP, experience a barrier to learning and, by default, require efficient, adaptive and skilled support services within the inclusive English speaking classroom.

CALD learners, while deemed proficient in English for purposes of literacy acquisition, shared a commonality when their language and literacy profiles were scrutinised, namely a marked differential between the LLP of the monolinguals whose home language was English and the ELL who was assumed to be sufficiently proficient but were in fact not - thus hindering seamless and efficient literacy acquisition in the early years. The LLP divergence is markedly apparent when quantified and, contributes to and creates an at risk educationally vulnerable minority hitherto unidentified.
Inclusive education, the current education policy in Canada and specifically in British Columbia, is in a state of constant flux due to heretofore unseen immigration (Citizenship and Immigration, 2011:6). The current classroom profile in British Columbia has serious implications for official language policies and education (See 1.1). Accordingly, there is an alarming concern amongst Canadian researchers and teachers as to the failure of the school system to provide adequate support to the needs of the ELL (Gou, 2012:1; Kuehn, 2012:1). Thus, the motivation for this study which specifically isolates the early learner from a CALD background charged to acquire first time literacy with an attendant LLP which is not age or task appropriate. The study identifies this educational high risk minority which by definition becomes a learner with special needs. The discrepancy in language and literacy forms the basis of the researcher’s interest in addition to the ‘dearth’ of research (Geva et al., 2009:55) in this critical area. In consideration of the aforementioned, my details, background and experiences are relevant to and influence this research.

1.10 Clarification of terms and concepts

The terms and concepts used in inclusive education are embedded in a range of contexts and in addition contain an array of abbreviations and acronyms. They are relationship driven and continue to change as the pursuit of politically correct terminology, constant reformulation of the definition and application of inclusive education evolves, and in tandem, the reformulation of support, for learners’ needs with special educational needs continues to progress. Prior to the 1970’s, both discourse and practice contributed to segregation and exclusion” (Canadian Research Centre on Inclusive Education UWO, 2012:1) Today the belief is that all learners belong and can learn in regular classrooms and schools. This however is not simple in application; inclusive education continues to be a “complex and problematic concept that raises many questions” (Mitchell, 2009:1) for educational policy-makers globally as inclusion “shifts from old to new educational paradigms” (Mitchell, 2009:20). Terminology constantly changes from the old to the new, propelled by concerns pertaining to the perpetuation of discriminatory concepts. In the following section, relevant terms and concepts are clarified as they pertain to current inclusive philosophy, inclusive education and the ELL in an inclusive classroom acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

In pursuit of clarity, the key terms and concepts pertaining to the topic are elaborated upon and defined below. In each instance, the term’s specific meaning and relevance to the study is outlined. For ease of reference, the term and concept clarification is divided into six broad categories: population, literacy components, semantic concepts, acquisition of dominant language by language minority learners, language development and reading analysis. However, the umbrella terms, inclusion, exclusion, marginalisation, special needs learners, special needs, mainstream, integration,
barriers to learning, at risk learners, learner support model, learner support teachers, diversity and multiculturalism are detailed and elaborated upon independently for contextual purposes (See footnotes 1 2 3 for additional contextual clarity).

1.10.1 Diversity

“Diversity, the variety of characteristics that all persons possess, that distinguish them as individuals and that identify them as belonging to a group or groups. Diversity is a concept that includes notions of age, class, culture, disability, ethnicity, family, sex, language, place of origin, race, religion, and sexual orientation, as well as other characteristics that vary among people and groups within society” (Multiculturalism in communities, 2005:22). The government of British Columbia furthers this and recognises diversity as being “one of the most prominent features” of our schools and society (BC Ministry of Education, 2008:3). Over the past two decades however, “globalization has altered the face of social cultural and linguistic diversity (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011:2) which has morphed into a “super diversity” (Vertovec, 2007:1024) specifically British Columbia

a. Super diversity

Super diversity (See 2.5.1.4), as is evidenced in the population of Canada (Statistics Canada, 2012), is characterised by a tremendous increase in the categories of migrants, not only in terms of nationality, ethnicity and language but also in terms of assimilation into the labour and housing markets of the host nations (Vertovec, 2010:83-95).

b. Multiculturalism

The concept of multiculturalism, its application and practice defies definition. It can refer to a demographic statistic describing peoples from different CALD backgrounds in a single society, or it can pertain to an ideological policy managing diversity (Hyman, Meinhard & Shields, 2011:3), or it can be used as leverage by ethnic groups to achieve their goals (Dewing & Lehman, 2009). On the other hand, perhaps a more sceptic hand, Kymlicka (2010:33) describes post multiculturalism as being “characterised as a feel-good celebration of ethnocultural diversity, encouraging citizens to acknowledge and embrace the panoply of

1 Of note, this research, does not come from a deficit model, but from the model of improving on strengths, identifying differences, and in so doing extinguish exclusion in inclusive classrooms Robertson (2005:714). In addition, for the purpose of this study, ELL’s are deemed, to have proficiency and emergent literacy skills in the language spoken at home, of which there are over two hundred in British Columbia excluding the aboriginal languages (Statistics Canada, 2006:1 a.).

2 The term LLP for the purposes of this study is a term conceptualised by the researcher describing the unique profile of the ELL as it pertains to language and literacy acquisition. At no time is it used in a derogatory sense as in racial profiling, nor is it indicative of difference or deficit in a negative sense but merely a tool for furthering research.

3 First time literacy acquisition in a SL and simultaneous language and literacy acquisition are used intermittently in the study. Literacy acquisition in a language not yet learned, is by default first time literacy acquisition in that language and in this instance, first time literacy acquisition in English. It is a given, that there is a level of emergent literacy in the language/s spoken at home. It is however not within the parameter of this study to ascertain the levels of such. They are, however, considered to be assets when considering the delivery of language instruction in English.
customs, traditions, music, and cuisine that exist in a multi-ethnic society”. Alibhai-Brown 2000, coined the acronym 3S, namely, saris, samosas and steel drums, a model of British multiculturalism. The Dutch further the pursuit of definition, proffering a policy of “integration with preservation of identity from 1984 -1992 (Prins & Saharso, 2010:73). In France, the recognition and positive representation of ethnic communities and their cultural differences (Simon & Sala Pala, 2010:93) defines the French perspective of Multiculturalism. Despite the ism in multiculturalism suggesting a unified ideology (Vertovec, 2010:2), multiculturalism differs from country to country, province to province and community to community and in addition from policy to application (Vertovec & Wessendorf, 2010:2). Of relevance to this study, Canadian multiculturalism is defined as “being fundamental to our belief that all citizens are equal. Multiculturalism ensures that all citizens can keep their identities, can take pride in their ancestry and have a sense of belonging. The Canadian experience has shown that multiculturalism encourages racial and ethnic harmony and cross-cultural understanding” (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012b). Cultural values and beliefs, economic wealth and histories, ‘mediate’ the concept of inclusive education (Mitchel, 2009:15) thereby lending it a unique and relative perspective to the immediate environment in which it is applied (Artilles & Dyson, 2009:37). In sum, the objective of multiculturalism in Canada is the integration of immigrants into the mainstream, “underpinned by a battery of human rights legislation” (Ley, 2010:202). The legislation provides for and stipulates via “monitored and audited compliance” (Ley, 2010:203) individual rights and group rights, while embedded within the greater commitment to Canada and its’ values. The premise then is social inclusion through equality of opportunity. Canada’s sustained immigration and multicultural policy “properly nurtured, is our greatest strength” (Mickelburgh, 2006:15). In other words, continually, ardently seeking and remediating evident shortcomings, investigating criticisms and challenges in a proactive manner, while permitting the cultural values and beliefs to guide a viable, multicultural and diverse society. A “position that champions diversification of thinking and multilingualization of Canada’s linguistic minorities” (Guardado, 2012:160) thereby incorporating both the multicultural and multilingual aspects present in Canadian society, into the classroom. Guardado (2012:161) posits the salient question “If this is not a reasonable move for educational policy, then we have to ask ourselves: Is Canada’s ideology of multiculturalism a deeply rooted value reflected in the educational policy or is it only a “celebratory multiculturalism”?
1.10.2 Inclusion

“Inclusive education is a process that involves the transformation of schools and other centres of learning so as to cater for all children” (UNESCO, 2008:3), in other words ensuring education for all. This process is overviewed below, with emphasis on the legislation and human rights.

a. Legislation and inclusive education

In 1982, the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms specifically noted the rights of all individuals in Canada to equality and freedom from discrimination; notably and relevant to this study, where such discrimination is based on disability amongst others (Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, Section 15.1).

b. Human rights, social justice and inclusive education

The success of inclusion requires far more than legislation and policy. It speaks to dynamic and evolutionary attitudes, philosophies, rhetoric and application. Berres, (1996:1-15) posits that attitudes and philosophies are the cornerstones of a successful inclusive education system. While Rossi, Freeman and Lipsey (2004:46) further the discussion introducing, a more “focused care for learners” as a guiding principle that should underpin all, inclusive educational policies and practices. In the light of a ‘more focused care for learners’, human rights translate to a more just society, a society where “full participation” of all learners extends beyond the upholding of the “philosophy of human rights” (Multiculturalism in Communities, 2005:13). Social justice calls for the full participation of learners within an inclusive classroom in pursuit of a just and equitable environment for the ELL. Social justice as such, is not legislated in Canada, its principles are however, upheld in the Canadian Charter of Freedom and Rights (1982). The rights based philosophy, is outlined in international declarations relevant to inclusive education (See Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, UNESCO: 1948). Research posits that progress toward and the success of inclusive education, requires a culture of collaboration and investigation that “encourages and supports problem solving” (UNESCO, 2008:6) and the re-evaluation of the evidence as is the case with the young ELL and the barriers to learning for some learners. Inclusive education encompasses and is concerned with the social, economic, political and cultural factors which influence the appropriate “intersectoral policies” that often generate exclusion from within and without (UNESCO, 2008:7). It is a rights based perspective and maintains that each individual possesses a fundamental right, regardless of difference, to fully develop their potential while upholding equity and equality (UNESCO, 2005b:13; Lambert, 2012:2).
Inclusion infers the principle that all learners have the right to equitable access to and participation in the learning environment. In other words, foster schools which facilitate and promote the possibility of achievement and pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education programs. However, “the practice of inclusion is not necessarily synonymous with full integration in regular classrooms, and goes beyond placement to include meaningful participation and the promotion of interaction with others” (Special Education Services 2011: V).

In sum, Ainscow (2005:15) states that inclusion is a “process and not a state”. It is this notion that motivates the context of this research study. Specifically, the needs and rights of the minority language learners, are of interest, ensuring that their differences are highlighted and addressed thus realising their rights, and ensuring a just education system facilitating the full potential of the principles and ideology of inclusive education and ultimately, a more just society, a ‘more focused care’, in accordance with the principles of inclusive education.

1.10.3 Exclusion

The term ‘exclude’ as a verb, is defined as “to shut or keep out from place or group or privilege and so forth (Oxford Dictionary, 2007:225). Exclusion, the noun form, is complex and is frequently referenced, across many areas. It is evidenced in political discourse, particularly in education, and often in tandem with “inclusion for all” learners (Slee, 2009:148). Dyson (2009:81) furthers the meaning and references social exclusion. For this study, the complexity is no different, in that exclusion traverses the realms of social exclusion, classroom exclusion, participatory exclusion and most pertinent linguistic and literacy exclusion.

Social exclusion is generally relative to the socioeconomic status of the individual other factors notwithstanding. Dyson (2009:77) posits, that “special needs [in education] are related to the characteristics of socio economic groups” as they are defined by ethnicity implying a CALD and therefore exclusion. “Exclusionary language policies, lead to persistently unequal levels of literacy learning and academic achievement” (Francis, 2012:27). Exclusion as a term has many varied applications and as many definitions. It is therefore not surprising, that a socially just, democratic and therefore inclusive classroom, one that is mindful of and responsive to cultural and linguistic diversity is as elusive in rhetoric as it is in practice.

a. Marginalisation

Exclusion and marginalisation are jointly described as socio political processes, both responsible for the “peripheralisation” of individuals, and groups from the dominant group (Paivinen & Bade, 2008:
Both in essence, are terms describing the ostracizing of individuals from the main group (McIntosh, 2006:269-264) which results in inequality. The word margin meaning edge, not of central importance limited in extent, significance, or stature, to relegate to an unimportant or powerless position within a society or group (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2013). “Marginalization is a process, not a label – a process of social de-valuation that serves to justify disproportional access to scarce societal resources” (Dei & Rummens, 2013:2) - in this instance, access to participation and the curriculum for the young CALD ELL. The ELL’s linguistic, literacy and cultural diversity facilitates marginalisation in the present system with respect to the following: the political front, via funding caps and teacher preparedness where ELL funding is redirected toward other areas of need (See 1.4; 2.6.3.1 and 2.7). On a socio political level, where the right of every learner to be heard and participate in the classroom, with access to the curriculum is not necessarily as is the case with CALD young ELL as this study argues. As educators, researchers and teachers, “we can change this” (Dei & Rummens, 2013). The dynamic, fluid and often “elusive and contested nature” (Mowat, 2010:631) of inclusive education, continues to create new, salient and demanding educational needs. It is within the spirit of the shared acknowledgement and insight into the goal of inclusive education namely, a means to enhance participation and opportunity for all learners, “especially those at risk for marginalisation and social exclusion” (Reicher, 2010:214) that this study falls - specifically, the ELL who is marginalised by virtue of the LLP.

1.10.4 Learners with special educational needs

Inclusion as a concept is entrenched internationally as a dominant policy (Avramadis, 2005:1) and is realised through the identification of learners with special needs; it is “a term associated with the Warnock report of 1978 (DES, 1978, SECTION 1.4) which advocates that learners with 'special educational needs' (LSEN) be educated within mainstream schools” (Hickman, 2012:78). It is however, a concept that is relatively new, lacks an “established base of empirical research” (Dyson, Howes & Roberts, 2002) and is short on in-depth analyses of inclusive classroom processes (Nilhol & Alm, 2010). Exceptional learners, as defined by the Ministry of Education BC, are “students with special needs [who] have disabilities of an intellectual, physical, sensory, emotional, or behavioural nature, or have a learning disability or have exceptional gifts or talents” (2012:1). Of note, literacy and language are not included.

Special needs learner (SNL) is the term referenced for this study and pertains to the ELL’s and LEP learners, who come from CALD backgrounds. These learners might indeed be exceptional although not specifically noted as such in policy documents referencing LSEN’s. However, the language and literacy specific ‘exceptionality’ and the targeted learning support required by these learners are
highlighted by this study and referenced as a special need. What is not clear is that once identified, where on the SN’s curriculum, if at all, do these learners fall and what support, both quality and quantity, is needed to breach the difference in the LLP’s of the ELL’s? At what point does an ELL become a special needs learner (SNL) and are the present support structures available to the ELL efficient and appropriate? Demographic data indicate that a large percentage of ELL’s do not have the English proficiency “essential for success in the 21st century” (Shatz & Wilkinson, 2010:211). Regardless of the causality for the limited proficiency, education programmes are charged to spearhead and facilitate an environment and curriculum that proffer the support ELL’s need to be successful.

1.10.5 Barriers to learning

Educational difficulties experienced by learners may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic factors are those factors which arise outside the learner but impact on his or her learning. They may arise from the family and its cultural, social and economic context. Schools may constitute barriers to learning “when the learner’s mother tongue is not used for teaching and learning” (Walton, Nel, Hugo & Muller, 2009:107). Extrinsic barriers to learning are considered for the purpose of this study, more specifically, those barriers pertaining to language and literacy proficiency as it pertains to literacy acquisition in young learners. With regard to this study, the term barriers to learning is used specifically to dissuade the reader that the difficulties in acquiring literacy in a language other than the one spoken at home are not deficits within the learner but within the system. The study adopts the notion of ‘barriers to learning and participation’ as its focus. The use of the term barrier to learning implies a social model of disability (Mittler, 2000) which by implication emerges through an interaction between the learner and the context within which he/she learns.

It is within the paradigm of the social and human rights models that barriers to learning and participation are explored and described. Specifically relevant, is the young ELL learner acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. An objective of the study is to identify the barrier to learning for the ELL, namely the LLP, which may not be compatible with the current systemic practice and application of inclusion in British Columbia’s classrooms. Francis (2012:260) notes that inadequate instruction for ELL’s is a primary cause that contributes to the disproportionate number of L2 learners who are non-proficient readers. In consideration of the complexity of the endogenous and exogenous factors in acquiring literacy, a review of these factors, as they pertain to the ELL acquiring literacy in English is necessary. It is the researcher’s view that the fine balance required for successful literacy acquisition for the ELL is skewed. It is therefore the focus of this study to identify the breakdown of these interfacing components, in other words, a barrier to
learning and participation and further, the evolutionary journey of inclusion toward equity and excellence for all.

Of note, it must be stated that British Columbia’s teachers do strive to provide real equity of opportunity for all, but historical factors and systemic barriers (BC Teacher’s Federation, 2012:14), such as teacher preparation, funding caps, current legislative polices and systemic discrimination as evidenced in Bill 27 and 28 (British Columbia’s Teacher’s Federation 2012:14) mean that equity and excellence remain a distant goal as barriers to learning persist. (Note for the purposes of this study, the term barrier to learning is used in the literal sense and not in the traditional sense. The term references barriers to participation and interaction and specifically relates to ELL’s and their LLP’s.)

1.10.6 At risk learners

This is a term applied to learners who have not been adequately served by the social service or the educational system and, who are at risk of educational failure due to, for example, lack of services, negative life events, or physical or mental challenges (Hickman, 2012:12). In other words, barriers to learning are endogenous, (e.g., language proficiency) or exogenous, (e.g., systemic failure to address the needs of the vulnerable learner). For the purposes of this study, the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, is deemed an at risk learner due to the systemic barriers within the inclusive school and classroom. There is a marked difference between inclusive policy as an ideology and the application of the ideology within the inclusive classroom (Winzer & Mazurek, 2011:7). Lupart (1988) frames inclusion in terms of those learners who are most at risk for school and later failure due to socio economic and other factors. She posits that the “...population of “at risk” learners is increasing beyond the boundaries of special education (i.e., the population is not restricted to learners with physical, behavioural and/or cognitive disabilities or those with advanced cognitive abilities) to include learners from economically, culturally or language disadvantaged backgrounds, as well as those with chronic low achievement (Lupart, 1998: 251-264). In support of the aforementioned notion, The Alberta Teacher’s Association (ATA) (2008:9) remain deeply concerned at the “lack of support for inclusive education students with special needs” and the “broadening of the boundaries of at risk learners”. The consensus amongst Canadian teachers’ associations is that the government and provincial governments have failed in terms of funding, support, teacher preparedness and staffing and thereby, place inclusion at risk. Class sizes and the ‘inadequacy’ of support for learners with special needs (ATA, 2008:14) remain contentious. “How one learns, is as important as what one learns” (Harris, Golinkoff & Hirsh-Pasek, 2011:59) which speaks to the essence of this study, by looking to optimize parity for ELL’s during literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home. The removal then, or at the very least, the limiting of
the systemic factors which presently contribute to the exclusion and marginalisation of the ELL is imperative. Rendering and or reducing the viability of an at risk ELL population acquiring first time literacy is critical.

1.10.7 Key terms used to define the population

a. Young Learners: The term young learner is interpreted differently around the world. For the purposes of this study, young learner defines a child who is in his/her first six years of formal education, from the age of 6 to 12. The lower limit of six roughly corresponds to the start of formal schooling in many countries, while the upper age of twelve approximates to a time when many children have begun to experience significant cognitive and emotional changes. This definition is also broadly in line with Cambridge ESOL’s own definition of 7 to 12 years for its Starters, Movers and Flyers exams for young learners (University of Cambridge, 2004:3). In the language teaching context (and this study) children of pre-primary and primary school age are referenced as young learners (Richards & Schmidt, 2012:643).

b. Learner profile: A description of a learner, including his or her abilities, needs and knowledge in order to determine what the learner’s needs are and to help plan the most appropriate course or learning experience for him or her (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:327). In this instance the young ELL, acquiring literacy in a language other than the language spoken at home.

c. Language minority learners: A group of learners in a country or community who have a language other than the major or dominant language of the country or community (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:319). In the context of this study, language minority learners are learners in British Columbia’s classrooms, acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. The terms, language minority and visible minority, are used synonymously and encapsulate the definition aforementioned.

d. Limited English Proficiency (LEP): Limited English proficiency is the term used to describe a minority learner in an English speaking country, whose English language proficiency is not at the level of native speakers of English. Special instruction is therefore needed to prepare the learner for entry into a regular school programme. The term is considered to be offensive by some and the term ELL is preferred (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:340). The term LEP in this study is used where it is historically necessary, used in quotations or citations or necessary for clarity. At no time, will it be used in a derogative or derisive manner. In addition for purposes of clarity the terms ELL and LEP for this study are used interchangeably and elaborated upon below.

e. English language learner (ELL): The English as a Second Language Policy and Guidelines document for BC (2009:4), defines English language learners as “those whose primary language or languages,
of the home are other than English. English language learners may be immigrants or may be born in Canada”. The broad term ELL used in this study, includes those learners who enter the education system not speaking any, or those with limited English.

The three terms LEP, ELL and English second language learner (ESL), tend to be used interchangeably; however, each term has a slightly different emphasis. For example, LEP is more representative, of a deficit paradigm and for this reason is critiqued and avoided by certain writers. Hakuta and August (2001:15) proposed the use of the term ELL as introduced by Riviera (1994) as opposed to the term LEP, as the former tends to be a positive term, whereas the term LEP “assigns a negative label”. British Columbia’s MOE, in their ESL Policy Framework (1999:9), defines ESL as language(s) of the home other than English. As the research for this study is taking place within British Columbia Canada, the term of choice is ELL as is referenced by the MOE in their English Language Learning Policy and Guidelines (2013:4), the Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks (CCLB) and the British Columbian Teacher’s Federation (BCTF 2012^11). The term English Language Learner (ELL) indicates a learner who is in the process of acquiring English and in addition, English is not the language spoken at home. The umbrella term ELL is inclusive of ESL and LEP learners in that it is assumed that ELL’s have, with varying degrees, a deficit in English proficiency and that this should be understood throughout the thesis wherever the term is used.

1.10.8 Key terms used to define the literacy component

a. Literacy: Superficially, literacy appears to be a term that is easily understood. However, conceptually, it is both complex and dynamic “continuing to be defined in a multiplicity of ways” (UNESCO, 2006:147). “The most common understanding of literacy is that it is a set of tangible skills - particularly the cognitive skills of reading and writing” (UNESCO, 2006:149). The Centre for Literacy, Quebec Canada (2008) adds that “…[L]iteracy... is an essential foundation for learning through life, and must be valued as a human right”.

b. Literacy Skills: Early literacy skills broadly include alphabetic knowledge, early reading, imaginary word reading, and spelling, in that they are predictive in learner’s reading success (Oullette & Senechal, 2008:899-913). While a more broad definition is as follows: “The ability to read and write at a standard appropriate both to the individual’s needs and to society’s expectations” (Wallace, 2009: 166) as is the expectation of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoke at home in an inclusive classroom in British Columbia, Canada.

c. Literacy profile: The word profile is used to describe an outline, for example that of a human face or a biographical or a character sketch (Oxford Dictionary, 2005:589). In this context, it is focused on and used to describe the language and literacy profile (LLP) of the learner. At no time in this study,
does the language and literacy profile allude to or associate with racial profiling. British Columbia’s Civil Liberties Association, notes that “racial profiling is bad” (Holmes, 2010:3) and as such the intention of this study, is to isolate and explore a language and literacy profile irrespective of race.

d. **Emergent literacy:** Emergent literacy skills are complex, dynamic and constantly under review, as scientific progress and the current discourse specifically pertaining to the neurosciences, genetic and environmental influences evolve. New data constantly alters and adds to the basic emergent literacy skills commonly referenced. Emergent literacy or emergent literacy skills are terms referenced by researchers and educators to describe the necessary pre literacy skills acquired during early childhood. The skills are critical for “future readers” to optimise formal reading instruction and ultimately the reading process (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:14). Although, the basic skills: book knowledge, understanding print as a “code translation process” (Moats, 2000) through which meaning is gained, an interest in reading and writing, participation in sound and word games, and alphabetic knowledge, appear to be typical, if ignored or are not evident - a learner about to embark on literacy acquisition may be at risk. In tandem with the basic skills aforementioned is the broad assumption, that compatible language ability is present more specifically, an age appropriate development of vocabulary and language structure. Emergent literacy, is of interest to this study as it pertains to the language and literacy models learners are exposed to at home, school and community as the ELL’s acquire first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

e. **Functional literacy:** Functional literacy refers to the ability to use reading and writing skills sufficiently well for the purposes and activities which normally require literacy in an adult life. (Richards & Schmidt, 2013:345).

**1.10.9 Key terms used to define semantic concepts**

a. **Comprehension:** Comprehension is defined as “the act of constructing meaning with oral or written text” (Nel & Carlisle, 2011:200). Current theories on comprehension hypothesise that it is an active process, drawing on the information contained in the message as well as background knowledge, contextual information and is gleaned from the speaker or writer’s purpose or intent (Richard & Schmidt, 2013: 109).

**1.10.10 Key terms used to describe the acquisition of societal language by language-minority children**

a. **First language (FL):** The language which a person acquires in early childhood in that it is spoken in the home, or it is the language spoken in the country where the learner is living (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:386). More specifically the mother tongue or the language that is acquired first is the first
language. Some learners of immigrant parents are deemed native English speakers, yet they come from homes where additional languages are spoken and often these learners underachieve at school (Garcia, 2008:57). In the Canadian context, mother tongue refers to the first language learned at home in childhood. For a child who has not yet learned to speak, the mother tongue is the language spoken most often to this child at home (Statistics Canada, 2012:1). The aforementioned, serves to inform this study.

b. Second language (SL): Second language is a language learned after one has learned one’s mother tongue or first language. For example, immigrants in Canada learning English in order to survive in a predominantly English speaking country are SL speakers (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:514).

c. First language acquisition (FLA): A general term which describes the process of learning a learner’s mother tongue or the language acquired first (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:221). Three percent (3%) of the Canadian population, reported Chinese languages, including Mandarin and Cantonese as their first language (Statistics Canada, 2009). Early language competence informs literacy skills amongst others and lack thereof is associated with reading ability (Kaiser et al., 2011:153); it forms the essence of this study.

d. Second language acquisition (SLA): SLA is the term used to broadly describe any language learned after acquiring one’s native language (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:515). This study focuses on young learners, who acquire a single minority language (first language in childhood) at home and acquire a second language when attending formal educational programs, namely school.

e. Minority language (ML): The use of the term minority language implies that there are fewer opportunities to develop and use these languages within the community and the formal educational environment. In addition, there may be less social value associated with proficiency in the minority language within the majority community (Schatz & Wilkinson, 2010: 48). Both FLA and SLA are highly variable in terms of endogenous and exogenous factors, which influence language development, proficiency, literacy and present a unique challenge to educators and schools.

f. Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS): Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) refer to the language proficiency required for non-academic tasks, such as interpersonal and social communication (Cummins, 1979:222-251; Richards & Schmidt, 2010:50). Interpersonal and social communication is relatively undemanding cognitively and relies on context to clarify meaning. Cummins proposes different assessments for BICS and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), noting that ability on a BICS assessment does not necessarily indicate ability on a CALP assessment (ibid).

g. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP): The cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) hypothesis proposed by Cummins (1980) describes the specific language proficiency needed
in order to perform school learning tasks (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:90). Cummins posits that many classroom tasks are cognitively demanding and often need to be resolved by the learner independent of context. The ability to carry out such a task is known as CALP.

h. Target language (TL): Target language in the context of language teaching is the language which a person is learning, in contrast to the first language (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:583).

i. Specific Language Impairment (SLI): Specific language disorder is generally used to denote a developmental language disorder. The impairment affects receptive and expressive language. It is not related to or caused by other disorders such as hearing loss or brain injury. The impairment manifests in the use of short sentences, delay in use of function words and content words and difficulty with the use of complex sentences (Richards & Schmidt, 201:541). The research on bilingual SLI is pertinent to this study when considering “to what extent do successively degraded levels of linguistic competence affect overall cognitive development – in particular, with regard to the higher-order abilities associated with schooling?” (Francis, 2012:133). Cabell, Justice, Zucker and McGinty (2009:53-66) note that learners with specific language impairment perform approximately “one standard deviation lower on a variety of measures of print knowledge” when compared to typical age matched learners. The early differences in print knowledge generally have long term implications for literacy development as evidenced by some estimates as a standard deviation differential in early literacy skill and perpetuates over time (Justice & Piasta, 2011:201-202). In consideration of the ELL’s LLP and the limitations thereof when acquiring first time literacy in a language other than the language spoken at home, the LLP could be considered in terms of a developmental delay, as it does manifest in the use of short sentences, delay in use of function words and content words and the difficulty to use complex sentences.

1.10.11 Key terms relating to language development

a. Phonology: “Phonology refers to the way sounds of the language operate” (Snow & Burns, 2010:46). For example in English, the consonant groups (consonant clusters) /spr/ and /str/ can occur at the beginning of a word, as in spring, strong, but they cannot occur at the end of a word.

b. Morphology: Morphology, the study of morphemes and their different forms allomorphs, refers to the way in which words are formed and are related to each other (Snow & Burns, 1998:46), for example the English word unfriendly is formed from friend, the adjective-forming suffix -ly, and the negative prefix un - (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:376).

d. Pragmatics: “Refers to ways members of the speech community achieve their goals using language” (Snow & Burns, 1998:46; Richards & Jacks, 2010:449), note that pragmatics include the study of:

1. How the interpretation and use of utterances depends on knowledge of the real world.
2. How speakers use and understand speech acts - an utterance as a functional unit in communication.
3. How the structure of sentences is influenced by the relationship between the speaker and the listener.

e. Lexicon: Lexicon or vocabulary refers to the stored information about the meanings and pronunciations of words (Snow & Burns, 2010:46). Richards & Jacks (2010:338) further define lexicon from the psycholinguistic perspective as a mental system which contains “the total set of words a speaker knows forms his or her mental lexicon” (Richards & Jack, 2010:339).

1.10.12 Key terms relating to the reading process

a. Reading: Reading is assessed throughout the school years and is usually recorded in terms of reading age. It has become more commonplace to express reading ability in terms of readability levels (Wallace, 2009:245).

b. Rapid automatic naming (RAN): Rapid automatic naming is defined as the ability to look at objects, such as pictures, colours, single digit numbers, letters, or sight vocabulary, to name the object, to disengage from the object to begin the sequence again (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:159).

1.10.13 Key terms relating to language and literacy acquisition

a. Cultural and Linguistic Diversity (CALD): Cultural and linguistic diversity is a term used to reference learners with different cultural and or linguistic backgrounds. Page, Whitting and Mclean (2007:62) note that one of the key principles informing good practice with culturally and linguistically diverse groups is to acknowledge diversity within and across the cultural groups and to provide support accordingly. The notions, concepts and language used when describing and exploring cultural and linguistic diversity can often work against the objective for example inclusive education and more recently the backlash against multiculturalism (Vertovec & Wessendorf, 2010:1). This study does not focus on the deficits of the learner but focuses on seeking out and improving strengths, by identifying differences and therefore working against exclusion in the inclusive classroom. Robertson (2005:714) reiterates this by describing inclusive education as a “welcoming environment for all students, not by ignoring gender, race, disability or sexual identities, but by recognizing and validating difference”. The term CALD highlights both the cultural and linguistic characteristics of
minority groups and learners and therefore barriers and or disadvantages experienced can be traced to the aforementioned criteria. CALD does not distinguish groups based on what they are not. “It draws attention to the need for providing both linguistically and culturally appropriate support that is sufficiently adaptable to include any group, and in addition, is sensitive to the fluid process of acculturation” (Sawriker & Katz, 2008a:5), in other words a ‘more focused care’. The cultural groups most commonly disadvantaged and marginalised from the mainstream inclusive classroom are those who experience LEP, and by definition whose cultural norms, values and beliefs are collectivist in orientation (Sawrikar & Katz, 2008b:193-196).

**b. Visible minority:**

The term visible minority is defined by Statistics Canada (2012c:1) as, “to whether a person belongs to a visible minority group as defined by the Employment Equity Act (2013:19) and, if so, the visible minority group to which the person belongs”. The Employment Equity Act defines visible minorities as ”persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour”. The visible minority population consists mainly of the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab, West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese and Korean.

### 1.10.14 Key terms relating to school readiness

**a. Early Developmental Instrument (EDI):** The Early Developmental Instrument is a Canadian checklist tool measuring learner’s school readiness in five phases (Janus, Hughes & Duku, 2010:3), namely physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language and communication, cognitive development and general knowledge (Janus & Offord, 2007:2). Of particular relevance to this study, is the language and communication phase measurement.

The previous sections have briefly outlined the research problem, the context of the research problem, the purpose, motivation, objectives and concept clarification. The following section concludes with a synopsis of chapters and significant contributions and the research outcomes of this study.

### 1.11 Organisation of the thesis

The Thesis has been organised into five chapters.

Chapter 1 states the aims and rationale for the study and provides the background information and concept clarification with which to contextualise the research. It also describes and substantiates the
research methodology and choices made in order to interpret the research. The purpose of the chapter is to orientate the reader and give the study perspective.

Chapter 2 comprises of the theoretical frameworks and the literature review. The theoretical framework comprises of the theories considered for optimum language and literacy acquisition, as they relate to normative developmental language and literacy. The literature review follows, aligned to the theoretical framework and comprises of a review of the related literature, a conceptual framework and covers topics such as globalisation, diversity and CALD. A review of the related literature, pertaining to inclusive education, first and SLA inclusive of proficiency, barriers to learning and special needs viewed from both the Canadian and international perspective, contributing context to the aforementioned. In addition, a focus on the components of language and elements of literacy acquisition and their interconnection, the process of language and literacy acquisition and how it informs the language and literacy profile (LLP) and learning outcomes is conceptualised and presented. The purpose of the theoretical framework overview and the literature review is to provide a theoretical framework for the comparative study on language and literature to follow.

Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and design. It deals with the demographics of the target group, unit analysis, subject participants and the population selection. The survey instruments and data collection methods are described as well as the methods of data analysis and the procedure phases of the research.

Chapter 4 presents results of data analysis, the findings and a discussion of the findings of the study. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the research, the conclusions, the implications and limitations of this study, envisioned outcomes and recommendations. It also provides indicators that may lead to further research which may reduce and eliminate exclusion in the inclusive classroom.

1.12 Conclusion

Chapter 1 has provided background information consisting of an outline of the study, states the aims, objectives and motivation of the study with which to interpret and place the research. It delineated the research topic, modes of enquiry and provided a rational for the research. The research design comprises of a causal - comparative approach to the mixed model research design and a complimentary mixed method approach to the mixed model research design. The study designed to examine the statistical difference between the LLP which comprises of eleven components namely, letter knowledge, rhyme knowledge, basic concepts, receptive vocabulary, parallel sentence production, elision, word relationships, phonic knowledge, sound categorization, sight word recognition and listening comprehension of an ELL learner, whose home language is
other than English, compared to an English speaking monolingual, while acquiring first time literacy in K1, K2 and Grade 1. These learners manifest a language and literacy profile difference when compared to their first language peers; as a result, ELL’s are language and literacy challenged in the early years more so than their English only peers. In other words, the former encounter a barrier to seamless and successful literacy acquisition in a language other than the language spoken at home. Key terms and concepts were defined and their use in this research clarified. The focus of this study is on K1, K2 and Grade 1 learners who acquire first time literacy in an inclusive classroom, in a language other than the language spoken in their homes. The objective of the study was to isolate and specify an at risk educational minority through the identification of the LLP. The LLP will become evident or not, through exploration of the eleven LLP components.

The limited research on simultaneous language and first time literacy acquisition and its requisite support structures for the ELL’s in a language other than that spoken at home formed the partial motivation for this research. The need to identify exclusion as a barrier to access and participation and therefore learning within an inclusive classroom formed the remaining motivation.
CHAPTER 2

DENOTATIVE LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DISSONANCE AS GLOBALISM AND INCLUSION INTERSECT WITH FIRST TIME LITERACY ACQUISITION IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

The dogmas of the quiet past, are inadequate to the stormy present. The occasion is piled high with difficulty, and we must rise with the new occasion. As our case is new, so we must think anew, and act anew. We must disenthrall ourselves, and then we shall save our country [learners] (Abraham Lincoln, 1862).

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 contextualised and explored the historic background and the geographic and demographic framework of the learner within the “diverse ethnolinguistic landscape” (Costley & Leung, 2009:152) of British Columbia in addition to underpinning, and delineating the structure and focus of the research to follow.

In Chapter 1, it was noted that the primary objective of this study is to isolate and specify the extent of an ‘at risk and educationally vulnerable minority’ through the identification of their LLP. Thus, the disconnect of ELL’s when acquiring first time literacy in English and subject to inclusive classroom practices will be highlighted. It was also noted that in support of and in order to sustain the aim (See 1.2), the primary and secondary objectives are addressed (See 1.5).

Chapter 2 expands the contextual framework noted in Chapter 1 by elaborating on and focusing the discussion toward the overarching and interconnected theoretical frameworks within which the chapter is contextualised namely ‘Critical Theory’ (CT), as it pertains to the rights, dignity and equality of all learners, Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological systems theory and the Dynamic theory (DT) as they pertain to the language and literacy development of learners followed by a brief overview of ELL and literacy acquisition viewed from a language and socialisation perspective. The literature review follows and furthers the discourse on globalisation, diversity and its repercussions within these theoretical paradigms, thereby further narrowing the scope of the discussion toward the primary objective (See 1.5).

In sum, a critical exploration of the development of and parity between the LLP of ELL’s and English speaking monolingual learners in British Columbia and their reality follows.
2.2 Theoretical framework

A theory is an abstract body of principles pertaining to the facts that are significant within the phenomenon being investigated, the existing relationships between them and the resultant change (Mitchell & Myles, 2013:2). Theories are based upon reasoned argument and supported by evidence that is intended to explain the phenomenon (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:597). A theory is descriptive, captures the complexity of the phenomenon, brings about insight via interpretation and proffers an explanation or course of action to be followed via collaborative enquiry. (Mitchell & Myles, 2013:3).

The process of theory building is reflexive by nature in that the dynamic nature of the phenomenon being investigated necessitates the need to constantly gather new information and examine new phenomena, resulting in the re-evaluating of the ‘infinite world of “facts’ and data” (ibid) as is evidenced in this study. Theory, or indeed an ideology, can and does provide the intellectual articulation of the principles embodied within the theory, which, when combined with contextual knowledge, provide insight into specific situations and often the possible direction for positive change. Chapter 2 elaborates upon the selected theoretical principles and proceeds with an exploration of the contextual knowledge creating insight into the LLP of the ELL’s who acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home.

2.2.1 Critical Theory

The term Critical Theory (CT), historically a Marxist social theory, propounded by Horkheimer (1937) as a descriptive and normative approach to social enquiry (Hosking, 2008:3) and now referenced as an educational philosophy and/or Critical Pedagogy emphasises critical reflection of phenomena concerning issues of social justice (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:147). The principle tenet of CT is to “enquire, identify, confront and resolve problems of injustice through the processes of awareness, reflection and argumentation” (ibid). CT is politically oriented and aligned with “emancipation and transformation of individuals in society” (Jessop, 2012:3) through intervention by fellow human beings.

Language and language use is an important aspect of CT, in that it is instrumental in domination and the purporting of participants’ ideologies and values (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:147). Although not within the scope of this research, language planning, described as a government authorised, long term, sustained, and a conscious effort to alter language form and function in society for the purpose of solving language problems (Kamwangamalu, 2011:890) is worth noting, when considering the ELL’s in British Columbia. More specifically, Tollefson (2006:42-59) describes critical language policy, as an approach to language planning that investigates the processes by which systems of inequality are created and sustained through language. Paulston (2003:476) furthers
Tollefson’s notion, noting that language planning under the auspices of CT, is about choice. He furthers the discussion in noting that individuals do not have freedom of choice, be it in education or in the social sphere as is the case with the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a SL.

Critical theorists perceive language and literacy in terms of cultural practices and in addition are cognitive of the fact that their social networks and rituals, opinions and values inform their “sociocultural orientation” (Stone, 2004:9). (See 1.8.). In other words, critical theorists view language and literacy as facilitating “differential opportunities” within given situations or societies and therefore promote the cultural and language practices of minority groups within a society (ibid).

With regard to the ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a SL – in other words, simultaneous literacy and language acquisition - Delpit (1995:152-166) raises the issue of educational institutions and to what degree they accommodate or promote minority groups interests and needs in so far as they relate to education, as opposed to merely accommodating minorities within pre-existing language and cultural practices as is the case with the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a SL.

“Empowerment and emancipation from the constraints of social institutions and structures” are fundamental to most critical approaches (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:147) as is dogged pursuit and investigation beyond the unanimous acceptance of the status quo. CT seeks “the potentiality for or desirability of, things being other than they are” (How, 2003:149), in this instance, the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home. A critical examination, identifying, confronting and resolving possible issues of injustice and inequality relating to the LLP’s of the ELL’s through the processes of “awareness, reflection and argumentation” looks to the “transformation of everyday life and individual experience” (Branner, 2011:6) of the ELL. In this chapter, the contextual framework noted in the previous section is expanded and interlinked, by further narrowing the discussion with a brief overview of the relevant theoretical frameworks, followed by the attendant literature review. In so doing, discourse on the comparative developmental process of language and literacy acquisition with regard to learners and teachers in British Columbia’s classrooms and the widening gap between theory, application and reality is explored.

2.2.2 Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological System’s theory also known as the Bioecological System

Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system’s theory considers the child/learner 1 as “developing within a complex ‘system’ of relationships affected by multiple levels of the surrounding environment” (Berk, 2012:27). He identifies five environmental systems viewed as a “set of nested structures”

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1 Referenced as the learner from here on.
(Bronfenbrenner, 1979:3), within which the learner develops and interacts. The learner is placed at the innermost core of the nested structures, the microsystem (See Figure.2.1).

1. The microsystem has the earliest and most immediate effect on the learner and consists of the interaction between family, peers, childcare (labelled as work in Figure 2.1) and school (Berns, 2012:18). Adults influence the development of learners while learners’ biological disposition and physical traits influence adults - a “bidirectional relationship (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The longitudinal strengthening of the bidirectional relationship has lifelong ramifications for the future development of the learner (Bronfenbrenner, 1995:599-618) inclusive of early language and literacy development.

2. The mesosystem contains within it the microsystem (Berns, 2012:20). Its function is the interconnection between the various components of the microsystem such as home, family, siblings, school, child care, work and fostering the immediate development of the learner while laying the blue print for future development.

3. The exosystem consists of the social settings, namely the extended family, the neighbourhood, the parent’s work environment and the mass media which can and do affect the learner’s experiences and development (Berns, 2012:22). Like the mesosystem, the exosystem contains the micro and mesosystems, which are nested within the structure and therefore influence the development of the learner. The exosystem impacts the individuals who come into contact with the learner and thereby circuitously influence the development of the learner. For example, ELL’s parents may be compromised when communicating in English and are therefore unable to participate fully in parent teacher interviews and neither are they able to respond to written communiqués from the teacher through the year. This exclusion ultimately detracts from the development of the learner, inhibits full participation of the learner in school and classroom activities and speaks to the divergence or disconnect between monolinguals and ELL’s experience in the schooling system which is the essence of this study.

4. The macrosystem, the outermost structure, is a societal blueprint, which overarches and informs the micro, meso and exo structures. The macrosystem, consists of the history, culture and resources of the society, namely the governance, policies, laws, values, social norms and the economic structure. The aforementioned, collectively or individually, affects the functioning of the inner structures in turn, and, thereby directly affect the development of the learner. For example, the British Columbia policy of inclusive education and the murky genesis of the current ELL policy in British Columbia classrooms, the social and cultural norms, the school, the peers, the extended family, the parents, the siblings and ultimately the learner. In this instance the ELL acquiring first
time literacy as a high risk, vulnerable learner often at odds with the history, cultural and social norms of the society and therefore the school and classroom.

5. The chronosystem relates to the dynamic and fluid nature of the environment and is mindful of the timing of environmental changes and their impact on the learner. Typical changes to the environment, such as the birth of a sibling or entering school, modify the environment in ways that affect the development of the learner in a positive or negative manner (Berns, 2012:25). For example, the ELL, entering formal schooling for the first time (K1, K2 or Grade 1), transitioning from a familial environment where the dominant language is the mother tongue to the formal learning environment, the classroom, where the dominant language is English. The learner transfers from an environment of familiarity and understanding to an unfamiliar cultural, social and linguistic environment. The learner can neither communicate with the teacher or peers, nor comprehend the delivery of the curriculum and is unable to venture into the fragile beginnings of a social communiqué to further critical social development. In other words, a disconnect from day one. Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic model is presented below.

**Figure 2.1 Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic model**

![Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic model](Source: Snelgar (2013))
In sum, Bronfenbrenner’s notion of the contextual influences on learners’ development views the learner as developing within a complex system of relationships informed by multiple structures within the environment (Berk, 2012:27). This is a complex, dynamic and fluid perspective, which impacts the development of the learner both in the short and long term.

Within this overarching theoretical framework and within the inclusive classroom, the comparative language and literacy proficiency of the monolingual and ELL’s, as they pertain first time literacy acquisition in K1, K2 and Grade 1 is explored. The LLP is reviewed from the intricately linked Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological developmental framework, while referencing Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (See 2.2.2. and 2.2.4) as the developmental disconnect of the ELL is explored. In addition, language itself, language proficiency, the components of language, vocabulary and comprehension are explored to further the comparative study in an endeavor to highlight the divergent and disconnected trajectory of the ELL’s as they pursue language and literacy acquisition simultaneously. (See schematic overview of Chapter 2 in Appendix B-25 and B-26).

2.2.3 Dynamic Systems Theory

Language acquisition, similar to child development, is a dynamic, hierarchical, integrated multidirectional and reciprocal process unique to each individual, encompassing biological makeup, social and cultural influences, the immediate environment and the broader environment, where consistency and variability are now recognised by researchers (Berk, 2012:30). The consistencies or milestones in both learner development and language acquisition are well researched and documented not so the variations. The Dynamic Systems theoretical viewpoint considers the learner’s mind, body, physical and social world as a dynamic and integrated system not dissimilar in concept to Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems theory. A change in any aspect of the system impacts the learner and the system and is causal in change within the learner and the system. This is evidenced in the classroom, the school and indeed broader society, when the ELL is expected to acquire language and literacy simultaneously in K1, K2, and Grade 1 with limited support. Development of the learner is conceived of as a multidirectional web, where each strand represents a potential area of skill within the major domains of development. The multidirectional nature of the strands represent possible variations in development paths and outcomes as the learner develops and participates in diverse contexts (Berk, 2012:31). Language and literacy acquisition are no exception; they are conceptualised as interconnected, dependent variables or strands, which interact over time therefore exhibiting the “core characteristics” of a dynamic system (De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007:7-21). The recognition of the interaction of the myriad of environmental and individual variables, unique to each individual at various stages of first and second language
acquisition and first time literacy acquisition which support the dynamic systems theoretical view as it pertains to ELL’s as they acquire simultaneous language and literacy in a language not spoken at home.

### 2.2.4 Sociocultural theory

Vygotsky’s Sociocultural theory neatly ties into Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological theory and the Dynamic System’s theory by specifically focusing on the social and cultural aspects of learner’s development which influence both language and literacy acquisition. Vygotsky posits that learners “acquire ways of thinking and behaving that form a communities’ culture” (Berk, 2012:27) through bidirectional discussion between learners and more knowledgeable members of society (Berk, 2012:27). The communication between learner and adult, as the learner is inducted into and directed through the process of mastering new skills, contributes to the inner thoughts of the learner and subsequently the language skills and cultural knowledge base of the young learner, who as a future adult will guide the next generation. The early sociocultural exposure of the young ELL to the mother tongue or language spoken in the home incubates a cultural background knowledge and behavioural base, which is culture specific. In so doing, the ELL struggles to function optimally when the learner enters formal schooling where a dramatic, cultural and linguistic redirect occurs, strengthening the disconnect for the ELL, acquiring simultaneous language and literacy in a language not spoken at home. The disconnect negates the young ELL’s ability to fully participate, function and interact within the inclusive classroom environment. The disconnect exposes the divergence from Bronfenbrenner’s Ecosystemic model, the Dynamic Systems theoretical framework and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theoretical framework. Additional support, in the form of adult directed language and cultural input to maximise functionality, interaction and participation within the inclusive classroom is necessary (Brisk, 2010:154) to minimise the disconnect and as this study argues, an adjusted if not entirely new and specific curriculum is proposed, to address the needs of the ELL. This restructuring, will empower teachers, who in turn will be equipped to address the very specific socio cultural, linguistic and literacy needs of the ELL’s in K1, K2 and Grade 1. The acquisition of cultural and background knowledge required for functionality, interaction and participation within the classroom for young learners is a bidirectional symbiotic process, intricately tied to the environment. Language and literacy proficiency guide the process of functionality, interaction and participation of the learner. The section to follow briefly examines the development of language and literacy acquisition from a socio cultural perspective.
2.3. Theoretical frameworks pertaining to first and second language and literacy acquisition from a biological, environmental and sociocultural perspective

Language acquisition and ultimately literacy acquisition are dynamic, expansive and complex phenomena, which become exponentially so when a SL\(^2\) is acquired. How language is acquired inclusive of both first and SL is not simplistic, nor does it fall neatly into one or two theoretical frameworks. Current theories have “multiple roots” embedded in the classical theoretical perspectives encompass language learning, cognition and the cognitive perspectives (Hoff, 2013:27). The aim of the discussion to follow is not an exhaustive discussion on current or historical SLL acquisition theoretical frameworks but rather an exposition of the frameworks that are centrally aligned with and relate to the ELL acquiring first time literacy and or simultaneous language and literacy acquisition in a language other than the language spoken at home. Therefore, the classical theoretical perspectives of language learning proposed by Chomsky, and Vygotsky and the modern theories of Krashen and the sociocultural perspective and how they link to the CT theoretical framework, Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological theory, the Dynamic Systems theory and Vygotsky’s Sociocultural theory will be limited to such and briefly overviewed. Instrumental in the choice of the perspectives to be discussed is Noam Chomsky (1959), who argues that learners have an innate guide monitoring language acquisition and that language acquisition is not merely an imitation process as suggested by Skinner (1956). Chomsky (2000:4) posits further:

> Evidently, each language is the result of the interplay of two factors: the initial state and the course of experience. We can think of the initial state as a ‘language acquisition device’ that takes experience as ‘input’ and gives the language as an ‘output’ – an ‘output’ that is internally represented in the mind/brain.

The interplay of Chomsky’s ‘two factors’, namely, biological (Language Acquisition Device (LAD)) or innate, and the environment (with emphasis on the sociocultural perspective), create the framework for the general overview to follow.

The definition of language acquisition\(^3\), simply put, is the process with which typical learners naturally acquire the means to communicate, unless exposed to adverse environmental conditions. More specifically, it is a process whereby learners are able to perceive ‘input’ and produce words

\(^2\) For the purposes of this research, a SL is broadly defined “to include the learning of any language, to any level, provided only that the learning of the ‘second’ language takes place sometime later [in this instance during the first year of formal schooling] than the acquisition of the first language” (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013:1). While, FL is defined as the language usually acquired in early childhood as it is the language spoken within the family (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:386). Language itself, is rather more elusive to definition but broadly defined as a system of human communication consisting of a collection of structured, arbitrary sounds (or their written representation) into larger units, namely morphemes, words, sentences and utterances which exist within a community and are utilised for communication (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:386; Harley, 2008:5).

\(^3\) Language learning and language acquisition will be used synonymously.
‘output’, which facilitate linguistic proficiency (communication) and ultimately literacy acquisition. As argued previously, the process of language acquisition is influenced both biologically and socially inclusive of both FL and SL acquisition. It is SL acquisition that is of relevance to the discussion, however, FL will be referenced occasionally for comparative purposes.

The first theoretical perspective considered is the Universal Grammar (UG) approach, a property theory purported by Noam Chomsky and considered to be “the strongest linguistic influence, on second language acquisition” (Mitchell et al., 2013:61). Although Chomsky’s UG theory, does not specifically cover SLA, his theories continue to prompt and influence further research.

2.3.1 Universal Grammar

The main tenet of linguistic theory is twofold, namely descriptive and explanatory. In other words, what are the mental representations of language within the human mind, the commonalities as well as distinctive features, namely how it differs from other communication systems (Mitchell et al., 2013:61). SL acquisition theories are no different; their aim is to describe the language acquired by the SLL and to proffer plausible explanations as to reasons why the language is produced (Mitchell et al., 2013:62). Chomsky (1959:26-58), post-Skinner’s behavioural theory, (1957), propounded the theory of “transformational grammar”, where the individual innately, acquires, analyses and transforms language. It is the notion of language as a ‘two factor’ concept, namely, naturally acquired and enhanced by social exposure. More specifically, language acquisition is a process that integrates the innate and external components under the assumption that there is a genetically programmed ‘apparatus’, namely the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (Chomsky, 1955:114) which orchestrates the ‘input’ and ‘output’ of the learner.

Chomsky’s Language theory is formulated on two premises. Firstly, infants are born with an established “linguistic corpus” or “universal grammar” (UG) - a grammatical blueprint or competence for language which is triggered by social interaction (Chomsky, 1955:113). As social interaction occurs the LAD is triggered, generating language acquisition. The LAD facilitates language acquisition through ‘scaffolding’ and ‘mediating’ the innate blueprint of language rules and regulations to further word and therefore sentence creation; in other words, it is generative. In sum, ‘universal grammar’ is described as an innate capacity for language acquisition and production, programmed by the LAD as language is transformed and generated over time giving rise to Chomsky’s “generative grammar” (Chomsky, 1955:117) “generative grammar” theory.

The aforementioned section briefly overviewed Chomsky’s innate factor inherent in language acquisition, therefore establishing the first of ‘two factors’ which form the framework for the SLA
theoretical framework relevant to the discussion. To follow, the second factor, namely the environment will be overviewed from the Vygotsky’s and Krashen’s perspectives on SLA.

2.3.2 Vygotsky’s theory of constructivism

Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (See 2.2.4) focuses on the social and cultural aspects of the learner’s development and how they influence language and literacy acquisition. A discussion follows, elucidating Vygotsky’s constructivism theory and how it relates to the LLP of ELL’s as they acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

Chomsky’s Universal Grammar and Transformational theory is reflected in Vygotsky’s theory of constructivism which views language learning in social and cultural terms (Mitchell et al., 2013:221), a view also held by Bandura (1977). The fundamental premise, that the most critical prerequisite for learning, language and cognition resides within the learner and is enriched by the social and cultural contexts the learner experiences over time (See 2.4), is central to Vygotsky’s theory of constructivism. Not dissimilar to Chomsky’s ‘two factor’ perspective (See 2.3.1) relating to the extrinsic and intrinsic needs of the learner, language learning from the Vygotsky perspective is viewed as socially mediated, dependent on ‘face to face’ interaction (Mitchell et al., 2013:222) and mediated by the innate cognitive abilities of the learner. He furthers the notion positing that all learners utilize a ‘zone of proximal development’ (ZPD) where cognition and environmental input are interrelated. The ZPD is best described as the domain of knowledge, ability or skill where the learner is not able to function independently but is able to achieve the desired outcome if the relevant ‘scaffolding’ (Vygotsky, 1962) is provided by the environmental language of adults or peers, which connects the learner to the environment impacting the learners’ cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978:86).

The role of language in cognitive development is critical and bifold. It is the means by which adults impart knowledge to learners and is instrumental in intellectual adaptation (Vygotsky, 1962). Language and literacy development, both short and long term, is dependent on the calibre, availability, chronology and accessibility of the necessary ‘scaffolding’ for acquisition and further language development.

Krashen, in tandem, places language centre stage and views language acquisition as a series of sub processes. One of five hypotheses posited by Krashen, the Input Hypothesis theory, is discussed below in relation to Chomsky, Vygotsky and the ELL acquiring a SL.
2.3.3 Krashen’s Natural order hypothesis and the Input hypothesis.

Krashen’s theory of SLA focuses on the process of acquisition, retention and production falling under the social learning process inclusive of the cognitive phenomenon and therefore, not dissimilar to Chomsky and Vygotsky’s theories on language acquisition. Acquired language in Krashen’s view relates to cognition and therefore occurs innately as with other typical developmental phenomena that begin at birth with verbal interaction a prerequisite (Krashen, 1987:25). Krashen (1987:27) further notes that the result of the ‘input’/’output’, namely, interpersonal verbal communication, establishes the foundation for further learning. A ‘learned’ language system theory, in other words a language formally learned, is the main defence of his Input Hypothesis theory. Krashen’s Input Hypothesis theory and Vygotsky’s ZPD theory uphold the language learning process as building on or used to ‘scaffold’ the prior foundational knowledge of the learner in order to acquire, retain and produce new language skills. In terms of Vygotsky’s theory, language acquisition will become the foundation or scaffold on which to further language development when exposed to a collaborative and mutual exchange with a more knowledgeable other (MKO). Whilst Krashen describes the process of acquiring a SL as receiving input slightly more advanced than the learner’s current knowledge, he termed his equivalent of Vygotsky’s ZPD, the ‘natural communicative input’ which ultimately furthers the knowledge of the SLL. The marked difference between the two theories is that Vygotsky promoted new skills learned under the ZPD, while Krashen isolated new vocabulary acquisition which he termed ‘basic language’ (Krashen, 1987:45). Vygotsky’s Theory of Constructivism and Krashen’s Natural Order Hypothesis both uphold Chomsky’s notion of language acquisition as a bi factorial process - a combination of environmental and cognitive processes which process the acquisition of new knowledge such as language (Vygotsky, 1962) linked to prior knowledge.

To conclude, Chomsky’s theory, the innate existence of language provides the foundation for the acquisition of new language and learning mediated by the mind/brain (Chomsky, 1959). Vygotsky’s theory, a collaborative interaction of learners with a more knowledgeable other (MKO) and their peers, extends the ZPD by furthering knowledge, expands and facilitates the learning as a social process. Krashen’s theory combines social learning and cognitive development. Thus, all focus on language, as a ‘two factor’ composite, comprising of existential innate components which mediate, and are dependent upon the environment. A symbiotic relationship exists between cognition (mind/brain) and socialisation. Language acquisition is viewed in social and cultural terms, as
opposed to merely a source of ‘input’ mediated by an individual “internal learning mechanism” (Mitchell, Myles and Marsden 2013:221).

2.4 Sociocultural perspective on second language acquisition

In this section, an overview of the sociocultural theoretical framework on SLA relevant to the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home is explored. Historically, SLL theorizing weighted research on modelling the development of language within the individual learner in response to “an environment defined [as] fairly narrow as a source of linguistic information” (Mitchell et al., 2013:223). Socioculturalism is viewed encapsulating the language acquisition process as being bi factorial with emphasis on the complexity and dynamic social and cognitive aspect of language and literacy acquisition which are central to this study. The ELL acquiring first time literacy will be discussed with regard to mediation, the ZPD, scaffolding and self-regulation.

2.4.1 Mediation

Mediation is the central theme of Vygotsky’s writings (Lantolf, 2000:80; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006:58-83) noting that the human mind is mediated and “human consciousness is fundamentally a mediated activity” (Lantolf & Appel, 1994:7). The sociocultural tenet furthers this theme, underscoring the centrality of language as a “‘tool for thought’ or a means for mediation” (Mitchell et al., 2013:222) of the mind, in a nutshell, mental activity. Through language, we are able to communicate, learn and problem solve. A learner, who is able to comprehend the verbal and written instructions of the classroom teacher and or peers, is then able to carry out the instructions given and learns from the process. From a sociocultural perspective, learning inclusive of language learning, is a social and cultural practice, achieved by the learner, through the use of numerous ‘mental tools’ which mediate learning. Language is one of the ‘psychological tools’ (Vygotsky) and is a symbolic tool of mental mediation (Lantolf, 2000). The centrality of language within the ‘mental tools’ used to mediate ‘input’ is clear, as learners develop linguistically, use and control language, and rely on interaction and shared socio cultural experiences (Mitchell et al., 2013:222). Within this sociocultural framework, an active mediated participation by the learner (as opposed to passive behaviourism) is necessary for language and literacy learning to take place.

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4The application of Vygotsky’s learning theories to SLA has resulted in a ‘strand’ of Neo Vygotskian thinking and research, namely the ‘Socio Cultural’ theory (SCT) (Mitchell et al., 2013:222).
2.4.2 Zone of Proximal Development

Following on from the concept of mediation as it pertains to learning and language learning, Vygotsky’s concept of the ZPD (See 2.3.2) where the learner is able to achieve the desired outcome or goal (Mitchell et al., 2013:223) via mediation or scaffolding, is a thoroughly researched and relevant understanding of the learning process. The ZPD is explained as follows:

The difference between the child’s developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978:85).

Vygotsky’s ZPD demarcates the zone between the learners’ independent learning ability and the zone at which point the learner will need the relevant assistance from a more knowledgeable other (MKO), who actively bridges or provides a scaffold to the zone in which the learner lacks the necessary skills, thus enabling a state of independence, self-regulation and the opportunity for further learning.

2.4.3 Scaffolding

Mediation and scaffolding are central to Vygotsky’s writings (Donato, 2005:40) and both, are pivotal to the concept of and the viability of the ZPD. Scaffolding, in some sociocultural theories, is denoted as “the support provided to learners to perform beyond their capacity” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:507). In early language learning, young learners may be unable to produce certain structures within a single utterance but are able to build them through interaction with another learner or classroom teacher (Richards & Schmidt, 201:507) emphasising the social and collaborative nature in language learning. Bruner (1983) considered language learning to be dependent upon the provision of social interactional frameworks for learners, while Donato (1994:41), notes that “scaffolded performance is a dialogically constituted interpsychological mechanism that promotes the novice’s [learner’s] internalisation of knowledge co-constructed in shared activity”. Scaffolding not only supports the learner within a specific ZPD; it facilitates the process of support for the learner’s transition into and the construction of the subsequent zone, while promoting self-regulation accomplished through language use as a ‘tool’ to facilitate dialogue and social interaction.

5 The term languaging (Swain, Kinneer & Steinman, 2011:291) is a preferred term when focusing on the construction of linguistic knowledge. Scaffolding is the term used in this study.
2.4.4 Self-regulation

Self-regulation, or self-regulated learning, is “learning guided by metacognition, strategic action, and motivation to learn” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 519). In terms of the neo Vygotskian approach, the learner carries out tasks initially, guided by the MKO such as parents and classroom teachers through what is known as ‘other - regulation’, typically guided by language (Mitchell et al., 2013:222). An example is a mother pointing and naming objects for her infant in order to support and thereby further the language acquisition process. The infant is induced to participate in a shared linguistic process (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006:17), which gradually forms part of the individual consciousness or mind as a new language skill. New learning “involves a collaborative inter mental activity [scaffolding] to autonomous intra mental activity” (Mitchell et al., 2013:222).

The neo Vygotskian sociocultural theories as described outline the social constructivist perspective which views SLA as a social practice dependent on language, a cultural tool, which in itself is dependent on social dialogue (Thorne & Lantolf, 2006:170-195). The hierarchical nature of language, learning and therefore literature acquisition is evidenced in the centrality of Chomsky’s bifactorial concept of ‘input’ and ‘output’ and Vygotsky’s mediation, scaffolding and self-regulation and further the constructivist notion of the language acquisition process.

To conclude, as noted in the introduction of the theoretical framework discussion (See 2.2), theories provide the intellectual articulation of the principles within the theory and when combined with contextual knowledge, provide insight to particular situations providing the possibility of change. The influential theoretical frameworks as laid out in this section, provide the framework and therefore the principles for the comparison of the language and the literacy learning process of the ELL acquiring language literacy simultaneously and the English speaking monolingual. The literature review to follow aims to contextualise the ELL, the process of simultaneous language and first time literacy acquisition, underpinned by and interlinked to the relevant theoretical frameworks and their principles. To this end, they provide a platform to further analyse, interpret and examine the disconnect of the ELL in an inclusive classroom acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

2.5 The literature review

The literature review provides the context, background and the framework for the research while focusing on globalisation and its attendant repercussions, namely, migration, human mobility, diversity, super diversity, multiculturalism, inclusion, exclusion and educational vulnerability in terms of language, culture and communication skills. The review further elaborates on the current term and definition relating to learners with special needs (See 1.4) and in addition, introduces the term
barrier to learning in the literal sense of the definition, in other words an obstacle or hurdle that prevents access or movement and argues that the ELL, through identification of the LLP, is indeed a learner with special needs, namely a language and literacy barrier, which is currently not being adequately addressed in the inclusive classroom, as these learners acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. This is further evidenced in the Special Education Services: Manual of Policies, Procedures and Guidelines (2013:40-98), where the ELL does not feature and speaks to the essence of this research that the ELL, is indeed a learner with special needs, determined by the language and literacy barrier or obstacle. The review furthers the discussion on at-risk learners, learning support, teacher preparedness and inclusive education as they pertain to the ELL learner in British Columbia. The literature review initially provides an ‘ethnolinguistic landscape’ and to this end, provides salient markers for an interconnected study, highlighting a proposed gap that requires redress based on the findings of this research and available prior research. Furthermore, the importance of linguistic proficiency as it pertains to literacy acquisition in both first and second language will be explored.

The theoretical framework created a platform for the comparative discussion between the English speaking monolinguals, the ELL’s, and their collective LLP’s. The background, language proficiency, emergent literacy, literacy acquisition and ultimately literacy and their concomitant skills are discussed. Within this framework, the ELL a ‘high risk’ minority and educationally vulnerable learner deemed by the researcher worthy of critical investigation is explored. In other words, learner’s worthy of ‘enquiry [into], identification [of], confrontation and resolution’ to the current exclusion practices within the inclusive classroom through identification of the language and literacy inequity. Furthermore, exploration of a comparative investigation relating to literacy acquisition will be considered against this multidimensional, dynamic and complex and interconnected framework.

A discussion on the complexities of SLL and second language literacy development of necessity encompasses global migration and, in this instance, as it pertains to Canada and ultimately Vancouver, British Columbia.

2.5.1 Globalisation: Humanity on the move, culminating in education and linguistic vulnerability – a new reality

The Financial Times Lexicon (2013), states, that “globalisation is a process by which national and regional economies, societies and cultures have become integrated through the global network of trade, communication, immigration [migration] and transportation”. Migration, on the other hand, is described by Castels & Miller (2009:4) as a dynamic and fundamental underpinning of globalisation which does not emerge in isolation, but is linked to the movement of commodities and capital.
Immigration is defined as the process of entering another country in order to live there (Longman Business English Dictionary, 2013). Today, the world is more intricately linked (Moore, 2013), and the scope and complexity of international migration contributes to a diverse and contested topic. Czaika and De Haas (2013:4) indicate that international migration has not accelerated, but that shifts in migratory patterns have become “fanned out” (Czaika & De Haas, 2013:4). They site Europe as an example, changing from a continent of emigration to one of immigration. They note that these shifts are linked to ‘major geopolitical and economic transformations’ and are informed by an increase in immigrant diversification. More succinctly put, migration is from a diverse plethora of origin countries funneled into a shrinking number of ‘prime’ destination countries such as Europe and Canada. International migration is a growing phenomenon, distinctive in scope, complexity, global capacity and with enormous social and economic consequences (Castels & Miller, 2009:2-3). The social, economic and political change resulting from mobility is diverse and uncertain, a prime example being the burgeoning cultural and linguistic diversity in British Columbia. Canada’s immigration policy (See 1.1), resultant immigration and therefore diverse ‘ethnolinguistic landscape’ noted in chapter 1 (See 1.1) continues to contribute to the “transformed reality” (Costly & Leung, 2009:152) of education in a globalised world, with the integration of immigrants into the traditional receiving societies and schools. Immigrant rich societies are subject to Vertovec’s (2007) notion of super diversity which continually affects every aspect of these societies, characterising Castles and Millers’ (2009:5) ‘age of migration’. Giddens (1994:96) posits “there is no obvious ‘direction’ to globalisation at all, as its ramifications are ever present...”, ramifications which link to questions of linguistic and cultural diversity, education and specifically in the context of this research, acquiring literacy in a language which is not spoken at home.

2.5.1.1 Globalisation: The outcome of population mobility, cultural and linguistic diversity and the ramifications for contemporary language education

Over the past two decades, global migration and consequently the nature of diversity and therefore linguistic diversity, has increased and continue to increase exponentially, resulting in rapid transformation of the affected societies and the education systems that function within these societies. The resulting “ethnolinguistic” (Castles & Miller, 2009:96) diversity poses an extraordinary challenge hitherto unseen for teachers, immersed in a marked heterogeneous learner population, an ELL pedagogy (which is still in its infancy for young learners acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home) and the realities of a rampant cultural, linguistic and racial diversity. The consequence of this diversity is not only felt in the classroom where teachers are responsible for the
insurmountable task of educating inordinate numbers of learners who are ELL’s, inclusive of those acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home but includes policy, curriculum, pedagogy, teacher preparedness, teaching and language preparedness (Gearon et al., 2009:3).

In these complex cultural and linguistic settings, the need to re-evaluate teaching practices, language and literacy acquisition and the curriculum in a way that is more reflective and responsive to difference and or diversity (ibid) is imperative. Kramsch (2008:405) supports the notion and posits that if language in education is to be effective and democratic, a paradigm shift in how learners are taught is necessary. Conceptualising and transforming current standard teaching practice to a more appropriate practice in support of a “global, decentred, multilingual and multicultural world, more suited to our uncertain and unpredictable times” (ibid) is required. Pedagogically the spotlight falls on language education, it’s ‘role’ and critically, the management of young learners in multicultural settings. It is in this setting, that the researcher considers and evaluates language proficiency and the LLP’s of the ELL’s. The integration of global, national and local, necessitates the need to consider the efficacy and functionality of ‘multiple languages’ introduced and used by young learners (Kostogriz, 2005:104-119).

Linguistic competency in a first language and in the dominant language of the country (e.g., English) in Canada facilitates academic achievement, social integration, possible further education and ultimately employment and is therefore critical. Multilingual proficiency (the societal use of several languages) in addition to plurilingualism (the knowledge of several languages by an individual) (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:442) is often a necessity for learners to gain access to the school curricula and participate in day to day communication in school and the broader community. While multilingualism is considered of value in the European Community (Council of the European Commission Union, 2008:4) and by researchers, in that it facilitates access to educational opportunities in an integrated Europe, this is not the case in predominantly English-speaking countries such as Canada, United States (US), Australia and the UK (Miller, Kostogriz & Gearon, 2009:4). Acknowledgement of the challenge within CALD classrooms, namely the “contextual caveats” (ibid) that are attendant to language planning, language learning and teaching objectives are mostly overlooked, resulting in an over simplification of the cultural – linguistic complexity of education, particularly, literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home. “While movements of people across borders and states have shaped societies since time immemorial, what is distinctive in recent years is their global scope, their centrality to national and international politics and their enormous economic and social consequences” (Castles & Miller, 2009:3). As a key factor within globalisation, migration contributes to social and economic change and therefore advances fundamental change in contemporary language and literacy education, the pedagogy of such and
teacher preparedness. Education and inclusion are evolutionary processes dependent on the ever changing needs of the learners in the rapidly transforming societies and schools they serve. To this end, Gearon (2009:210) notes that it is “imperative to establish a knowledge base for teachers” which supports the selection and application of classroom practices that promote ‘intercultural and language learning’. The researcher for this study furthers the call for research into the K1, K2 and Grade 1 language and literacy education, teacher preparedness and in addition, curricula planning specifically in consideration of the needs of young learners acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. In this regard, globalisation as it pertains to the Canadian context is explored.

2.5.1.2 Globalisation: The Canadian landscape

The review begins by examining the diverse, evolving Canadian linguistic and education landscape, referenced by the popular metaphor as “an ethnocultural cultural mosaic” (Statistics Canada. Canada’s Ethnocultural Mosaic, 2006 Census. 2006a:1). In line with Bibby’s (1990:95) claim to Canadian Multiculturalism as “an unassembled mosaic...[held together by a] tenuous willingness to coexist” the researcher identifies the ELL’s tenuous existence in the K1, K2 and Grade 1 classrooms by virtue of the LLP and concludes with the identification of a visible minority and the necessity to engage adequately with the multilingual needs of these learners in an era of rapid globalization. The aforementioned is reviewed as it pertains to and influences literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home and ultimately informs the comparative study between monolinguals and ELL’s LLP’s as they acquire literacy.

The rapid change to the evolving linguistic portrait of Canada is attributable to the increase in the number of immigrants, whose mother tongue is neither English nor French (Statistics Canada. The Evolving Linguistic Portrait. Census 2006b:1). The allophone population is heavily heterogeneous, consisting of more than two hundred languages, with Chinese mother tongue speakers accounting for the largest visible minority (ibid). Gaye (Policy Horizons Canada, 2011:2) posed the salient question: “Will Canada become a leader in formalizing the global citizen?” More importantly, will this global citizen be assured of Barber’s (1997:176) essential step, namely, able to read and write well in English, referenced as ‘the basics’ by the end of elementary school. The question is quotidian in origin but deeply relevant to the researcher and the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

2.5.1.3 Globalisation as it pertains to Canadian diversity

Over the past two decades globalisation has altered the face of social, cultural and linguistic diversity in societies all over the world (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011:2), Canada, notwithstanding. Diversity is
therefore not a new concept to Canada, with Canadian cities “among the most ethnically diverse” (Pappillon, 2002:1). “This influx of people moving to Canada, has created deeply multicultural cities where people from various ethno-cultural backgrounds live together, work and share space relatively successfully in comparison to the experience of many American or European cities (ibid). In 2011, one fifth of the Canadian population spoke a non-official language (NOL) at home (See1.1). Over two hundred languages were noted in the Census Population as a home language, spoken in isolation or in combination with English or French, evincing the multiplicity of language spoken in Canada. Nine in ten Canadians, who noted a NOL spoken at home, lived in a census metropolitan area with the majority living in six census metropolitan areas namely, Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Calgary, Edmonton and Ottawa-Gatineau (Statistics Canada, 2011b:1). The historical link to Commonwealth countries, which have in the past, formed the initial waves of migration no longer feature in the new and diverse countries of origin as is represented in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2 Canada - Permanent residents by top source countries, 2012-2014**

![Bar chart showing permanent residents by top source countries from 2012 to 2014](image)

Note: Source country is based on Country of Citizenship (With permission Statistics Canada, 2015. Ottawa, Ontario: Date modified 01/08/2015).

### 2.5.1.4 Super diversity

Globalisation as indicated in Fig. 2.4 has altered the portrait of social, cultural and linguistic diversity in Canada. The multiculturalism of the 1990’s, generally referenced as an ‘ethnic minority’ paradigm, has over time, been replaced by Vertovec’s (2007:1024) notion, of super diversity with a rapid increase in the categories of migrants in terms of motivation, patterns, itineraries of migration, and absorption into the labour and housing markets, of the host societies (Vertovec, 2010:83-95). Canada’s immigrant and ethnic minority population has in the past been characterised by large,
European and South Asian communities, originally from Commonwealth countries or former colonial territories which is not the case today. Canada’s initial period of British and French colonisation in the 1500’s, was followed by four major waves of immigration evidenced over a period of almost two centuries. The fifth wave, influenced by the revision of the immigration act in 1967 (Immigration Act, 1967:7) is ongoing and is currently weighted by immigrants, from South Asia and China speaking to Vertovec’s notion of super diversity in terms of increment and multiplicity. Policy frameworks, particularly education policy specifically relevant to this study of ELL’s and many aspects of the social sciences, have not kept pace with the recent emerging social and demographic patterns. Canada can now clearly be characterised by super diversity, “a notion intended to underline a level and kind of complexity surpassing anything a country has previously experienced” (Vertovec, 2006:1). The notion of super diversity, where “the world gathered in one city, living in harmony, as an example to all” (Freedland, 2005) is described by Vertovec (2006:1024) below as:

…a dynamic interplay of variables, among an increased number of new, small and scattered, multiple origin, transnationally connected socio economically differentiated and legally stratified immigrants who have arrived over the last decade.

The growth of multiculturalism and diversity has been noted in various ways by policy makers, educators and social scientists but does not necessarily translate to an adequate response to the challenge, as will be established, with the current expectation that ELL’s acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home without the necessary analytical attention given to their very specific needs in the inclusive classroom. The following section will present a broad overview of the diversity projections for Canada over the next twenty years focusing on population and linguistic diversity specifically.

2.5.1.5 Globalisation: Diversity projections for the Canadian population 2006 – 2031

Considering all growth scenarios, Statistics Canada’s, study of projections of the diversity of the Canadian population (2006:1) projects Canada’s population and therefore diversity and linguistic diversity, to continue to increase significantly over the next two decades. The change in the countries ‘ethnocultural’ make up will be salient in the census metropolitan areas, where by “2031, 25% to 28% of the population could be foreign-born” of which 55% of this population will be born in Asia (ibid).

By 2031, the foreign-born population is expected to increase fourfold compared to the rest of the population and 46% of Canadians fifteen years and older would be foreign-born or have at least one parent foreign-born (ibid). Waldinger, Mehdi and Bozorgmehr (1996:23) ask “is today’s diversity a stable arrangement, or is it simply a stage in the evolution of a new type of homogeneity, in which
most residents will be foreign-born?” Whether a stable arrangement or a new homogeneity, the recognition of the extent and fallout of rapid globalisation and its ensuing linguistic diversity, calls for reflection, vigorous research, resultant applicable policies, which recognise and support the needs of ELL’s acquiring language and literacy and the educational minorities. Linguistic and cultural diversity represent important societal markers and inform this study. To this end, a discussion on culture and language as they pertain to globalisation, diversity (See 2.9) and literacy acquisition (2.8), will follow, beginning with language.

The following section reviews the vulnerability of the young learner as it pertains to communication and linguistic ability based on origin and language spoken at home.

2.5.1.6 Globalisation: Language, communication and educational vulnerability

Given the role of schools as “major mediators of life’s opportunities” (Canadian Council of Learning, 2008:2) and Canada’s resolute constitutional commitment to equality and multiculturalism, it is essential to develop and integrate appropriate support for the ELL’s in order to facilitate positive outcomes, both in the short and long term. The wide spectrum of outcomes for ELL’s in British Columbia has recently highlighted the necessity for vigorous investigation of ELL’s and their varied outcomes (Garnet & Aman, 2008; Gunderson, 2007:8). To this end, The Early Development Instrument (EDI), a “Canadian check list tool measuring learner’s school readiness” (Janus, Hughes & Duku, 2010:3) has collected standardized data on over half a million learner’s readiness to learn since 2000 (ibid). The current EDI document reports on school readiness patterns for 5-year old Canadian learners from two important but low frequency populations, namely, learners with special needs and learners from diverse family backgrounds – those for whom the medium of instruction is not the home language. The report covered 160,000 learners from most regions in Canada. Janus, Hughes and Duku (2010:3) posit that small groups, as those aforementioned, are often “too small at a local level to examine” school readiness. However, the overriding necessity of vigorous investigation into the critical communication and linguistic skills of these ELL groups, no matter how small, while attempting to uphold data integrity is of value. Language proficiency and its attendant skills for ELL’s acquiring literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home create an even smaller group, emphasising the reliability of data as a challenging issue (See 3.10). Nevertheless, it is critical that this small group, a vulnerable at risk minority, is explored.

The EDI was developed to assess learners’ developmental levels during the first year of kindergarten under the auspices of a “uniform methodology” (Janus, Brinkman, Duku, Hertzman, Sayers Schroeder & Walsh, 2007:1). The instrument relates the vulnerability of the learner population and is elaborated upon below. The Human Early Learning Partnership (HELP) captured EDI results and
socio demographic characteristics for all British Columbia schools and over 90% of kindergarten learners’ school readiness (The Early Development Instrument, 2009:11). The determination of vulnerability is found on the distribution scores, with the first complete set of data in British Columbia referenced as wave 1. The vulnerability threshold of the EDI score delineates learners who scored in the lower 10% of the distribution. Learners who fall below the distribution score are then termed vulnerable on that specific scale of development. The interpretation of vulnerability is that the learner is on average more likely to be limited in his/her development as opposed to a learner who scores above the cut off (The Early Development Instrument Background Document, 2013:6). “Learners of immigrants and refugees entering Canada represent a potentially vulnerable and understudied group” (The Human Early Learning Partnership, 2011:1). It is well established, that academic outcomes from kindergarten to fourth grade are influenced by socioeconomic status. It is less clear how CALD, specifically in terms of linguistic diversity, affects the academic outcomes of the young ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. In support of the aim of the study, which is to identify, isolate and specify the at risk educational minority by virtue of their LLP and identify its vulnerability, as members of this minority acquire first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, it follows that an exploration of country of origin, home language and vulnerability levels will be necessary to further establish the ethno cultural and linguistic landscape of the learners participating in this study. The selected areas fall within Metro Vancouver, British Columbia, which are immigrant rich and for comparative purposes, Greater Victoria on the southern tip of Vancouver Island, British Columbia, which is immigrant poor. Metro Vancouver in British Columbia and the surrounding cities of Vancouver, Surrey, Richmond and Greater Victoria form the demographic background and in tandem with the EDI data contribute to the outline of the initial aspect of the literature review for this study. An overview of the four cities’ demographics is tabled below (Table 2.1). In addition, a bar graph, comparing NOL percentages and communication vulnerability levels in each city is included (See Figure 2.3).

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6 A metropolitan area, metro area or metro is a region consisting of a densely populated urban core and its less-populated surrounding territories.
Table 2.1 Demographic profile of the four cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vancouver Metropolitan Area</th>
<th>City of Surrey</th>
<th>City of Richmond</th>
<th>Greater Victoria Metropolitan Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home Language English only</strong></td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>51.7%</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>84.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home Language French Only</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NOL</strong></td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>44.3%</td>
<td>59.5%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Most Common NOL Spoken at home</strong></td>
<td>Punjabi 6.4%</td>
<td>Punjabi 21%</td>
<td>Cantonese 16%</td>
<td>German 1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cantonese 5.8%</td>
<td>Tagalog 3.5%</td>
<td>Chinese 7 13.5%</td>
<td>Chinese 1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese 5%</td>
<td>Hindi 3%</td>
<td>Mandarin 11.1%</td>
<td>Punjabi 1.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Statistics Canada, 2012<sup>d</sup>. Focus on geography series, 2011 series.)

Figure 2.3 Non official language and communication skill and vulnerability

Note: Similar percentages between the NOL’s spoken at home and the communication skill vulnerability levels for Greater Victoria and the disparity between the same figures for Vancouver, Surrey and Richmond.

1. Non Official Language (NOL)

2. Bar graph vulnerability data collection:
   i. Vancouver School District 39 participated in all four waves of data collection, including data from 93 schools.
   ii. The Surrey School District 36 participated in all four waves of data collection, including data from 100 schools.
   iii. The Richmond School District 38 participated in all four waves of data collection, including data from 40 schools.
   iv. The Greater Victoria School District 61 participated in all four waves of data collection, including data from 30 schools.

3. Vulnerability rates are determined on the five developmental skills: physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language, cognitive development, communication skills and general knowledge.

4. When the communication skill rate (which typically presents with a higher vulnerability rate in communities with a higher proportion of ELL’s), the overall vulnerability drops in Vancouver, Surrey and Richmond which are immigrant rich.

5. The highest level of vulnerability for the Greater Victoria Area was on the Social Competence Skills scale at 15%. The smallest proportion of vulnerable learners was on the Language and Cognitive Development scale.

(The HELP Community Summary, districts - 39, 36, 38 and 61, 2009/10 – 2010/11:1).

From Table 2.1 and the figures presented above, it is evident that there are an overwhelming number of educationally vulnerable ELL’s in British Columbia. It is these learners who are central to this study. Among the many consequences of globalisation, namely, super diversity, linguistic diversity and language acquisition to name a few, acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home is equally a consequence, which is becoming increasingly apparent and therefore deserving of a critical investigation into the challenges, limitations and inequity of the current inclusive education processes and practices in British Columbia. Language acquisition and ultimately literacy constitute Barber’s ‘basics’ (See 2.5.1.2) for a positive academic outcome.

Is the concept of language proficiency therefore negotiable, when an ELL learner born of immigrant parents, acquires the fundamentals (i.e., ‘the basics’) in a language not spoken at home? In addition, how does the current system in British Columbia uphold the rights, dignity and equality of all learners in the provision of a just and humane approach to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home?

2.5.1.7 Globalisation: Culture and the inclusive education link

Considering the aforementioned discussion on globalisation, projections and their influence on diversity, linguistic diversity, and therefore education (See 2.5.1; 2.5.1.5 and 2.5.1.6), the discussion is not complete without reference to and a brief exploration of the cultural influence and how it influences inclusive education and therefore ultimately, individual educational outcomes. In order to
explore cultural influence on inclusive education, clarity on whether inclusion is best understood as a global or a local phenomenon is necessary. Over the past three decades and to date, inclusive education has and continues to emerge and gain support during a period that has been and is currently characterised by globalisation, migration and mass human mobility (Downing & Peckingham-Hardin, 2007:16-30). Inclusion is generally, considered as a normative, values-based construct, defining the conceptualisation of an ideal society and the processes that are required to build that society (O’Hara, 2014:86). However, the complex and ambiguous nature of inclusive education inherently touts a ‘local flavour’ (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:37), a ‘global agenda’ (Pijl, Meijer & Hegarty, 1997) and in Canada, is founded on super diversity (See 2.5.1.4). Social inclusion is values based and vigorously informed by the fundamental values of the host society and country. Inclusive education, on the other hand, is fundamentally based on a rights discourse (See 2.6) as the central component in delineating policy, thus “placing inclusion firmly on the agenda of social change” (Daniles & Garner, 1999:3). Arnove (1999:6) identifies three dimensions that characterize a comparative perspective on education: the scientific, the pragmatic and global, the latter two being the focus of this discussion. The global perspective shaped by international events informs local events and therefore the ‘understanding’ of education (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:43); while the notion of inclusion does not smother local concerns and social conditions - “the global inclusion ‘movement’ must engage in dialogue with – and be engaged in dialogue by - the local and the context specific” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:43). On the other hand the pragmatic perspective aims to “discover what can be learned that will contribute to improved policy and practice at home” (Arnove, 1999:6), which, when applied, speaks to the CT framework and the rights of the learner within which the researcher frames the discussion. Both dimensions broadly relate to education and inform the inclusive education philosophy as it applies to British Columbia and the literature review as it applies to this study. In these contexts the researcher endeavours to contextualize the at-risk educational minority acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home.

In order to shed light on whether or not inclusive education is a global or local phenomenon, a perspective, which takes cognisance of ‘context’ and therefore culture, is necessary.

Erickson, (2001: 31-58) and Gallego, Cole and the Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition (2001:951-997) posit that culture embodies three constitutive dimensions, namely, regulative, interpretive and instrumental. Williams (1983:87) furthers the notion, describing culture, as one of the most complex constructs and one of the two or three most complex words in the English language (also Eagleton, 2000:2). Culture from a regulative and interpretive perspective and as it informs inclusive education will be briefly overviewed, while a discussion of the instrumental dimension of culture will follow (2.6) as a broader exploration of inclusive education.
Culture is typically viewed as a cohesive, systemic, prescriptive and a rule based notion that mediates the roles and actions of a community. In order for the regulatory system to function, a consensus pertaining to need and content of the rules is critical. In so doing, “the patterning that characterizes a group’s identity is foregrounded” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:45) and for ‘cultural continuity’ the regulative dimension is of necessity passed to newcomers. It is therefore in a group’s “best interest to reproduce its culture and the implicit regulative model” (Erickson, 2001:31-58, as cited in Mitchell, 2009:45) in order to survive. The regulative dimension of culture creates the architectural framework for the model of inclusion for a given locale. Consequently, there are a plethora of inclusive education models within nations - all influenced by the regulative cultural dimension of the particular locale (Dyson, 2001:1). Models vary in fundamental core aspects such as the definition of inclusive education, the stated educational objectives and the unique vision of an inclusive society that frame the specific inclusive education model (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:45). In addition, the regulations and norms that govern the organization and administration of inclusive schools, are influenced by the compatibility or not (locale specific) between the philosophy of inclusive education, outdated policies and practices (Lupart, 1999:1) and the funding applied. For example, in British Columbia the substantial growth in the number of learners considered to be ‘at risk’, presently exceeds the traditional boundaries of special education to include learners from economically, culturally, or language disadvantaged backgrounds as well as those with chronic low achievement (Lupart, 1992:1; Lupart, 1999:7). The response to learners with diverse needs prior to 2002 was the provision of specialty programmes that target the unique needs of learners. In 2002, the Provincial Collective Agreement (2011-2013) (See 2.6.3.1) effectively removed guaranteed levels of specialist services such as ELL services (White, 2008:1 a.). The cohesion (patterning) of the group ultimately informs its identity, the particular interpretation of the world and the subsequent actions which ensure the continuity and survival of the culture. The regulative streams of culture are navigated through “cultural filters (values and beliefs) to decode and interpret the world” (Mitchell, 2009:46).

The interpretive dimension of culture speaks to the often subjective understanding of the world where values, beliefs, knowledge and emotion are used to interpret events (Eagleton, 2000:34). Erickson (2001:38) elaborates noting “we live in webs of meaning, caring and desire that we create and create us”; Mitchell, (2009:46) cogently states, “Individuals are apprenticed to ways of interpreting the world in their cultural communities”. The process of attaining meaning is pivotal to the interpretive dimension which ultimately influences and informs the formation of an inclusive education culture.
It becomes evident then that language, culture and inclusive education are interlinked and are therefore determinants in and factors of literacy acquisition. More specifically, they are fundamental if not critical in the development of the emergent skills which are a prerequisite for literacy acquisition. Culture inclusive of and mediated by language is therefore an important aspect of education and the inclusive education model, “affording researchers an analytical tool” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:49) with which to address inclusion as a cohesive whole with the knowledge that teachers, parents and learners’ understanding of the conceptualised model may and can be diverse. This diverse conceptualization, through research, dialogue, understanding, insight and empathy, in other words, the pragmatic perspective on education, can further the evolution of inclusion by furthering and supporting the communities culturally-based vision toward reality. To this end, addressing the learners’ needs through acknowledgement of the linguistic and cultural diversity, thereby, acknowledge and address the existence of the “cultural domination” (Touraine, 2000:195).

The regulative and interpretive perspectives of cultural filtering bring further context to the global and pragmatic framework of this study. In order to further the context discourse and focus on the ELL’s who acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, a brief overview of inclusive education, the curriculum, schools, classrooms and teacher preparedness follows.

2.6 Inclusion: Addressing diversity

2.6.1 Introduction

This section provides an overview of the relevant literature on inclusive education in terms of inclusivity and education as they pertain to this research. In addition, inclusive education will be discussed in the light of linguistic and cultural diversity from both a global and the local Canadian context, with emphasis on the cornerstones of inclusive education, namely “equity and excellence” (Lupart, 1999:1). Furthermore, the following discussion elaborates on the critical reality of contemporary education in a globalised world where the super diversity of school populations from a cultural, racial and linguistic perspective furthers the challenge of ensuring an equitable and excellent education for all learners. The discussion focuses specifically on how the current concept of inclusion integrates and attends to the linguistic and literacy needs of literacy acquisition in English monolinguals and ELL’s, who are acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. In so doing, the inquiry identifies and raises issues of exclusion and social injustice for a pragmatic and interpretive analysis of the LLP of the young ELL acquiring simultaneous language and literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

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8Emergent literacy, initially introduced by Teal and Sulzby (1986:173-206) and formalised by Clay (1993:4-8), it refers to children’s language, behaviour, concepts and skills that precede and develop into literacy which include reading, writing and a larger body of literary knowledge at later ages (Machado,2003:158).
“Inclusive education is one of the most dominant and controversial issues confronting educational policy makers around the world today” (Mitchell, 2009:0). It “extends beyond special needs arising from difficulties, and includes consideration of other sources of disadvantage and marginalization ...such as language, [and] ethnicity” (Mitchell, 2009:1), for example the LLP of the ELL. In consideration of the complexity and the educationally vulnerable learners identified as at risk learners with an attendant LEP (See 1.10.7.d), the salient question is whether these learners are included or excluded by the ideals of and the current implementation of the inclusive education policy and whether or not, they have equitable access to the curriculum. The ensuing section and, more importantly, the context of the findings of this research elaborate on this complex, dynamic and critical issue, namely, equity and excellence in an inclusive classroom for at risk learners when considering language, culture and literacy acquisition. To this end the meaning of and understanding of the “journey towards pervasive inclusion” (Naylor, 2005:24) in schools, as it pertains to Canada, more specifically British Columbia, is pivotal to understanding the linguistic needs of and the viable assimilation into and access to the inclusive education curriculum for ELL’s.

Underpinned by the inclusive philosophy that all learners belong and can learn in regular schools and classrooms, Bailey’s (2004) suggestion that inclusion is defined as the integration of all learners into mainstream school life as matter of right, not as the response of a benevolent society to learner disadvantage, is one of the foci of this study. In other words, the right of the learner to an accessible, equitable education in an inclusive classroom while excellence is pursued by means of “raising the achievement of all students while narrowing gaps between the highest and lowest achievement categories” (Rossi, et al., 2004:46). This requires the pragmatic reworking of school culture toward a culture where learners’ needs, culture and language notwithstanding are the priority and focus and not the benevolence. In so doing, the school culture advocates for learners, sets the bar high for all learners and boldly confronts issues of bias and exclusion.

An understanding of inclusive education, its definition and ultimate application and attendant embracing of language and culture are therefore necessary. It is however, an elusive necessity in that it is a fluid, dynamic and an extremely complex concept and therefore the definition and application are equally elusive, intricate and complex. It is therefore no surprise that there is no universally accepted definition of inclusive education (Mitchell, 2009:4). There is, however, an international consensus as to the salient notions of this multi-complex and problematic concept. The UNESCO’s definition of inclusive education elucidates the overarching international framework and therefore consensus for inclusive education, which, in turn, informs the national Canadian and local British Columbia definitions, which in their turn inform this research. UNESCO outlines inclusive education based on inclusion as the guiding principle. It furthers the delineation, noting that
inclusive education is viewed as a “process of strengthening the capacity of an education system to reach out to all learners” (UNESCO, 2008:10). Furthermore, inclusion is instrumental in formulating all educational policies, beginning with the belief that education is a “…fundamental human right” (World Education forum 2000:8) and a foundation for a just [and equitable] society. Inclusive education is fundamentally, a ‘rights discourse’ (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:38) as expressed by the United Nations Charter and in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). It is a process that involves the transformation of schools so as to cater for all learners inclusive of learners from ethnic minorities, those with disabilities, those at risk and learning difficulties amongst others.

The concept of inclusion is not new and has been integral to education and philosophy throughout the twentieth century (See 1.10.2). The recent and widespread push to establish individual rights as a pivotal component in policy making that has placed inclusion centre stage of social change (Daniels & Garner, 1999:3). The current focus of inclusive education is heavily influenced by the human rights doctrine as supported by the Salamanca Statement on Special Needs Education (UNESCO 1994) in 1994. Inclusion and therefore inclusive education has made marked progress within countries, schools and classrooms over two decades. However, inclusive education, as a current global philosophy, is deeply embedded in “historical context[s]” which in turn inform the local context, namely each country, province and district, resulting in a unique individual history of concept and application” (Miller, 2009:13). In order to fully appreciate the current concept and application of inclusive education, it is prudent to overview the historic journey of inclusive education as it pertains to attitude, policy and practice.

2.6.2 The evolution of inclusion: Attitude, policy and practice

“Inclusive education exists in historical contexts in which vestiges of older beliefs co-exist with newer beliefs” (Mitchell, 2009:13). The construct and subsequent application of inclusive education, specifically with regard to learners with special needs is distinctly “informed by the country of origin” (ibid). In framing the ‘historical contexts’ Dyson (2001:24-29) and Armstrong (2002) warn against being overly pessimistic or overly optimistic when exploring the historic analyses and urge a measured and therefore balanced analysis. The former explores the notion of dilemmas, as a means to greater understanding within the field and argues that the history of special education, “can be seen as the product of the contradictory tendencies within the education system’s responses to diversity and the resolutions of the “dilemmas of difference” to which those tendencies give rise” (Dyson, 2001:25). Neatly summed as “a sorry tale of thwarted initiatives and shattered ideals” resulting in discourse “fraught with tension” (Dyson, 2001: 24-29). Armstrong (2003:54) with the approval of Safford and Safford (1996:3), on the other hand, posits that human societies do not
progress through “discrete periods or stages” (Miller, 2009:14) “abandoning practices of one era as the next is borne…V[vestiges of older beliefs remain, even today” (Armstrong, 2002:437). It is pertinent, to acknowledge in any discussion pertaining to inclusive education that where any “new paradigm is holding sway, it is clear that vestiges of old paradigms still exist” (Mitchell, 2009:14). The practice of integration of all learners as a matter of right, not as the response of a benevolent society to learner disadvantage is a challenge, as inclusion wrestles with the global and local contexts. Peters (2007) notes that inclusive education is not only a practice but a rights based philosophy where all learners have a right to an education that is appropriate to their needs inclusive of a right to equal opportunity. He furthers the notion, noting inclusive education recognises the value of the learner, regardless of the disability, based on the respect for the learner. He goes on to note that irrespective of physical inclusion, namely “accessible classrooms and facilities”, learners with disabilities and in this instance, the ELL’s and their attendant barrier to and or disconnect from learning “...must be afforded adequate instructional support systems” such as a “flexible curriculum, adequately prepared teachers and a welcoming school community culture that goes beyond tolerance to acceptance” (Peters, 2007:99). Contextually, on a micro level, inclusive education promotes and recognises the significance of the individual learner’s unique needs, on the macro level; these needs are supported by compliant institutions and governance.

Mitchell (2009:14) furthers the discourse, noting that “Inclusive education is embedded in a series of contexts, extending from the broad society, through the local community, the family, the school and to the classroom” and in this instance, the learner. Lupart (2008), outlines a gradual societal shift in both thought and education systems that have led to the formulation of the current ideology of inclusion based on human rights, and is promoted in Canadian school systems. She describes the institutionalization of the 19th century, the attendant medical model of diagnosis in describing a deficit in the learner and referral, followed by the segregated schooling of the 1950’s and 1960’s. An increase in categorization is described for the same period aforementioned, separating high and low incidence categories. At this time, regular schools competed with special needs schools for resources and personnel both of which were on the decline. In the early 1970’s the influence of the civil rights movement and a burgeoning social commitment to promote normalisation practices for disadvantaged persons within the community led to conceptual changes within Canadian public schools (Lupart, 2008:6). The notion of integration and education in “the least restrictive environment” (Naylor, 2005:5) became prominent in the late 1980’s, where schools were required to implement an Independent Education Program for special needs learner, accommodate them in the regular classroom setting, modify the curriculum and provide additional ‘pull out’ classes (Lupart,2008:6). These “symbols and ceremonies” (Skirtic, 1996:81-118) or the placement of high
incident learners in regular classrooms with low incidence learners became the norm and generally referred to as ‘mainstreaming’. However, with the reformulated policy, it was still the responsibility of the learner and parent to adapt to the ‘one size’ fits all system of education (Lupart, 2008:6). This is not dissimilar to the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home within a ‘new paradigm’ of inclusive education where Armstrong’s (2002:54) “vestiges of the old paradigms still exist”. More succinctly put, it is the responsibility of the ELL to adapt to the educational services, pedagogy, teaching method, curricula and more importantly language of delivery while acquiring language and literacy in K1, K2 and Grade 1.

Inclusive education, in the Canadian Oxford dictionary (2004) is defined as “the fact or condition of being included”; inclusive is described as “not excluding any section of society” and the root word is defined as “treat or regard as part of the whole”. Inclusive education, as perceived by the British Columbia Ministry of Education, is noted as a value system which upholds the principle that all learners are entitled to “equitable access to learning, achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education.” It further notes that the system incorporates basic values that “promote participation, friendship and interaction” (BC Ministry of Education, 2013:1, 2).

However, marked differences exist between inclusion as a philosophy and the inclusive school and classroom in which the principle of inclusion is most likely in application diluted, furthering Dysons’ (2001:25) “sorry tales and thwarted idealism”. It is for this reason that learners from CALD backgrounds continue to face adversity within the inclusive education system. Salient examples are the funding tensions between special needs and regular schooling (Lupart, 2008:6) and recent funding cuts and therefore services for learners with special needs (Naylor, 2005:15; BCTF, 2012:5 c.; BCTF 2014:1). In addition the categories of at-risk learners with special needs are not only increasing but traversing traditional borders and embracing learners from challenging socio economic backgrounds and cultural and linguistic minorities (Lupart, 2008:7). Under these circumstances, teachers’ tolerance of diversity, inclusive of linguistic diversity is being sorely tried (BCTF, 2014:1). It is therefore, not clear whether the value system which upholds the inclusive education principles and the relevant economic principles or goals are indeed a “contested relationship” (Wolf, 2002) or not. Therefore, the aims of education are stunted by stringent economic policies (Mitchell, 2009:43).

If in principle, the concept of inclusive education is upheld by administrators, teachers and their associations, the details by default become pivotal, specifically with regard to the growing number of ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. It is not in the interests of inclusive education to overlook the local context, remain fixed in past attitudes, nor ignore remaining “vestiges of old beliefs,” which preclude and or skew the evolutionary process of inclusive education.
In tandem with the outdated perceptions and categorisation of special needs, the recent notion that the inclusive ideology promotes the exclusion of and the ongoing discrimination of learners with special needs (Skirtic, 2005: 149-155) speaks to a systemic challenge where diversity, specifically learners’ diversity and linguistic diversity are neither valued nor accommodated by the current system and or policy.

If the primary goal of inclusion is to serve all learners inclusive of those from CALD backgrounds adequately (i.e., an equitable provision of and access to education for all), thereby creating the seamless implementation of inclusion as it is envisioned at an administrative level and in schools and classrooms, why is the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home unable (as this research seeks to establish) to access the necessary conduits to a fair and equitable system.

Lupart (1999:16-17) explored the dichotomy of equity and excellence and identified two factors which limit progress and access to the conduits that facilitate full and equitable inclusion namely:

1. the top down, quick fix with minimal consultation with educators and schools;
2. simplistic beliefs that the support for the philosophy of inclusion translated into classroom practice.

The two factors are compounded firstly by conceptualization of special needs under the psycho-medical model or deficit model where “school failure is ascribed to a deficit, inadequacy or pathology within the student [learner]” (Mitchell, 2009:6) and secondly, by the socio-political model which conceptualises special needs as ‘social constructs’. Finally, special education is presented as a system in which systemic inequalities limit progress at the macro, meso and micro levels; all merge and translate to a “sight of conflicting paradigms” (Mitchel, 2001:319; 2009:6). The conflicting paradigms muddy the waters of the process, policy and ultimately practice. From a systemic perspective, school failure occurs, when an education system fails to provide equitable and inclusive education services which promote learners’ learning abilities and experiences to obtain outcomes “worthy of their effort and ability” (Field, Kuczera & Pont, 2012:18). It is therefore increasingly clear, that education systems and with regard to this study, schools, teachers and curriculum, are instrumental in the equity and excellence of education available to learners and therefore instrumental in academic outcomes and learners’ life chances.

To follow, a brief discussion on the dichotomy of equity and excellence as it pertains to diversity and linguistic diversity, which will further the contextualisation of the inclusive education philosophy.

In consideration of Mittler’s (2009:27) ‘social model’, education systems are beholden to provide “successful educational outcomes” (OECD, 2012:17) for all learners. Luparts’ one size fits all policy is no longer adequate when considered from an equal access educational opportunity. In order to provide education that promotes equity, the recognition of and meeting the diverse educational
needs of learners from diverse backgrounds is necessary (Faubert, 2012, 6-12). The notion that learners fail to thrive due to their own inadequacies or deficits, academic or otherwise, has been replaced with the notion of school and/or systemic failure. The cause of inadequate academic outcomes is related to deficiency within the school and school system and not the learner. It is the failure of education systems, schools, teachers and curricula to make provision for learners whose needs are not the norm and therefore not met by the one size fits all blanket policy. In terms of equity, a school system bound by policy that fails to meet the individual needs of all learners, fails to achieve authentic inclusion and therefore fails to address fairness, equity and inclusion. As is evidenced in ELL’s, learners with an immigrant background - socio economic factors aside - are deemed to be at risk by virtue of a notably lower education performance in most OECD countries - often with a difference that is equivalent to 1.5 years of schooling (OECD, 2012:22).

Excellence, on the other hand, feeds meritocracy, within which learners succeed and others fail, as is evident when regular education leaders represent the means to attain excellence and the special education leaders who represent the means to attain equity (Lupart & Webber, 2002:9). The resulting dichotomy of changes within regular education such as improvements in professional development and raising performance standards greatly reduces parity between excellence and equity, with one favoured to the detriment of the other. The possibility that both equity and excellence can and should be achieved in authentic inclusion is overlooked. Skirtic (2005; 1996; 1991) provides an analysis of both culture and school organisations and concludes that educational equity cannot be achieved without educational excellence. If authentic inclusion is to be pursued in schools, the simultaneous goals of equity and excellence still stand as fundamental. In this regard, the current educational services, schools, classroom and teaching practices that purport the notion that education is an “instrument of selective mobility” (Lupart, 2008:11) are to be replaced with the notion that education is a tool for the empowerment of all learners (Skirtic, 2005:149-155). It is not within the scope of this study to further discuss excellence as it relates to inclusive education other than to note that in order to achieve equity for all, by ensuring that all learners have the opportunity to develop their academic abilities, social abilities and talents to the fullest extent, speaks to attendant excellence of practice and therefore excellence of outcome. Attitudes, policies and practice need to be realigned, by disbanding old beliefs which are no longer appropriate, nor relevant and need to evolve from the embedded perspective of contextualization (i.e., from the ground up - practice in the classroom empowering all learners).

In the Canadian context, attempts at addressing both equity and excellence are evidenced in the ongoing and vigorous pursuit of an inclusive education system and are informed by the Charter of
Rights and Freedoms (McLaughlin & Jordan, 2009:89) (See 1.10.2). However, considering that inclusion speaks to equity inclusive of equitable access to the curriculum and social structures for all learners inclusive of ELL’s, excellence by default has promoted meritocracy, where a percentage of learners succeed and others do not (Naylor, 2005:6). Schools that promote excellence may not ardently pursue equity and the philosophical ideologies and discourse of the inclusive movement thereby negating social justice, civil rights and equity (Winzer & Mazuric, 2011:13) for those learners who are excluded by virtue of LEP.

Canadian public schools are mandated as inclusive institutions (Dworret & Bennett, 2002:22), falling under the federal charter’s understanding of and application of inclusive education (Mitchell, 2005:3) and The Canadian Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms (McLaughlin & Jordan, 2009:89). Kentworthy and Whitaker (2001:219) posited that ending segregation of learners within education was a human rights issue and as such, speaks to the inherent right of every Canadian learner, regardless of language or culture to access an equitable education. It is argued that schools need to change classroom practices and educational services to meet the needs of all learners (Lupart, 2008:6). Converting rights to reality is the salient challenge for the United Nations, governments, educationists, policy makers, curriculum planners, schools, teachers and ultimately the learners. Each government will and does interpret the Salamanca Statement in the light of its own history, traditions, values, culture and structures, impacting the day to day lives of learners with special needs and their families (Price, 2003:3-9). The concept and definition of inclusion, the attitudes toward, the policies emitting from and ultimately the practice are informed by local learners, teachers and parents, thereby taking on a distinct “local flavour” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:34). Canada is no exception, the notion of a one size fits all approach has been the policy applied at the expense of learners (Lupart, 2008:2) and exclusion of CALD learners. Learners are not a priority for most governments, and less so, learners with disabilities and/or challenges (Mittler, 2009:32). The difficulties that arise when a global organisation encourages governments and to change their policies and practice positively are not without transition issues with some more critical than others. In Vancouver schools, for example, the concept of and application of inclusion may have been diluted and declined with disturbing new evidence regarding levels of participation and achievement of minority groups and at risk learners, specifically ELL’s (Gunderson, 2007). This has resulted in what appears to be a “general apathy to the concept of inclusion” and therefore neglect - the antithesis of inclusion and to this end placing inclusion at risk (Naylor, 2007:228). Duff (2007:150) furthers the notion, noting that Canada’s respect for linguistic and cultural diversity is “more myth than reality as far as educational practices are concerned”. Naylor (2007:246) furthers the narrative of apathy,

9 The Canadian Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms (1982: 15.1) upholds greater inclusion of diverse learners and attendant to the Constitution act, the rights of all learners are guaranteed, including those with exceptionalities.
noting that the provincial British Columbia government touts inclusion in British Columbia’s schools, yet fails to provide adequate funding resulting in the closure of the Special Programs Branch; thereby rendering defunct knowledge dissemination, critical for the provision of systemic support to teachers and school districts. Furthermore, universities in Canada offer limited focus on inclusive approaches; teaching to diversity features as an elective or, as a mention, in mandatory courses (ibid). On a more fundamental level, teachers are confused by lack of clarity as to precisely what their current roles and responsibilities are. Learners and parents on the other hand, are sounding the alarm in response to a “watered down curriculum” (Lupart & Odishaw, 2003:9-28) and the lack of services for learners with exceptional needs (Lupart, 2008). Overall, a rather vapid application of Arnove’s (1999:6) “pragmatic perspective” to education and the concept of inclusion as it pertains to fairness, equity, excellence and the rights of the learner is evident.

Inclusion is an elusive concept (Booth, 1995:96-108) and interpretations of meaning differ according to “socio-economic and cultural contexts” (Mitchell, 2009:43). Thus, the contextual conceptualisation of inclusion is equally elusive. Aligned with the relevant theoretical frameworks of this study, the “toolkits” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:47) that learners bring to the table need to be evaluated from a bottom up approach and used to inform attitude, policy and practice if education is to become a “tool for the empowerment of all learners” (Skirtic, 2005:149-155).

With regard to this study and the ELL’s right to equity and excellence while embracing the vision of the ideals of inclusive education and policy in British Columbia, the ‘tool kit’ (early emergent literacy skills and language proficiency) that is a prerequisite for proficient literacy acquisition and thereby access and participation to the inclusive classroom, require vigorous investigation. “There is little doubt that enough is known in terms of how to make inclusive education a pervasive reality in Canadian public education systems” (Naylor, 2005:23). Yet, it is not a pervasive reality as reflected in the substantial number of learners whose needs are not met (ibid). It is in this vein, that it is hoped that as a result of policy, adequate resources will be made available to achieve the practice of “the envisioned culture of inclusive education” (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:47) and educating for diversity (Carson & Johnston, 2000:76). (See 2.5.1.4). The translation of the ‘global inclusion movement’ (Artiles & Dyson, 2009:43) to the local context, where attitude, policy and practice, are informed primarily by the pragmatic analysis of learners’ needs and “diversity is assumed, welcomed and viewed as a rich resource rather than seen as a problem” (Booth, Ness & Stromstad, 2003:2; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009:807) will continue the journey toward ‘pervasive inclusion’ (Naylor, 2007:246). In so doing, it will further the fundamental principles of equity and excellence not only within inclusive education but in compliance with the democratic values upon which Canada is founded. Our education policies, services, schools and classrooms in British
Columbia and more specifically Vancouver, signal that all is not well within the inclusive ideal. Systemic inaction, specifically aligned toward ELL's and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home excludes and/or limits fair and equitable access to the curriculum and classroom activities. In other words, discrimination and exclusion, a “micro-exclusion” (D’Alessio, 2011:102), imperils the ideals of inclusive education and importantly, limits the opportunities for inclusion of the young ELL. Naylor’s (2007:246) poignant question: Is British Columbia leading the country backwards? requires reflection, change and inadvertently supports the research aim of this study.

2.6.3 The devolution of inclusion from a Canadian perspective

Pedagogy, the practice in the classroom, funding and support services that speak to and colour the local on the ground reality of the global inclusive ideology. The global rhetoric on inclusive education needs to “dialogue with - and be engaged in dialogue by – the local and the context specific” (Mitchell, 2008:43), thereby furthering reflection, critical awareness, and ultimately sound research in confronting and resolving the current disconnect for the ELL acquiring literacy in the inclusive classroom in British Columbia. The global and local disconnect will be elaborated upon below.

2.6.3.1 The sedulous tryst between funding, support and practice

Canadians celebrate inclusive education (Porter, 2004:48), bolstered by the ideological themes of inclusion based on social justice, human rights and equity, while they have little regard for the beliefs of teachers (Winzer & Mazurek, 2011:5). Teachers’ skills, abilities and input were not considered in the equation of implementation; it was expected that they would willingly accommodate individual and specialized instruction. Inclusion itself a radical reform defied educational orthodoxy, inducing reluctance and resistance in teachers (Winzer, 2008:1-11; 2011:5) while creating a ‘fault line’ between policy makers, pedagogy and teachers (Winzer & Mazurek, 2011:5). Teachers’ concerns are skewed toward the reality of practice, while government policies are skewed toward social justice issues, an ideology imposed ‘top down’ (See 2.6.2) and in direct conflict with the contextual reality on the ground. Inclusive practices call for innovative pedagogical approaches, resulting in rapidly changing and obscure roles for teachers, leaving teachers unsupported, frustrated and insufficiently prepared to comply with the plethora of unprecedented demands as evidenced by the British Columbia teachers who expressed “disappointment and frustration at the difficulty of daily implementation and supports provided for the implementation of special needs policies” (Naylor, 2002:27). The challenge of attending to all learners’ needs within the inclusive classroom is increasingly complex and challenging for the following reasons: 1. The exponential increase in linguistic diversity of learners in the British Columbian classrooms. (In British Columbia, “ESL students are in the majority at more than 60 schools across Metro Vancouver,
according to data from British Columbia’s Ministry of Education” (Skelton, 2014:1). 2. The reported number of learners with special needs, which is not a true reflection of the actual number of learners with special needs. 3. The current teacher-learner ratio; and 4. The loss of support programmes and ELL teachers due to the current funding structures (BCTF, 2012:5). All these aforementioned contribute to the widening ‘fault line’ between teachers, policy makers, pedagogy and practice. Teachers and their relevant associations (a generic descriptor) express grave concern at implementation of inclusive policies “in a climate of reduced support” (Elementary Teachers’ Federation of Ontario (ETFO), 2002:6; White & Naylor, 2010: IV). Support is needed to reduce teachers’ workloads when the teacher / learner ratios and an increasing number of classes exceed the composition limit (White & Naylor, 2010:1) due to lack of funding. The insouciant ‘top down’ implementation of inclusive education as an ideology has resulted in significant stress levels for teachers and an inadequate systemic support to meet the ongoing complexity of learners’ needs and feeds the constant deterioration of working and learning conditions in British Columbia’s public schools (White & Naylor, 2010:18).

Inclusive education is an outcome of global economic trends (See 2.6) and the current social justice and human rights notion. Locally however, the implementation of inclusion is calibrated by the country, province, city, school and classroom. It is also recalibrated for each unique implementation, all of which are influenced by the availability of funding as opposed to an ideal implementation where all of the above would be directed by the unique needs of each individual learner.

Considering the changing complexity of the classroom in British Columbia as it relates to globalisation and diversity (See 2.5.1.3 and 2.5.1.4), and CALD’s a vitally important tool for the implementation of inclusive education, namely support services, has been lost for many of the most vulnerable learners in the British Columbia public education system premised on fiscal parsimony.

In 2001, the funding formula for education was reformulated with serious ramifications for learners and educators. Previously, a base allocation supplemented by additional grants for special education and ELL’s was the norm. The new and simplified formula, for all districts was calculated on individual and enrolled learners. From the governments’ perspective, the new formula facilitated flexibility, autonomy and control over the delivery of educational services. Translated, the new formula provided greater funding for schools in that greater funding per individual learner was available. However, from the school districts’ perspective, funds were on the decline. The new and current formula ultimately resulted in school boards being held accountable for one third of a billion dollar cost that would not be met by the government (Comeau, 2002:4). School districts which are mandated by law are unable to run a deficit face the reality of having to cut costs and reduce services (Grimmet & D’Amico, 2008:7) to remain within the allocated budget.
This is the antithesis of the OECD recommendation noting that the method of fund allocation influences learners’ learning opportunities. In order to support and promote equity, “equitable and effective resource allocation mechanisms” are necessary (OECD, 2012:72), which require fair and equitable funding strategies, inclusive of adequate resources for disadvantaged learners and recognition that instructional costs for disadvantaged learners may be substantially higher than those for regular learners (OECD, 2012:72). Chronic underfunding over the past decade has resulted in the removal of teachers’ collective agreements for provision of class size and class composition, thereby, causal in the ongoing erosion of the public education system. British Columbia has the lowest learner/teacher ratio and provides $988 less per learner per year than the Canadian average. The current funding crisis in British Columbia has resulted in mammoth cuts, 15,000 overcrowded classrooms, the loss of 700 specialist and ESL teachers at a time when the categories of special needs learners, learners with special needs, inclusive of the ELL is increasing exponentially (Iker, 2013:88).

The current fiscal policy has not fully taken into account the overwhelming cultural and linguistic diversity currently permeating the classroom and therefore is unable to sustain equitable and effective support services for learners in British Columbia (See footnote 10 and 11).

In sum, top down policy implementation, obfuscated roles for teachers, teacher frustration combined with increased work load, lack of recognition for CALD learners and the reduction of support services and therefore a reduction in the number of teachers (Winzer & Mazurec, 2011:11) severely inhibit the realisation of inclusive classrooms. In this light, “there is a need to investigate how policy dispositions, impact upon and shape the educational experiences of ethnic minority learners within state funded education” (Costely, & Leung, 2009:151). The notion of an inclusive education system, not solely concerned with disability, but one that will address the ‘discrete’ socio cultural and linguistic needs of learners and their families within the general inclusive philosophy, is essential. In other words, a notion is needed that should not fail to facilitate and maintain the debate about “maximizing individual potential as a fundamental human right, and how society can do that better, to the economic and social improvement of Canada” (Naylor, 2005:251). The corollary of the aforementioned cannot be regarded in any other light than the economic, social and cultural unravelling of an ideology that holds so much promise. Mitchell’s (2009:20) proposition 16 rings the bell for change and is now with regard to the ELL, louder than ever: “Inclusive education requires major shifts from old to new educational paradigms”.

10 “Teachers’ Federation president Jim Iker issued a full-scale strike notice Thursday morning, which will begin on Tuesday, June 17,[2014] and will continue until a deal is reached with the government or the union is legislated back to work.” (Judd & Baker, 2014:1).

11 Currently, positions are entrenched and therefore mediation will not be moving forward. The bargaining process will commence if the government is able to bring the necessary funding to the table. Statement from the BCTF President Jim Iker July 02, 2014. To date, August 10, the government has not come to the fore. For further reading see http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/british-columbia/b-c-teachers-strike-bctf-recommends-accepting-6-year-deal-1.2767479.
The identification of this educationally vulnerable group, namely the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, is the aim of this research. In order to fulfil the aim and ensuing objectives, the following section explores, how the quest for equity and excellence, translates into an insurmountable challenge for educators from a moral, socio-cultural and linguistic perspective. A further challenge is the exploration of linguistic diversity and difference and their clarion call for a re-evaluation of the calibre and implementation of inclusive education policies as they pertain to classroom reality and a rapidly changing world follows.

2.7 Pedagogical disconnect in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms

2.7.1 Introduction

The ongoing quest for excellence in pedagogy, teaching and the provision of equal opportunities for all learners creates a monumental challenge for educators when considering globalisation and the attendant cultural and linguistic diversity. Miller (2009:10) notes that both learners and teachers “come from an extraordinary array of cultural and language backgrounds”, a critical reality, in contemporary education, resulting in challenges pertaining to educating large numbers of learners who do not speak the dominant language. The impact of linguistic diversity has ramifications across education related fields, inclusive of policy, curriculum, pedagogy, teacher education, teachers’ work and language education research (Gearon et al., 2009:3). The range of diversity poses a monumental and heretofore unexplored challenge for classroom and language teachers, specifically in countries such as Canada, Australia, UK and many European Union countries, where students from CALD backgrounds are exposed to the mainstream curriculum in a SL or third language. In addition, teacher educators in OECD countries go on to note that teacher education does not sufficiently prepare teachers to cope with diversity (UNESCO, Education for all global monitoring report, 2014:243) which substantiates Nieto’s (2006: 457-473; Nieto & Bode, 2012) notion that diversity and the attendant socio-political context of the school environment indicates the necessity for strong pedagogical principles to be fostered within the teaching profession. These complex cultural – linguistic realities which urge a re-evaluation of language teaching practices, literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home and curriculum “in a way that is responsive to difference” (Gearon, et al., 2009:3). Helle (2008:50-67) calls for a re-evaluation of cultural and linguistic resources for minority children from a pedagogical perspective, as a process oriented view of knowledge, culture and language. This will transfer the ideals of schools, curriculum planners and teachers from a ‘side show’ to an homogenised pedagogic practice (Smythe & Toohey, 2009:37-57). Far too often, the range of linguistic and cultural knowledge displayed by ELL’s can be recondite in a
discursive context where the ELL’s are identified as ‘problems’ to the school system and teachers (O’Connor, 2008:5).

The challenges are not insurmountable and provide the impetus for pedagogic innovation for the potential benefit of all learners. The ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home brings a unique contribution to the classroom, a set of learning resources and cultural tools - his/her ‘toolkit’. More specifically, in Heller’s (2008) framework, the ELL’s are multi competent, accompanied by cultural and linguistic resources, which should be regarded as the catalyst for re-evaluation of not only the ELL in the inclusive classroom but the curriculum and more importantly, a re-evaluation of the pedagogies, teaching practices and teaching standards pertaining to the vulnerable ELL’s specifically their LLP’s acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home. Nieto (2006:463) proposes amongst other qualities and values, a passion for social justice which embraces an ethical pedagogy. The passion for social justice, ethical pedagogy, empathy and the courage to challenge mainstream knowledge in pursuit of equity and excellence, in a policy climate that is characterised by a profound disrespect for ELL’s and for the teachers who work with them motivates the researcher and therefore informs this review.

2.7.2. Re booting ethical pedagogy

Professional ethics are understood as a set of moral directives that regulate the teaching profession, ranging from dress code, building trust and enacting the core values of professional practice such as integrity, respect and responsibility in one’s practice (Kostogriz, 2009:139). Education authorities assume that moral directives provide a safe haven for “actions in all situations” (Kostogriz, 2009:139). However, everyday realities fall beyond the loose abstract conceptualisation of the moral directive. For example the ELL’s acquiring literacy in an English medium classroom. Acceptance alone, in other words attitude toward difference which in itself is vapid in concept, does not create the critical ‘spaces’ (Kostogriz, 2009:140) necessary in order to infiltrate the pedagogy and are necessary to embrace the complex needs of the ELL’s within the classroom. A multitude of constraints limit the classroom teacher’s ability to address the needs of learners and their differences - Kostogriz’s ‘spaces’ - for the ELL’s; some of which are detailed in 2.6.3.1. In a global city such as Metro Vancouver, where diversity, linguistic diversity and a “meta cultural awareness” is palpably evident, an almost insurmountable challenge is to curriculum plan, devise and/or implement school and classroom policy and practices within an “impartial, neutral” and equitable mainframe (Rampton, 2001:15). “Solidarity, courage and heart” (Nieto, S. 2006:457) is the call attendant to, an enormous pressure and the beleaguered cry for re-evaluation, from the teaching profession (See 2.7.1). In reply to Gearon’s (2009) response to difference, “an education revolution”
in Australia (Kostogriz, 2009:132) is in progress. The Australian (Labour) Government has rejected the socio-economic and cultural differences of learners as the touted explanation of differences in academic outcomes and now looks to teacher quality as an influential factor (Gillard, 2008). This is a promising beginning. As a result, improving teaching standards in the area of languages is currently identified as a key issue and has been linked to the development of a National Curriculum (Kostogriz, 2009:138). In other words, this comprise analysing and reflecting upon the education system as a whole, re-evaluating pedagogy and implementing informed, viable remediation which speaks to the root of linguistic diversity, namely understanding and informed decision making specifically in the area of ELL’s acquiring literacy in the early years.

Ulrich Beck (1992:22-23) defined ‘a risk society’ (with reference to modernisation), as a society that is characterised by increasing uncertainties and in tandem with these uncertainties, social and cultural anxieties. ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home are risk oriented, simply through the uncertainties of globalisation, immigration, socio-cultural differences, academic outcomes and importantly, linguistic differences (deficits) in both community and school. Canadian cities are amongst the most ethnically diverse (See 2.5.1.3) facilitating the need for the re-evaluation of current teaching practices that continue to focus on the mainstream learners of yesteryear and their cultural literacy (Kostogriz, 2009:134). ‘Experimenting [with the] education” of our young learners from the “comfortable position of unaccountability” (Davidson, 2006:15) does not promote vigorous reflection and re-evaluation of teacher training and curriculum for all learners. Change is possible not only at national level as witnessed in the development of the National Curriculum in Australia (not continued by current government) but at the societal level too. Advocacy for teachers toward equitable compensation, support and respect for an extremely demanding profession, means committing the nation’s full economic and moral resources to the problem. A dogged determination toward improving education for all learners, and especially for those deemed to be high risk or at-risk, is required. More specifically, “teaching is not just about reading, or math or art. It is also about who is heard, listened to and read about, who gets to count, and who can paint the picture” (Nieto, 2006:472).

2.7.3 Transculturation – re-vision

A merging and converging of cultures, a current phenomenon in Canada, is neatly termed by Cuban anthropologist, Fernando Ortez, (1995:102) as transculturation. This relates to a “contact zone” (Kostogriz, 2009:146), not dissimilar to Mitchel’s, (2001:319; 2009:6) conflicting paradigms “where cultures meet, clash, and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power” (Pratt, 1998:173). In British Columbia, in the contact zone in the classroom, the merging
and conflicting paradigms disconnect and/or exercise a power play between the needs of the learners, teachers and the current pedagogy. In order to engage in a practical and positive discourse, where both learners and teachers become responsible, responsive and answerable to difference inclusive of linguistic and cultural difference, in pursuit of excellence and equity in attitude and practice, policy makers, education policy and curriculum writers will of necessity need to engage in a vigorous bottom up approach, where they will have the:

capacity to shunt between the local and the global, to explicate and engage with the broad flows of knowledge and information, technologies and populations, artefacts, and practices that characterise the present historical moment (Luke, 2004:1438).

To this end, there is a need to visualise new professional and policy planning bodies, which are empowered and motivated to engage across cultural borders, value accountability and take responsibility for “for the future of difference, by creating possibilities for transculturation in meaning making – where classrooms [become] events of hospitality” (Kostogriz, 2009:147). This will help create Kostogriz’s (2009) ‘spaces’ by eliminating exclusionary zones, micro or otherwise which currently exist in inclusive classrooms in British Columbia.

ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home straddle two cultures, their inherent culture and the culture of the society, community and classroom. Their language and literacy acquisition evolves within a conflict zone, as a distinct “new cultural semiotic” (Kostogriz, 2009:148) process by creating order from a multicultural and linguistic complexity within and beyond the classroom (Kostogriz, 2009:148). Therefore, the moral and professional ethics of English language and literacy pedagogy for the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home should be re-thought. Further, it should be considered whether exclusion is the unintended result of assimilation into the existing pedagogical framework.

Teachers make a difference and have the potential to change learners’ lives and as such, should be viewed as national treasures (Nieto, 2006:461). When teachers are empowered through knowledge, classroom support, leadership, administrative support and more broadly the education system, inclusive education for all learners can continue its evolutionary journey in the schools and classrooms of our communities (Crawford & Porter, 2004: 8-9). In a nutshell, UNESCO’s Education For All Global monitoring report (2014:217) views teacher quality as a national priority. “Strong national policies that make quality teaching and learning a high priority are essential to ensure all children in school actually obtain the skills and knowledge they are meant to acquire”.

In closing, it can be concluded that Naylor’s destination of full and pervasive inclusion will not soon be reached in British Columbia, unless there are fundamentally different approaches which begin
within government and ministry offices and focus on systemic support and effective teacher based knowledge mobilisation founded on learner’s needs. In the interim, the government actions that lead to reduced inclusion should be identified and those in government should be held accountable (Naylor, 2005:28).

The purpose of this section was to provide a review of the literature as it aligns to the overarching theoretical framework, namely Critical Theory, as it pertains to the inclusive education ideology with regard to globalisation, diversity, multiculturalism, culture, transculturation, inclusion, exclusion, language proficiency, and the pedagogical disconnect in the complex, dynamic, CALD classrooms of today. It sought to create a broad referential framework which serves as the contextual background, for the comparative discussion to follow on the development of monolinguals and ELL’s language proficiency and how language proficiency, informs and relates to literacy acquisition. Furthermore, the discussion isolates and explores the function of the LLP and how it ultimately informs and supports the acquisition of first time literacy and therefore its fundamental link to learning and positive academic outcomes. The centrality of language proficiency as it pertains to underlying successful literacy acquisition will now be outlined, further defining the platform for the comparative study between English speaking monolinguals and ELL’s.

2.8 The importance of deep linguistic proficiency as it pertains to literacy acquisition in both first and second language

2.8.1 Introduction

Evidence indicates that language skills or language proficiency are fundamental to literacy acquisition and intricately linked (Catts & Kamhi, 2005: xi; Scarborough, 2005:3; Nation, 2005:41; Wolf, 2007:85; Nevills & Wolf, 2009:46; Kaiser, et, al., 2011:153; Golinkoff & Hirsch-Pasek, 2011:49). Language acquisition and literacy are reciprocal, hierarchical and developmentally “normative processes in typical children” (Kaiser, et al., 2011:153) when supported by parents/adults language models and the broader community. Language and early literacy skills facilitate the interaction and participation embedded in language, thereby providing the “scaffold acquisition of the forms and functions of language” (Kaiser, et al., 2011:153) and are in tandem with Vygotsky’s sociocultural notion of mediation and scaffolding (See 2.2.4 & 2.3.2). Wolf (2007:19) furthers this discussion, by noting that children require “instructional environments that support all the circuit parts that need bolting for the brain to read”. Catts and Kamhi, (2005: ix) note that children without a robust set of language skills are at an increased risk of not learning to read. For example, ELL’s whose home
language environment, strongly influences the development of emergent literacy skills and ultimately literacy (Sammons, et al., 2011:72).

To this end, the researcher considers and evaluates language proficiency and literacy namely the LLP, through the exploration of the ELL’s disconnect more definitively, a language and literacy barrier to learning with regard to this vulnerable high risk community acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. This is a language and literacy barrier to learning, worthy of consideration as a special need with regard to access, participation and simultaneous language and literacy acquisition. The literature review in the previous section explored and contextualised the framework of the learner in inclusive British Columbia classrooms, with a view to learners’ rights from a social justice perspective within and under the overarching Critical Theory framework. The section to follow will focus on and expand the comparative language and literacy proficiency of the monolingual and ELL, as they pertain to first time literacy acquisition in K1, K2 and Grade 1. The discussion is presented from a language acquisition perspective within Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological System’s Theory the Dynamic System’s theory. The discussion briefly refers to Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory which is in essence broadly covered in the Dynamic System’s theory. The interconnectedness of the broader theoretical frameworks, namely, Critical Theory and Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Development theory, System’s theory, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and the ideology of inclusive education, will be elaborated upon. In particular, the exposition highlights how within these frameworks and the inclusive ideology, the divergence and the disconnect of the ELL acquiring first time literacy while simultaneously learning to speak English. The discussion is furthered to explore the meaning of language, the cultural influence on language and literacy acquisition, the benefits of first time literacy in the mother tongue, the language and literacy interlink, language proficiency and components of language and the elements of literacy. The aforementioned, is further considered within and from the SLA theoretical frameworks of Chomsky’s Universal Grammar Theory, Vygotsky’s Theory of Constructivism inclusive of his sociocultural theory and Krashen’s Input/Output hypothesis. In closing, the divergent and disconnected paths to first time literacy acquisition of the ELL compared to monolingual learners will be discussed within a SLA theoretical framework, thereby adding further delineation to the existing contextual framework of the study and in addition, further clarity for the comparative study of the LLP of the ELL to follow in Chapter 3.

2.9 Language and literacy culturally skewed

Ong (2002:37) noted that “voice is always the present calling into the past” a textual reference which can be applied to many aspects of humanity and in this instance, language and literacy
acquisition. Oral language has been part of human existence for over four million years, while literacy (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:345) is a relatively recent addition in that it has been in existence for four to five thousand years (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:8). “The human potential for language is based on human biology but makes requirements of the social environment to be realised” (Hoff, 2006:56). Language and subsequently literacy are therefore deeply rooted in culture, socialisation and in addition, are culture and socialisation specific, developmentally specific and in turn family specific, facilitating culturally rooted communication within the context of the family and broader society. Ethnicity, identity and language are intricately linked, are associated with specific cultures and groups and in addition culturally influence the thinking within that group (Lambert, 1973:1). Beginning in utero, infants hear and become familiar with the mother tongue. Infants progress through social interaction and mediation to the use of the mother tongue culturally imbued, culminating in a culture specific communication style, in order to survive and interact within and with the immediate family. To this end the reciprocal relationships established are necessary for optimal development, inclusive of linguistic development (Parlakian & Sanches, 2006:52), and ultimately literacy acquisition.

Cultural differences are evidenced in the integration of “talking, listening, writing, reading, acting, interacting, believing, valuing and feeling” (Gee, 2001:35). Mothers talk and gesture to their babies who in turn, smile coo and mimic the gestures (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:48), creating the social bonding necessary for language and subsequent literacy. Cultural differences are noted too in literacy acquisition. Cultural models handed down from generation to generation vary from family to family and within families, guided by the literacy exposure parents had when young (Paez, Bock & Pizzo, 2011:146). For example, a particular cultural model for literacy development might include “a bedtime story, reading for meaning, decoding words, memorizing vocabulary, retelling familiar narratives” (Reese & Gallimore, 2000:105). Language and literacy are complex, hierarchical, dynamic and constant processes: processes with documented milestones, which are dependent upon, and influenced by human biology (i.e., innate potential and environmental factors such as familial socialising and culture). Environmental and biological influences that introduce variance into the development and outcome of these skills. The diverse and therefore multidirectional nature of human biology, the environment and in this instance the cultural environment and family practices introduce variation in the developmental paths and outcomes of the learner as the learner acquires language and literacy inclusive of SL acquisition. Regardless of the variations from culture to culture, family to family, early language and literacy activities within families are constant in that they are complex, systematic, hierarchical, age related, socially driven, follow a specific time line and are crucial to positive language and literacy outcomes of learners (Wasik & Hendrickson, 2004:169).
Cultural difference in typical learners’ early language and literacy exposure impacts language and literacy skills (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:7).12

English language proficiency, whether acquired in a culturally synchronized environment in the case of the monolingual learner, whose English language acquisition begins in the womb; or as is the case with the ELL, whose English language acquisition begins upon entry to formal schooling at age five to six, within an environment that is culturally disconnected to the learner’s mother tongue or FL and the familial environment, is vital for successful literacy acquisition. More critical, however, proficiency that is substantiated by academic English such as, the ability to describe complex ideas, participate in higher order thinking processes and abstract thought, is vital for learning (Westby & Hwa-Froelich, 2010:205) and therefore literacy acquisition. In consideration of the cultural disconnect discussed, the LEP experienced by the ELL, the theoretical disconnect within the context of this research (See 2.2.3 and 2.2.4) which encompasses multiple factors both “endogenous and exogenous” (Westby & Hwa-Froelich, 2010:211) as contributing factors of successful acquisition of language and literacy, the discussion is furthered below. To this end, the benefits of first time literacy in a mother tongue, the interconnectivity of language and literacy, language proficiency, literacy acquisition and the complex symbiotic relationship between the two will be explored.

2.9.1 Benefits of first time literacy in a mother tongue

Language, is defined as “the system of human communication consisting of the structured arrangement of sounds (or the written representation) into larger units, for example, MORPHEMES, WORDS, SENTENCES UTTERANCES” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:313). The Program for International Student Assessment Australia (PISA, 2009:23) defines reading literacy as “understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one’s goals, to develop one’s knowledge and potential, and to participate in society”. English, is spoken in 112 countries as an official or major language (Lewis, 2009) with Canada, Australia New Zealand the US and the UK being identified as countries where English is a major or official language. They are also countries, with rapid immigration and therefore home, to many immigrants whose mother tongue is not English (Gunderson, Odo & D’ Silva, 2011:477). A mother tongue is typically a first language or language acquired in the home (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:377). A native language is a language acquired at home in early childhood as it is the language spoken in the home and by the family. The native language is often the first language a child acquires and the term is used synonymously with first language (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:386). For the purposes of this study, the term mother tongue is

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12Cultural difference focuses on appreciation of cultural diversity and not cultural deficit as noted by (Cole & Bruner, 1971:868).
used generically as referencing the first language acquired by a child. For clarity, the term SL is the language learned after one has learned one’s mother tongue and is the language required for survival in the society where the child/family lives (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:514). Acquiring literacy in a mother tongue is inherent in children’s predisposition for speech, an “ancient and fundamental communication bridge”, while exposure to rich language nurtures an appreciation and understanding of language, print and books in support of the process whereby children move from spoken language to an “understanding of symbolic written language”, termed emergent literacy (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:3). Typically, the young infant is nudged towards language proficiency and ultimately literacy in a familial social milieu, underpinned by ‘motherese’ or ‘parentese’ (a language perfectly suited to language development in the infant with its elongated vowels, repetitions, over pronounced syllables and modelling of the prosody and sound structure of the language) (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:48) and the rich world of Mother Goose nursery rhymes, a process essential to phonemic awareness (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:22). First language development and ultimately literacy is a predictable, social and hierarchical process, spanning from infancy to early childhood and beyond. Immigrants, on the other hand, residing in the ‘classical countries’ (See 2.5), appear to be at risk (Gunderson et. al., 2011:478), as the acquisition of English literacy skills are dependent on language are often learned simultaneously. This is likely one of the most difficult SL tasks (Gunderson, D’ Silva & Chen, 2010:13-24). Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological System’s Theory, the Dynamic System’s theory and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory neatly frame the social and hierarchical process for language and literacy acquisition.

The classroom reality for the ELL is exclusive, in that it creates and furthers the disconnect experienced by the ELL as he/she begins the acquisition of language and literacy simultaneously with regard to the five to six year gap/disconnect between the ELL and the English speaking monolingual. The reality of micro exclusion in the classroom, teacher preparedness, curriculum suitability, the insight and or knowledge of curriculum planners and policy makers as the ELL acquires language and literacy simultaneously in K1, K2, and Grade 1 brings to mind the blind man palpating an elephant in John Godfrey’s poem (The blind men and the elephant, 1873 – See Appendix D-1). The research pertaining to this phenomenon and its outcomes is sparse, not only on the acquisition of language and literacy but on the psychological effect of the young learner. The typical systematic and predictable path to language acquisition and literacy, in line with the theoretical frameworks outlined in this study and therefore successful academic outcomes are in question, with regard to the LLP of the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home.

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13 English speaking nations
Reading provides an excellent source of language stimulation, while acquisition of literacy including reading is reliant on the linguistic skills of the young learner (Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011:36). It is self-evident that difference in individual language skills translates into differences in literacy skills. It is therefore critical to comprehend the nature of variability in early language development and skills in order to develop effective strategies for improving learners’ readiness for literacy acquisition (Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011:36-7), specifically, with regard to the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a SL.

Early experience with language, develops vocabulary, promotes semantics and builds the foundation for literacy acquisition (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:3). There is little doubt that oral language skills are related to literacy (Gardner-Neblett & Iruka, 2015:889-904), and that in some learners, the inability to achieve literacy proficiency can be attributed to the lack of exposure to rich language, language patterns and literacy based interactions and resources during the early years (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000:3). Whether or not proficiency is obtained for typical developing learners, via exposure to language and the home environment, the biological makeup of the learner must also be considered. Genes are the building blocks of human development, while the environment is the ‘on-the-job foreman’ (Kotulak, 1997:4). With regard to the ELL, the environment is the home, classroom, school and community.

Literacy acquisition is a complex, cognitive activity that requires years for mastery and is reliant on numerous sensory, perceptual and linguistic abilities (Catts, Hogan & Adlof, 2005:25). Learning to read begins at birth and is dependent on well-developed language structures and life experiences (Nevills & Wolf 2009:46). Infants under twelve months know very few words if any, in the sense of ‘knowing a word’, which requires the knowledge of the sound form of the word, that is the sequence of the consonants and vowels which make up the word, its denotation and the semantic and syntactic properties of the word. The average infant is generally aware of several dozen such forms and utilizes this knowledge to determine aspects of the phonology of his/her mother tongue or first language (Swingley, 2005:87), ultimately resulting in “a developmental cascade [of language development] starting in infancy that contributes to building skills essential for language learning and later literacy” (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:3).

Infants begin to practice their mother tongue long before they begin to use word forms. They compute the frequency of the sounds that they are exposed to and the infant ear becomes attuned to these sounds which are reinforced by the social environment and motherese. This process begins in utero, when the foetus is able to hear the mother’s voice more audibly than other voices (Locke, 1994:436-445). This early exposure to the mother’s voice engenders a preference for the
mother tongue as evidenced in the study by Mehler and Christoph (1994: 13-20), where they found that French infants born to French mothers responded more favourably to the French language as opposed to Russian. Almost all human beings are ‘hardwired’ (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:7) for language acquisition, and will acquire language through exposure to language. However, reading or literacy acquisition is a language based skill, an acquired skill and not an innate skill (ibid). The general assumption is that in becoming literate, “we are “recruiting” pre-existing capabilities for new purposes” (Stone, 2004:13). Learners acquire literacy skills based on and relevant to a language foundation. It is therefore not unreasonable to expect that the proficiency of the literacy skills the learner develops is informed by the relative proficiency of all aspects of language (Nation, 2005:41). In this regard, learners’ with oral language impairments, language delays and difficulties (and or barriers such as ELL’s)’ are vulnerable, if not high risk for literacy acquisition difficulties (Snowling, 2005:55). It is time for the “dogmas of the past” (Abraham Lincoln, 1862), in other words, the current application to literacy acquisition for the ELL in the inclusive classroom to be vigorously reflected upon with focus on the needs of the vulnerable high risk ELL.

This section has briefly outlined the benefits of first time literacy acquisition in a mother tongue and how culture and language are embedded in and fundamental to the acquisition of first time literacy. Furthermore, it has introduced the multifaceted disconnect of the ELL in terms of the theoretical frameworks relative to this study, namely, the CT, from a social justice perspective, inclusion and a five to six year linguistic and literacy sociocultural disconnect. An expose on the language literacy connect as it is informed by predictable, societal and therefore cultural exposure and its criticality for literacy acquisition and positive academic outcomes.

2.10 The Language and literacy connect

Language is defined as the system of human communication (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:311) and consists of formal symbols and sounds, words and grammatical inflections and is used in unique and specific combinations to communicate human thought and emotion (Shatz & Wilkinson, 2010:50). Thus, wherever there are humans, there is language (Hoff, 2014:2). It is the ongoing cultural, socially based reciprocal interaction between mother/caregiver and infant. Language is a process which begins in utero (Locke, 1994:436-445; Nevills, 2009:47), continues in the neonate, is an ongoing developmental construct throughout adolescence and often continues in adult life. In the final trimester of pregnancy, the infant favours the mother’s voice above others. Nevills (2009:47) posits that this prenatal exposure predisposes the infant to a language preference or sensitivity. Prior to

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14 Throughout this study, the term ‘language impairment’ is used to reference learners whose language difficulties do not stem from mental retardation, sensory deficits or diagnosed emotional disturbance. The term is used synonymously with ‘specific language’ impairment that is LEP. In addition ‘child’ refers to pre kindergartner; young learner refers to a child under eight.
infants producing meaningful speech, they are attuned to the environment, preparing to and developing the ability to produce speech sounds (Oller, 2009:153), specifically the speech sounds relevant to the mother tongue.

The pre-linguistic speech sounds, such as reflexive crying and the vegetative sounds that accompany feeding, breathing, sucking and burping in the infant, cause the vocal cords to vibrate, allowing air to flow in and out of the vocal cords in physical preparation for future speech sounds (Hoff, 2014:116). During the first year, infants develop an ear which is sensitive to the sound patterns in the “ambient language” (Kuhl, 2004; Fernald & Weisleder, 2011:10) and are cognoscente of the speech patterns inherent in language structure (Saffran, 2003:110-114; Fernand & Weisler, 2011:3). By ten to fourteen months, associations of sound patterns with meaning are evidenced. Expressive vocabulary is now evident, while the recessive vocabulary continues to expand as the child/learner exhibits an understanding of many new words even if unable to express them at this stage. Understanding continues to increase and by the second year, verbal and behavioural responses to communication indicate further progress (Fernand & Weisler, 2011:10). At this time, typical learners have a vocabulary of 100-200 words and begin to form simple phrases referenced as telegraphic speech (Nevills, 2009:51). Simultaneously, experimental play with basic grammar rules and attendance to the sound patterns and the use of longer phrases is noted between twenty four and thirty months (ibid). Language learning is innate, is an instinct and is a “fundamental means of social interaction” (Elliot, 1999:352). Its development is predictable in typical learners while developmental efficacy is dependent on innate ability and the immediate care giving environment coined by Chomsky, as the ‘two factors’ (See 2.3.1). Thus a language rich home, where adults promote social interaction, language, communication and language play, promotes vocabulary growth (Hart & Risley, 2003:6-9) which in turn promotes the quality and quantity of early literacy experiences (Nevills, 2009:53).

It is well documented, that early language experiences and therefore early exposure to literacy are critically linked to efficacy in the development of the language skills necessary for reading and comprehension (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998, Beimiller & Boote, 2006:44; Nevills & Wolf, 2009:46). Fernald and Wesleder (2011:3) further the discussion in their assessment of early experience with language and how it promotes ‘fluency in understanding’, which is an additional factor in developing vocabulary and promoting literacy. Typically, by age five learners have acquired and are assumed to have language skills which will promote formal school entry and the process of acquiring first time literacy. The progression from orality to literacy is facilitated by oral language skills and emergent phonological processing abilities which are age appropriate (Poe, Burchinal & Roberts, 2004:315-332). Language acquisition is a fundamental process which prepares the learner within the security of a familiar cultural and social cradle for literacy acquisition. The hierarchical and systematic nature
of language and literacy acquisition, lies neatly within the overarching Dynamic System’s theoretical framework, Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system’s theory, and the sociocultural theoretical framework as it is developmentally typical and dependent on the environment and the social and cultural input of caregivers and or parents for optimisation and proficiency.

This section has briefly outlined the intricate association of the sociocultural aspect to language acquisition and development as they underpin literacy acquisition. A discussion of language proficiency, the components of language, and how they inform language skill and literacy acquisition in both monolinguals and ELL’s follows.

2.11 Language proficiency

Language proficiency is the degree of skill with which a learner can use a language inclusive of reading, writing, speaking and comprehension (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:321). In this instance, it refers to the complex network of acquired information such as word knowledge, expressive and recessive vocabulary, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and in addition the conceptual framework for pre reading posited by Clay (1963) as emergent literacy. Language proficiency, however, should not be confused with language achievement, which describes the learner’s ability with language as a result of learning and is measured by a proficiency assessment (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:321).

Learners acquire language for a wide variety of reasons inclusive of immigration and under varied circumstances. Many learners remain monolingual throughout childhood, while some acquire two languages from infancy and others are immigrants who replace a single FL with a SL (Kohnert & Pham, 2010:49). The focus of this study is on the ELL’s who acquire a single FL or mother tongue at birth and a SL not spoken at home at age five to six, as they enter formal schooling, with the expectation of simultaneously acquiring first time literacy while the use of the mother tongue in the home is maintained. Thus, circumstances are created not dissimilar to Ortez’s (1940) contact zone and Mitchell’s (2009) conflictive’ paradigms (See 2.7.3). A first language learner has the luxury of time and input and a five to six year head start in order to develop skills both cognitive and linguistic, which facilitate the learning of new concepts. This entails the construction of meaning and a world view neatly coined by Nevills and Wolf (2009:59) as a “thinking, problem solving, information receiving brain”. On the other hand, the ELL has all of the above in the acquisition of the FL. However, Plato’s (1941) and Descartes’ (1948) term of “poverty of stimulus” (Francis, 2012:10) adequately describes the five to six year language and literacy hiatus in the language not spoken at home for the ELL and as hypothesised in this study contributes to the disparity of the LLP between the English monolingual learner and the ELL.
2.11.1 Components and elements of language and how they relate to literacy acquisition

Language and literacy will be discussed simultaneously and componentially for ease of clarity and comparative purposes as they are intricately bound and difficult to address one without the other. Coltheart (2006:124) noted the need to investigate “individual components of the reading system” specifically, when investigating the causes of literacy gaps as is the instance in this study. Considering the centrality of language to literacy and the symbiotic relationship between language and literacy acquisition and the traditional componential break down of language for analysis and clarity with respect to developmental milestones, it makes sense to discuss both language and literacy from the same perspective. The discussion to follow is limited and relevant to a comparative discussion of the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home and the English monolingual acquiring first time literacy and their respective LLP’s. As such, the discussion is by no means a comprehensive expose of the deep and complex elements of language and literacy acquisition nor is it an in depth discussion on the developmental nuances of language acquisition. It is however, a discussion concerning the hierarchical and systematic development of language and literacy and how they relate to the theoretical frameworks discussed previously (See 2.2; 2.3).

The precise and intricate relationship of language and literacy remains elusive. Yet it is well known that learners with limited linguistic proficiency are at risk for seamless literacy acquisition and therefore, proficiency (Snowling, 2005:55; Spira, Bracken & Fischal, 2005:225; Paratore, Cassano & Scnikedanz, 2011:112). Limited language and literacy skills continue to place learners at risk for success in today’s information-based economy (Snow & Van Hemel, 2011:85). Early and enriched experience with language, from infancy throughout life, builds vocabulary, comprehension and therefore in typical learners, sustains hierarchical, developmental and sequential literacy acquisition. In this regard, an exploration of the components of language and how they feed literacy acquisition specifically relating to the ELL acquiring language and literacy simultaneously in a language other than that spoken at home, the relevant LLP’s, the five to six year gap and therefore the disconnect and micro exclusion of the ELL. The discussion focuses on the components of language (i.e., prosody, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics), how they support and sustain the elements of literacy acquisition, are critical to successful literacy acquisition, are linked to developmental milestones prior to and during the preschool years and finally how the development of language and literacy for the ELL relate to the SLA theoretical framework of the study.

2.11.1.1 Prosody

Prosody in the general sense is not a component of language but critical when searching for meaning in the spoken word and is briefly reviewed. Prosodic features are defined as “sound characteristics
which affect whole sequences of syllables. They may involve, for instance, the relative loudness or duration of syllables, changes in the pitch of a speakers’ voice and the choice of the pitch level” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:470). More succinctly put, they refer to the emotional undertones of speech such as intonation and rhythm, which in themselves bring meaning to the spoken word. Nevills (2009:49) notes that the prosodic cues bring greater meaning than the actual word itself and are recognised as early as three months (Jusczyk, 1999:323-328). The emotional language of parents, parentese, is laced with emotion, is central to interpersonal relationships (Cowie, Sussman & Ze-Ev, 2011:9-30) and recognised by its elongated vowels, repetition and over emphasised syllables, and, although global, is unique to individuals and cultures. A shared culture facilitates culturally weighted emotional communication and therefore understanding; cultural differences inhibit to some degree the extrication of true meaning based on emotional input (Soto and Levenson, 2009:874-884).

Cultural linguistic nuances or cultural prosody is a “language-related mechanism” (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:48), present at birth, sensitive to environmental stimulation, specifically the facial cues and voice intonation of the caregivers for maximum development. Cultural and linguistic norms are infused through immersion within a culturally steeped society and an enriched language environment which are inseparable (Francis, 2012:280). This is depicted in Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological System’s Theory, the Dynamic System’s theory and Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory where early systematic, hierarchical and socio cultural exposure is necessary for the development of prosody. The role of prosody in literacy acquisition and reading is addressed somewhat differently in that the ability to introduce prosody while reading is heavily reliant on sufficient language and emergent literacy development. Prosody when applied to reading usually refers to reading with expression or emotion which is attendant to fluency and meaning. In other words fluency is a prerequisite for interpretation and therefore comprehension of a sentence or passage (Daane, Campbell, Grigg, Goodman & Oranje, 2005:469), to this end, enabling emotive and emphatic reading. Prosody under these circumstances when the cues are not embedded graphically in the print, for example with an exclamation mark, but rather embedded in the meaning of the words or sentence resembles the pragmatics of speech, which is generally, an implied social and cultural construct that the reader brings to the text (Erekson, 2010:81). The ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, approaches literacy acquisition with a flawed toolkit, in other words a five to six year cultural and linguistically informed prosodic disconnect, when compared to the English speaking monolingual. There is evidence of a strong correlation between reading prosody in Grade 1 and Grade 2 and reading achievement and comprehension in Grade 3 (Miller & Schwanenvogel, 2008:336-354) and overall academic achievement. This begs the following questions. Firstly, how and when does the ELL close the linguistic and literacy gap and to this end,
bring parity to the respective LLP’s? Secondly, how is the acquisition of language and literacy simultaneously at age five to six, supported by the theoretical frameworks within which a systematic hierarchical and developmental acquisition of both language and literacy is framed? Fernald and Weisleder (2011:3) note that infants’ early experience with language inclusive of prosody and language manipulation, promotes fluency, understanding, vocabulary growth and therefore the foundation for later literacy which confirms the systematic and hierarchical process of language and literacy acquisition.

2.11.1.2 Phonology

Phonemics, or the preferred term phonology, is “the study or description of the distinctive sound units (phonemes) of a language and their relationship to one another” (Richards & Schmidt. 2010:433). Phonics is a method of teaching young learners to read particularly in the mother tongue. Young learners are taught to recognise the relationships between the sounds of the language and the graphic representation of the alphabet. Sounds acquired within the first year of life are applied to the acquisition of literacy, again highlighting the language literacy link and the systematic hierarchical development of both in addition to the five to six year disconnect of the ELL.

During the first year of life, infants develop and refine an acute awareness of the sounds and sound structure in the ambient language (Kuhl, 2004:831-843; Saffron, 2003:110-114; Ferdinald & Weisleder, 2011:11). The infant is a devoted listener, able to analyse the phonemic features of speech and attempts to produce frequently heard sounds and sound patterns, referenced as babble. By ten to fourteen months, typical toddlers manifest an understanding of sound patterns associated with meaning and the beginnings of the expressive vocabulary emerge (Ferdinald & Weislander, 2011:11) all the while, enlarging their receptive vocabulary. Toddlers delight in distinguishing between sounds that are similar and those which are dissimilar as evidenced in the repetition patterns, and the differences and similarities in the sound and rhythm of nursery rhymes (Woolfolk, 2008).

Phonological awareness, the understanding of the sound structure of spoken language inclusive of the awareness of syllables, rhyme and phonemes (the smallest unit of sound) is critical for literacy acquisition, in that learners need to be able to identify the graphic representation of the phoneme (Gillon, 2004:4; Gillon, Mc Neil, van Bysterveldt, Carroll & Carson, 2012:75; Paris, 2011:232) in order to establish the letter sound recognition essential for literacy acquisition. It has long been thought that phonological awareness is generally, a consequence of reading instruction which would bode well for the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. However, this is not the case, more recent research, suggests that phonological awareness “is a skill that is
acquired during the preschool period, prior to formal reading instruction” (Lonnigan, 2007:21). Phonological awareness is ‘scaffolded’ by the learners’ vocabulary, which in turn, is dependent on the home language environment for stimulus and development. Paris (2011:238-239) furthers the notion that phonological awareness is a salient beacon amongst the early reading skills, when predicting reading success for learners. The ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, is simultaneously acquiring English and therefore, has a limited receptive and expressive vocabulary on which to scaffold the phonological awareness necessary for literacy acquisition revealing a barrier to literacy acquisition founded on LEP.

2.11.1.3 Morphology
A morpheme is defined as the smallest meaningful unit in a language (Richards and Schmidt, 2009:375). Units are made up of phonemes ordered in a manner to create meaning. Morphology is the study of the language of words and how they are ordered to create meaning (Nevills & Wolf, 2009:184). Morphological awareness is the learner’s “conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect or manipulate that structure” (Carlisle, 1995:194). The role of phonology and therefore vocabulary is essential for morphological learning (Carlisle, 2004:324) in that learners’ morpheme awareness is derived from placing related phonemes sequentially, while incorporating semantic and grammatical information at the word and sub word levels. In other words, the components of language phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics, combine to bring meaning and expression to the learner. Paris, (2011:238) substantiates the aforementioned, noting that there is a high correlation between literacy (reading skills) and knowledge in the early stages poignantly noting that relations can be sequential, bootstrapped or co-dependent, a veritable spider’s web. Recognising morphemes in words and understanding the word formation processes begins during the preschool years when the typical learner begins four word utterances (Clark, 1982:390-425). Morphemes themselves are categorised, varied and complex and are not detailed in this section. However morphemes from an analytical comparative perspective, namely Brown’s (1973) five Stages, are discussed. Brown’s five stages provide a framework within which to predict the progress that typical language development makes in terms of morphology and syntax and therefore provides an adequate comparative forum with regard to ELL’s and their attendant LLP’s.

Brown introduced the mean length of utterance (MLU), which is a measure of the complexity of learners’ utterances, specifically, during the initial stages of first language acquisition. It is measured by counting the average length of utterances a learner produces, using the morpheme as opposed to the word as the unit of measurement (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:356). A sample of the learner’s
utterances is taken, analysed, by counting the number of utterances within the utterance, counting the number of morphemes, and, then dividing the number of morphemes by the number of utterances, which is then referred to as the MLU. The MLU indicates the developmental progress of the learners’ related expressive vocabulary and is tabulated in stages.

Stage 1 covers ages fifteen months to thirty months where typical toddlers are expected to have a MLU of 1.75 based on an expressive vocabulary which typically consists of 50 to 60 words. The MLU increases as expressive vocabulary increases. By stage 5, the learner is 42-52 months or four to five years old and is typically expected to have an MLU of 4.0. Typical Grade 1 learners have approximately 13,000 words at their disposal (Pinker, 1997) and an MLU of 4.0, use complex sentences and are able to communicate both their social and personal needs and in addition, are able to fully immerse themselves in the social milieu of the classroom and access the curriculum.

Language and literacy acquisition are dependent on a miasma of multifaceted environmental and individual factors inclusive of phonology and morphological awareness and are unique to each individual (Westby & Hwa-Froelich, 2010:198), facilitate access to the curriculum, the sociocultural requirements of the school and classroom, and the regular classroom activities. It is therefore crucial that educators address the unique and specific needs of the ELL’s LLP when preparing learners for literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home (i.e., addressing the five to six year gap in morphological awareness of the ELL as he/she is expected to acquire literacy in a SL). This complies with the theoretical frameworks informing this research, (2.2.2; 2.2.3; 2.2.4) as the needs of this vulnerable high risk population are addressed.

2.11.1.4 Syntax

Phonology, morphology, lexicon and semantics are components of the grammar of language, with syntax, the major component of the grammar of a language. Syntax, “concerns the way in which words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:579). Syntax, therefore brings order and meaning to a sentence, is developmental, functions subconsciously, and is reliant on input for development (Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011:45). Pinker (1997) noted that parentease (See 2.9.1), has been found to be more grammatically correct than normal speech and it is common in all cultures (Pence and Justice, 2008, as cited in Nevills & Wolf, 2009:48). Gopnik, Mettlovzoff & Kuhl, (2001:122-128) note the symbiotic relationship of parent/caregiver and infant, as the mysteries of language are shared akin to Vygotsky’s MKO (See 2.2.4; 2.3.2), who introduces and scaffolds the system of language to the infant in the unique parentease of the home and language of the home and with a distinct cultural delivery.
Psychological and educational research indicates that learners’ language variability is rooted in part by environmental variability, in addition to innate ability; Vasileyeva and Waterfall (2011:45) note that parental/caregiver speech in the first years, promotes the later development of syntax, which by the end of the preschool school year is adult like (Stevens, 2011:19). Syntactic knowledge boosts vocabulary growth as learners apply syntactic clues to retrieve meaning from words (Dickinson, Freiberg and Barnes, 2011:340) and vocabulary growth in turn promotes phonological awareness. Again, the five to six year disconnect of the ELL is apparent when ordering a language for meaning.

2.11.1.5 Vocabulary, lexicon development and academic outcome

It is virtually impossible, to understand text without a working word knowledge, or vocabulary of the words contained in that passage. To this end, vocabulary is a critical component for language and literacy. Nor is it possible, to produce age appropriate comprehensible language without a viable, developmentally appropriate receptive and expressive vocabulary and lexicon. Vocabulary refers to a set of lexemes including single words (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:629) pertaining to a particular language and in this instance, the “body of words available to [a learner] an individual” (Oxford Dictionaries). A lexicon concerns the mental system which contains all the information about the words known by the learner: knowing the word or word knowledge, how it is pronounced and the meaning of the word (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:339). Over the decades, well established research has been undertaken concerning English speakers and vocabulary (Beimiller, 2004:28-40; Dickinson et al., 2011:354) indicating its criticality for further language and literacy development. Gaps in reading are associated with gaps in vocabulary and lexicon knowledge (Carlo, August, Mc Laughlin, Snow, Dressler, Lipman, Livley & White, 2004:188-215).

Where does the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home stand, when vocabulary and lexicon development is essential for furthering language development and literacy acquisition? Upon entering the Grade 1 classroom at age five to six, a typical English speaker will have a vocabulary of 13,000 words, a K1 and K2 learner 4,000 to 6,000 words (Nevills, 2009: 62), acquired systematically within a five to six year time frame. At this time the learner is enthralled at the prospect of becoming a reader and actively pursues this. The young learner enjoys listening to, participating with, discussing stories that are read, telling stories, thus furthering vocabulary development. Early literacy or emergent literacy is evidenced in young learners with the identification of familiar signs and labels and a general understanding that letters and print have meaning.

Words which inform the vocabulary and lexicon are distinct phonological and orthographic forms that refer to “objects, actions, qualities of objects and relation among objects and events” (Kaiser et
al., 2011:154) and are infused into the world of the infant from birth. The first principle of language, name giving (Wolf, 2007:83), is pivotal in early language acquisition and learned in the arms of a parent or caregiver as they point at an object, name it and discuss its attributes. The process concerns listening, processing, conceptualising, organising language and producing language within the social context (Chomsky, 1955:114). Vocabulary acquisition and lexicon development form part of the learners’ psychological developmental processes and is referred to by Chomsky as ‘learning’ (1955:56). Vygotsky notes language as a “powerful psychological tool” which informs thinking processes and furthers cognitive and social development which in turn facilitates participation within the social and environmental contexts promoting further development. Harris, et al., (2011:59) further the notion, stating that it plays a central role in cognitive development and therefore literacy acquisition and learning. Vocabulary is constructed over time, built on prior knowledge, is developmental and is reliant on the input of parents/caregivers. Or, as stated by Nagy and Scott (2000: 269-284), vocabulary growth is gradient, multidimensional, multi-layered, interrelated and heterogeneous. It is seen as one element of the language system (Harris, et al., 2011:59) and is discussed in terms of breadth, how many words are known, and depth, what is known about the word (Beck et al., 2013). Vocabulary growth is a continuous process, as labels, meanings, use of words and world knowledge inform lexicon growth in typical development. Lexicon acquisition is evidenced as early as five to seven months of age and similar to vocabulary development, is systematic, hierarchical, developmentally aligned and requires exposure to words in a meaningful context (McGregor, 2004: 304-307). There are, however, marked differences in learners’ lexical knowledge (Hart & Risley, 1995) in other words, how words are used, the relationship between words and word association. The depth of semantic lexical knowledge, as “manifested in well established, semantic networks” influences reading ability (McGregor, 2004: 308) and further language acquisition. This is particularly poignant for the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. Vocabulary knowledge is linked to reading comprehension (Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2010:701-711) and literacy acquisition, while lexical knowledge, the knowledge of individual word meanings, how they are used and associated meanings contribute to reading acquisition and outcomes (McGregor,2004: 312). It is however, not clear as to which components of lexical processing underlie this complex relationship which prompts McGregor to urge for further exploration within the classroom and the research laboratory. An understanding, of how vocabulary and lexicon development are nurtured and in turn influence reading acquisition and ultimately comprehension, is critical when curricula planning for minority learners who are at risk and are acquiring literacy with at best a limited vocabulary and therefore lexicon.
2.11.1.6 Comprehension semantics and pragmatics

Comprehension is the ability to pursue and lock onto the intended meaning of the written or spoken communication. It is an active process, reliant on the information inherent in the message in addition to background knowledge, context and the intended purpose of the listener and speaker (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 109). In addition and relevant to the ELL, viable comprehension is in part reliant on familiarity with the cultural context of the target language. Badal (2013:v) notes that inadequate exposure to a language, as is the case with ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, affects text comprehension and furthermore adversely affects learner engagement and understanding of “critical pragmatic elements of the text such as idioms, metaphors and other cultural references”. Semantics is the study of meaning, meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and text as ‘reflective’ of the learner’s background knowledge and experience (Nevills, 2009:186) and facilitates grammatical analysis (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:520).

It follows that the foundation for reading comprehension is embedded in the oral language and semantic processing of the learner (Nation & Snowling, 1998:88; Kaiser et al., 2011:153). The comprehension of individual words or word combinations and semantics are the fundamental prerequisite for the development of reading (Snowling, 2005:60). A developmentally appropriate vocabulary and an attendant knowledge of syntax as a rule based system is therefore necessary for comprehension of meaning (Kaiser, et al., 2011:155). Furthermore, the FL learners’ information processing abilities are typically faster and higher functioning on the cognitively demanding axis and on the context support axis in FL, facilitating meaning and understanding in decontextualized tasks (Francis, 2012:73). For example, the simple request by the classroom teacher “to drop cover and hold” (used for earthquake preparedness) for typical FL five to six year olds is not complex; however for a SL learner, it is not sufficiently detailed nor contextualised for immediate and seamless understanding. From the psycholinguistic perspective, the processing of the aforementioned request if it were in a text, is achieved through semantic priming, when the target word is preceded or followed by a semantically related word and is more critical, when reading a text as words are abstract. Connections in the mental lexicon develop from context bound associations into abstract, semantic relationships and therefore are associative and semantic (contain meaning). A Young learner’s lexicon develops systematically, is hierarchical, gradual and is formed by the exposure to language and context over time (Frishkoff, Perfetti & Collins-Thompson, 2011 71-91) connecting the semantic networks which are necessary for the semantic priming to follow. Semantic priming has been shown to be connected to young learners’ semantic networks which develop throughout the preschool years and beyond (Nakamura, Ohta, Okita, Ozaki & Matsushima, 2006:232-239).
Interlanguage pragmatics and therefore the cultural influence on pragmatics has over the past decade developed into an increasingly popular field of research. This is currently of relevance in SL acquisition (Cohen, 2012:33). It is briefly touched upon below with regard to exposure, development and ELL’s.

Pragmatics relates to the ability of both speaker and listener to construct and negotiate meaning within the sociocultural context (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010:5) and is evidenced within the social functions of speech and or negotiation, for example, making requests, apologising and thanking amongst others. Speech acts are one of the many sub sections which fall under the rubric pragmatics and are the only aspect referenced in this discussion as they pertain to the ELL acquiring language and literacy simultaneously. Social functions differ from culture to culture, sub culture to sub culture (Cohen, 2012:33) and are unique to communities, families and individuals. In this regard, Ninio and Snow (1996:222) note that linguistic pragmatics, relate to and influence aspects of language acquisition and development, social development and the integration into one’s culture. As early as 1974, Dore proposed that the learner (child) developed pragmatic knowledge prior to acquiring sentient structures, namely “primitive speech acts” (Dore, 1974:344). Gard, Gillman and Gorman’s, (1993) speech and language development chart show pragmatic development at the pre-locutional – pre-intentional stage (zero to eight months) as the infant smiles when attended to; the child responds when narratives are ‘chains’ of unfocused sequences of events, which may have some plot, no central character and no high point or resolution, at and about at 48 to 60 months.

The intricate tryst of word knowledge, comprehension, semantics and pragmatics functioning in harmony in the pursuit of meaning and development bolsters language development and subsequent literacy development. They are hierarchical, systematic, gradual in nature and are reliant on the multiple elements and components aforementioned for their development as they serve the cognitive development of the learner and therefore facilitate literacy acquisition.

In closing, The Dynamic systems theory of language learning which generally encompass the main tenets in Chomsky’s UG theory, Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological system’s theory, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory, Krashen’s Input/Output hypothesis (i.e., language and literacy acquisition are systematic, developmental, hierarchical, and are reliant on multifaceted factors within the environment and innately within the learner) comprehensively account for the language and literacy acquisition of young learners. In this context, the ELL’s LLP disparity is examined. As argued, ELL’s have a five to six year disconnect or deficit in acquiring English, the medium in which they are expected to acquire literacy. They typically acquire their SL at a ‘normal’ rate but the language skills are neither sufficient nor of the calibre required for literacy acquisition and are not comparable to
younger learners, whose FL is English. The ELL’s SL can be deemed delayed in terms of FL acquisition with regard to sufficient ‘time exposure’ to acquire the SL (Westby & Hwa-Froelich, 2011:199). The challenge faced by typical ELL’s is time and exposure, the old maxim “less contact, less learning” (Gas & Selinker, 2001:333 cited in Carhill et al., 2008:1159) rings true. Environmental exposure with regard to ELL’s in this study pertains to the home, school, classroom, curriculum and the micro exclusion resulting from the LEP inherent in ELL’s, which all influence the acquisition of the SL and first time literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

Language proficiency begins in the womb where the infant responds to the ‘music of language’ or prosody (Kahn, 2013), ballooning in the preschool years and is linked to emergent literacy and literacy acquisition by “strong bidirectional ties” (Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011:36). Following the described ‘poverty of (language and literacy) stimulus’ of the ELL compared to the typical monolingual learner, namely, the five to six year disconnect, and the determined, focused divergence from the theoretical frameworks outlined in this study, the question must be asked: is the ‘source and nature” (Gearon, et al., 2009:12) of the language and literacy reality of the ELL in K1, K2 and the Grade 1 classroom being overlooked? Equally, is the responsibility to accommodate all learners by addressing their needs and removing barriers to participation and therefore learning being upheld?

2.12 Literacy averse minority learners

The link between language development and literacy acquisition and positive academic outcome is clearly evident (Snow et al., 2007; Kaiser et al., 2011:168; Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011:36). With regard to the ELL, Francis (2012:27) notes that exclusionary language policies consistently promote language and literacy development that is not analogous with monolingual learners and in this regard, inhibit literacy acquisition and academic achievement. Language skills in the K1 and K2 and Grade 1 years are fundamental to learners’ emerging literacy skills (Dickinson, et al., 2011:340). Metsala (2011:66-77) broadens the discussion, noting that phonemic awareness is a typical follow on, as the vocabulary develops facilitating the recognition and manipulation of the sounds of language (Munson, Kurt and Windsor, 2005:1033-1047). Phonemic awareness is systematic (See 2.11), hierarchical, founded on vocabulary development, informs morphological awareness and a critical element for literacy acquisition and is a salient beacon for literacy acquisition outcome. Vocabulary development in and of itself is therefore, a catalyst for further vocabulary development as word acquisition is facilitated when new words are similar to those in the learners’ existing lexicon (Storkel, 2003:1312-1323). Hand in hand with vocabulary acquisition, syntactic knowledge.
develops and aids the ability to pursue new word meaning (Harris, et al., 2011:58). In consideration of Francis’ (2012:27) exclusionary language policies, ELL’s with LEP manifest a vocabulary deficit, and therefore limited syntactic knowledge, morphological awareness required for skilled reading (Nation, Clarke, Marshal & Durand, 2004:199-211) and to this end, struggle, as they wrestle with meaning retrieval, acquiring new words (Kemp, Lieven & Tomasello, 2005:592-609), vocabulary development and literacy acquisition. The intricate complexities, dependencies and self-regulating perspectives of early language acquisition and how they affect further language development and therefore literacy acquisition, is clearly established (Harris, et al., 2011:59). The teleological implications of ‘time exposure’ and systematic development related to language acquisition, further development of language and literacy acquisition through complex and varied pathways, that “affect [the] multiple emerging capacities that underpin reading” (Dickinson et al., 2011:341), is the essence of this study with regard to the ELL’s and their LLP’s as they embark on literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home. The study marks the disconnect from a social justice perspective pertaining to CT, a rights perspective pertaining to inclusion and a five to six year disconnect pertaining to the socio cultural environment and a radical disconnect with the theoretical frameworks and their principles discussed in 2.2.2. The discussion begins with Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system’s theory, where the learner is considered as “developing within a complex system of relationships”, the Dynamic System’s theory, where language and literacy development is dynamic, hierarchical, and a reciprocal process and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory which specifically focuses on the social and cultural aspects of development and how they influence both language and literacy acquisition. The SLA theoretical frameworks (See 2.3) too highlight the disconnect, noting the interplay of Chomsky’s ‘two factors’, namely, biological and the environment which create the framework for language development. Vygotsky notes the most critical prerequisite for learning and language resides within the learner and the social and cultural contexts, is constructivist in nature and dependent on mediation, scaffolding and a MKO. Krashen views language acquisition, as a series of sub processes. The fracturing of the order of acquisition for ELL’s in inclusive classrooms informs the LLP. The Cito study (2002) in the Netherlands notes that immigrant learners in grades one to three with a home language other than Dutch manifest substantial delays in listening comprehension, word meaning, word association and in reading comprehension which are difficult to overcome (Biemiller, 2005:223-242). This evidence adds support to the need for the systematic, sequential and hierarchical processes necessary for viable language and literacy acquisition. The disconnect argued is graphically depicted in Figure 2.6 below.
The ELL, acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home, speaks to the primary objective of this study, which is to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and vulnerable educational minority through the identification of their LLP; thereby highlighting the disconnect, when preparing the ELL for literacy acquisition in English in the current inclusive classroom. The current curriculum and classroom practices, deliver what Robinson (2010) references as a “fast food education’. First time literacy acquisition, in a language other than that spoken at home beginning with a five to six year disconnect, is merely a vapid, recondite process. The discussion on language acquisition aimed to contextualise the ELL, the process of simultaneous language and first time literacy acquisition, the resultant LLP is underpinned by and interlinked to the relevant theoretical frameworks and their principles as argued. This provides a platform to further analyse, interpret and examine the disconnect of the ELL in an inclusive classroom acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. Aligned with the CT framework (See 2.2.1), insight, the motivation for positive change, social justice for an at risk minority group in addition to the ‘magic’ referenced
by Wolf in the quote to follow “How a child learns to read is a tale of either magic and fairies or missed chances and unnecessary loss” (Wolf, 2007:82) is equally envisioned as a forum for providing further analysis.

This section has outlined the language and literacy acquisition process during the early years, highlighting the environment, time, language and literacy disconnect experienced by the ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. It has argued the disparity between the ELL’s LLP’s when compared to the English speaking monolinguals LLP’s. To follow the conclusion to Chapter 2 and the literature review followed by the introduction to the research methodology.

2.13 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a review of the literature with regard to the learner in the inclusive British Columbia classroom from a demographic and geographic perspective, as it relates to ELL’s. The discussion is furthered by a selective discussion on the comparative language and literacy proficiency of the English monolinguals and ELL’s, inclusive of the components and elements of language and literacy and as they pertain to first time literacy acquisition in K1, K2, and Grade 1. It also sought to highlight the disparity and divergence and therefore the disconnect between English monolingual learners and ELL’s LLP’s as they acquire language and literacy simultaneously. The discussion is founded on the noted theoretical frameworks which frame the disconnect of the ELL’s and their attending LLP’s. The theoretical frameworks relate to social justice, inclusivity, child development, language and literacy development, are learner centred and focus on the issue of the systematic and hierarchical development of language and literacy acquisition. Each theoretical framework is discussed with regard to the background and principles which pertain to the ELL and their LLP’s.

The exploration of parental language skills from a cultural and social perspective were in addition briefly referred to, as they relate to a MKO assisting the learners in language and literacy acquisition. In this light, the exploration of the posited LLP of ELL’s acquiring literacy for the first time is critical, if the expectation of the ELL is to acquire language and literacy simultaneously in an inclusive classroom. If the long term goal of literacy acquisition goes beyond reading writing and mathematics, the three R’s form the foundation for the systematic and hierarchical furthering of knowledge, skills and technological skills that will support and are required for lifelong learning, problem solving, decision making and the preparation of the learners for functionality in the adult world. If this is indeed the expectation, the “dogmas of the quiet past” are no longer adequate, and in keeping with the Critical theoretical framework which overarches this study, we must reflect,
‘think anew, and act anew”. The nature and severity of ELL’s disconnect has been outlined when compared to their English monolingual peers and the conclusion drawn that there is a need to rethink the injustice of the present expectation placed on the ELL’s which hinders the ELL’s ability to acquire language proficiency and literacy with a compromised LLP and therefore positive academic outcomes. In Wittgenstein’s (1922:5.6) words, “the limits of my language mean the limits of my world”.

Chapter three will describe the research methodology, the design type and the instruments as well as subjects and data collection. In addition, the measuring instruments will be discussed and their reliability and validity for assessing specific variables will be established. The techniques used to collect basic data and the method of data analysis will also be discussed in Chapter three.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

*Reality isn’t the way you wish things to be, nor the way they appear to be, but the way they actually are*  
(Robert J. Ringer American entrepreneur and author)

3.1 Introduction

In support of the research aim, purpose of the study and research question, Chapter 3 details and justifies the research methodology and design applied to the study as referenced in Chapter 1. Chapter 3 is additionally informed by the theoretical and literature review (See chapter 2) which provides a framework for the research data collection. A Pragmatic paradigm (See 3.2.2.1) and a mixed methods approach and therefore mixed methods research design inform the research framework for this study. The objectives (See 1.5) of the study are met via a comparative complementary study between English monolinguals and ELL respondents consisting of background profiles, and the evaluation of their first time language and literacy acquisition. Language and literacy acquisition are evaluated against the following variables identified in Chapter 1 namely:


b) *Rhyme Knowledge* – a) indicate whether two words rhyme b) identify the word which does not rhyme c) produce a word that rhymes with a stimulus word d) produce words that rhyme from a story format.

c) *Basic Concepts* – concepts of size, number, location, shape, position and comparison.

d) *Receptive Vocabulary* – referential meaning of increasingly difficult nouns and verbs.

e) *Parallel Sentence Production* – evaluates production of grammatical morphemes and syntactic structures.

f) *Elision* - manipulation of syllables and sounds.

g) *Word Relationships* – identify and express shared meanings or similarities between two words.

h) *Phonics Knowledge* – a) sound the letter makes b) sound a group of letters make c) sound out nonsense words.

i) *Sound Categorisation* – assess the ability to recognize the singleton or cluster in a word.
j) **Sight Word Recognition** – read a list of words that become increasingly difficult due to frequency in learners’ literature.

k) **Listening Comprehension** – understanding of stories of increasing length and complexity.

In addition, the chapter elaborates on aspects of evaluation, validity, reliability and triangulation with the purpose of controlling and minimising experimental error. The discussion of the role of the researcher as the “human instrument” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:187) will be furthered. The final section elaborates upon the ethical considerations for the study and details how they were applied within the context of mixed methods research.

The purpose and motivation of the study (See 1.3; 1.9) was the need to highlight and identify the struggle of the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, in an inclusive classroom from a rights based perspective. In so doing, further the ideals of inclusive education by highlighting the needs of the ELL’s namely, the requisite support services necessary for acquiring language and literacy in the inclusive environment. The Simon Fraser on line Ed Review (2012:1) notes that “ESL student voices are neither adequately heard nor reflected in the discussion of ESL education”. To this end, the research methodology is detailed below.

### 3.2 The Research methodology

#### 3.2.1 Introduction

Slife and Williams (1995) note that philosophical notions tend to remain elusive in research, while Hesse-Biber (2012:13) states that researchers’ “paradigmatic worldviews” are at times a conscious choice and at others, they remain “implicit”. In this regard, the research paradigm is outlined, as it informs the research practice for the current study and is a conscious choice. Paradigms inform world views beginning with a set of assumptions which result in research. There are four dominant paradigms in educational research namely, post positivist, constructivist and more recently, the transformative and pragmatic paradigms (Mertens, 2005:6). It is however, not within the scope of the current study to discuss the four paradigms in detail. The study will reference the post positivistic and constructivist paradigms, while focusing on the pragmatic paradigm which has generally become the paradigm of choice for mixed methods research (Morgan, 2007:73; Creswell, 2014:10).

#### 3.2.1.1 Research Paradigm

Kuhn, (1999:5) referenced ‘normal science’ as research based on one or more scientific achievements; “achievements, that a particular scientific community acknowledges for a time, as
supplying the foundation for its “further practice”. He furthers the notion, noting that the achievements are of such significance, that they attract and polarise an “enduring group of adherents” while simultaneously, are “sufficiently open ended to leave all sorts of problems for the redefined group of practitioners to resolve” (ibid). Achievements which uphold the two characteristics, Kuhn termed paradigms, a term closely related to ‘normal science’. Gorard, (2012:243) furthers the discussion defining the notion of a paradigm within the social and behavioural sciences as a “description of the set of assumptions that tend to appear in “normal science”. A paradigm is therefore a basic set of principles that “guide action” (Guba, 1990:17) in resolving a series of ‘puzzles’ or a scientific question that is open to a probable solution in time (Davis, 1994:179). Morgan’s (2007:50) definition brings further clarity, “a shared belief system that influences the kinds of knowledge researchers seek and how they interpret the evidence they collect”. To this end, the researcher deems the theoretical paradigms and the literature review explored in Chapter 2 as significant, in that they inform “further practice” (Kuhn, 1999:10) and as such, are drawn upon to inform the choice of paradigm selected for the study in order to resolve the ‘puzzle’ under discussion, namely the at risk educational minority acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

The current research study falls within the pragmatic paradigm (See 1.7) derived from the early work of Peirce, James, Mead and Dewey (Cherryholmes, 1992: 13-17), who rejected the notion, that the behavioural and social sciences were able to determine the ‘truth’ about the real world with the use of a single method (Mertens, 2010:35) and is echoed by Patton (1990). Pragmatism is not defined by one rigid philosophy or reality, rather a malleable philosophy, informed by “actions (inclusive education), situations (Ell’s within the inclusive classroom) and consequences (ELL’s ‘at risk by virtue of their LLP’s”) (Creswell, 2009:10), as opposed to a priori events. As such, allowing the researcher to incorporate “multiple methods, different world views and different assumptions as well as different forms of data collection and analysis in a mixed methods study” (Creswell, 2003:12; Patton, 2002:71). Pragmatism follows a “logic of enquiry” (Onwuegbuzie, 2004) applied to problem solving and commands the use of multiple methods for the “practical purposes of induction, deduction and abduction” (Morgan, 2007:71; Green & Hall, 2010:131; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:6). Rossman and Wilson (1985:627-643), the first initiators associating pragmatism with mixed methods research (Creswell, 2009:10) emphasised the need to focus on the research problem rather than the method in pursuit of “what works” (Cherryholmes, 1992) and substantiated by Patton (2002:71); Morgan (2007: 48-76) and Creswell (2009:10). Pragmatists concur that pursuit of the “truth” and knowledge in the “real world” (Feilizer, 2010:8) is attainable through “pluralistic approaches” (Creswell, ibid.) while pursuing practical issues of “methodological appropriateness”
(Patton, 2002:72) with the use of “common sense and practical thinking” (Mertens, 2005:26). Pragmatism provides the theoretical basis for the pluralistic mixed methods approach applied in this study and to this end facilitates the pursuit of truth (the behaviour and beliefs) (Mertens, 2015:36) and therefore construct new knowledge pertaining to the ELL’s. To this end, the researcher is able to gather spectator knowledge (Quintin, 2010:9) relevant to the unique reality of the ELL’s, their proposed educational risk and the viability of their LLP’s in the inclusive classroom. In so doing, a constructivist perspective (qualitative) contextualises the lived lives of the ELL’s and an interpretive perspective (quantitative), addresses the research question (See 1.5) from a statistical perspective attending to Creswell’s pluralistic approach.

Guba and Lincoln (1989-2005) identified four fundamental belief systems that define a research paradigm, namely axiological beliefs, concerned with values and ethics, ontological beliefs concerned with the nature of reality (Mertens, 2005:8), epistemological beliefs concerned with the nature of knowledge and the “relationship between the knower and that which would be known” (Mertens, Bledsloe, Sullivan & Wilson, 2010:195) and methodological beliefs relating to the appropriate method in order to retrieve justifiable facts (ibid). The four belief systems namely, axiology, ontology, epistemology and methodology, inform the choice of the pragmatic paradigm for this study and are briefly outlined below.

3.2.1.2 Axiology

Axiology is formulated on fundamental questions of value and worth and is comprised of two aspects, namely ethics and aesthetics. The ethics aspect is of concern in this regard, with respect to, how we determine what is valuable and what is not? What is the precise relationship between values and knowledge? Which values super cede others? And finally, who benefits from current values? In this instance, are the rights (See 2.2.1) and needs (See 2.2.2; 2.2.3; 2.2.4 and 2.3) of the ELL’s being met as they acquire language and literacy simultaneously in a language not spoken at home? And as such, who benefits from the current policies? Researchers come to social enquiry with their own unique set of values and assumptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:37), while the social, political and economic dimensions generally influence the research question. The importance of critical self-reflection (See 1.8) in answering the fundamental questions aforementioned is of primary importance in the formulation process of the research question (See 1.5) and questions pertaining to data gathering (Hesse-Biber, 2010:35). The research question is central to the pragmatic research paradigm of a study (Creswell, 2009a:10; Mertens, 2005:294; Patton, 2002:135) and therefore pivotal in determining the direction of the research. In the context of this study, the relationship between the researcher, her values, assumptions and interpretation in relation to the knowledge
sought (the research question) within the social, economic and political dimensions, are considered and vigorously critiqued in order to minimise researcher bias (See 3.8). In addition, an “ethics of care” (Mertens, 2015:37), is paramount throughout the study, particularly toward the “youngest members of society” (Hall, 2013:15-26). To this end, confidentiality, respect, cultural sensitivity in addition to the wellbeing and consideration of linguistic sensitivities of the respondents were taken into account. For example, informed consent, parental presence throughout the assessment period and consideration of the fatigue levels of the young learners during assessment.

3.2.1.3 Ontology / metaphysics
Ontology is a set of assumptions on the “nature of being and existence” (Hesse-Biber, 2010:124). It is concerned with the assumptions and beliefs which form our reality and inform the reality “that is the object of our research” (Biesta, 2010:102) in this instance the ELL’s risk and vulnerability by virtue of their LLP’s. From the pragmatic ontological perspective, “constructs such as truth and reality” are rejected whilst new constructs are pursued through the collection of multiple and diverse types of data in order to have insight to and therefore ‘judge’ the research problem (Mertens, 2005:27). To this end, pragmatic ontology flags a problem and/or the construction of a solution to the problem (McCaslin, 2008:675). To this end, the investigation of the ELL’s and English monolingual learners emerges from a problem or Mertens’ (2015:37) “lines of action points” which construct a new reality, based on “how things really are” (from the perspective of learners and their parents) and “how things really work” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998:201) (within communities, schools and classrooms). To his end, an at risk educational minority by virtue of their LLP’s is identified by establishing new knowledge (elaborated upon in Chapters 4 and 5) and compliant with Kuhn’s foundations for further practice. In so doing, attend to the purpose of the study, which is to answer the research question, provide guidance for the choice of paradigm and support the choice of method for the research. Thus, a pragmatic paradigm and the mixed method research choice.

3.2.1.4. Epistemology
Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and concerns itself with the methods, validity, scope and limitations of knowledge; it concerns itself with ways of knowing and how we know (Mertens, 2005:8). Epistemological assumptions are therefore critical in informing the philosophic foundation and methodological decisions within a study.

From the pragmatist perspective, the researcher is at liberty to “study what interests you and is of value to you, study it in the different ways that you deem appropriate, and utilize the results in ways that can bring about positive consequences within your value system” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998:118)
An appropriate choice therefore, is one that would best suit the researcher’s needs (Creswell, 2014:11), the needs of the researched and the relationship between the two. In this regard and in order to ‘best suit’ the needs of the researcher and the vulnerable educational minority (the researched), a comparative evaluation of the LLP’s of the ELL’s is adopted. In pursuit of truth (new knowledge relating to the ELL’s lived in reality), a pluralistic approach is adopted and a good fit methodological enquiry is sought by considering the underlying philosophical assumptions of both post positivism and constructivism (Green & Hall, 2012:131). In so doing, the appropriateness of the method and its implied relationship between the researcher and the researched is based on whether or not the purpose of the study has been addressed and the research question answered. In this instance, the pursuit of new knowledge, in the construction of the ELL’s reality of acquiring language and literacy simultaneously in an inclusive classroom in a language not spoken at home is sought from a constructivist, interpretive and a post positivistic methodology. The principles of pragmatism, underpinned by the four belief systems under discussion, facilitate a new way of knowing and identifying the ELL’s reality and in turn how we know and address the new knowledge. The pragmatic paradigm is seen by some researchers, as one of the underlying philosophical frameworks for mixed methods research (Morgan, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:6; Feilzer, 2010). In closing, the pragmatic paradigm is, however, not deemed appropriate by all researchers for a mixed method study, in that there is no clear definition, of “what works” (Hall, 2013:78).

### 3.3 Methodology – A Mixed Methods Approach

#### 3.3.1 Introduction

Pragmatism, the paradigm chosen for the current mixed methods research design study, provides for combining multiple paradigms, methods and forms of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014:11) to efficiently evaluate the research question thereby provide a “theoretical lens” (Creswell, 2014a:11) for “action and reflection” (Biesta, 2010:112) as the LLP of the ELL is evaluated. While the principle beliefs of scientific methodology or strategies of inquiry pertain to “how we know the world and how we gain knowledge of it? (Denzil & Lincoln, 2011:13), the strategy of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:14), as it pertains to qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods designs, “provide[s] specific direction for procedures in research design” (Creswell, 2009a:234). Hesse-Biber, (2010:14) notes that the methodology “is the link that connects the research question with specific methods” which address the research questions. The research methodology is concerned with retrieving the information which will “most appropriately answer specific research questions” (Le Compte, Preissle with Tesch, 1993:30), address the most effective avenue to obtain such and
therefore inform the choice of approach and ultimately the method. “Methods gain meaning only from the methodologies that shape and guide their use (Hesse-Biber, 2010:13). Creswell (2014a:12) notes that the methodology informs the “type of qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods design which provide specific direction for procedures in a research design”

Therefore, the approach to scientific research is informed firstly by the research question, the philosophical assumptions (See 3.2.1), the research methodology and finally the specific methods (Creswell, 2014a:5).

The current study’s choice of approach is informed by the research question below:

Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

In consideration of the research question, a complementary comparative mixed methods approach is adopted by the current study and is supported by Greene’s (2007:20) definition.

that activity invites us to participate in dialogue about multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished.

The definition conforms to the pragmatic paradigm which overarches the research, the axiology (what is of value and worth), the ontology (assumptions and beliefs which inform reality), the epistemology (ways of knowing and how we know), and the research methodology (how we know and how we gain the knowledge we do know). In addition, it ‘translates’ the specific procedures of the research into practice (Creswell, 2014a:5) and embodies Hesse-Biber and Crofts (2008:655) concept of “dynamic connections”. Mixed methods research is, the “type of research in which the researcher combines elements of the qualitative and quantitative research approaches” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007:123) in pursuit of value, worth, ways of knowing and knowledge, as they examine, the “multi-faceted, multi-layered and multi –perspectival” (Pawson, 2009:120) that is society. It is an approach to inquiry that does not merely collect and analyse data independently from both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The mixed methods approach combines qualitative and quantitative research methods/or approaches simultaneously, thereby drawing from the depth and breadth of the entire study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5) and in so doing, complementing each other in addressing the research question.

A schematic overview of the research methodology framework and the research design framework is presented below in Figure. 3.1.
Figure 3.1 The Research design framework: The interconnection of paradigm, methodology, research design methods and instruments

RESEARCH PARADIGM

This research is located in the pragmatic paradigm

METHODOLOGY

Both QUAL (constructivist) and QUAN (post positivist and interpretive) methods are used

RESEARCH DESIGN

Simple causal-comparative approach to the mixed model research design and a complementary mixed methods approach to the mixed model research design are used

RESEARCH METHODS MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

QUAL

Open ended structured questionnaire

*Qualitative
(Source: Snelgar, 2014)

QUAN

Standardised instrument Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL)

*Quantitative
(Adapted from Creswell, 2014:5)
3.3.2 Qualitative Research methodology

Qualitative research, is a ‘means for exploring’ (Creswell, 2014:4) based on the epistemological assumptions, namely constructivism, and assumes multiple, socially constructed realities (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:13) with the understanding of the resultant social phenomenon. The facts are presented as a detailed narration of words rather than numbers, using face to face techniques to collect data typically in the subjects setting (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:598).

The qualitative research approach typically draws from a constructivist philosophy and is often combined with interpretivism (Mertens, 1998) and as such, embodies a “multilayer, interactive and a shared social experience interpreted by individuals” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:396). In this regard, it is referenced as social constructivism (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mertens, 2010), however, interpretivism, is the term of choice for this study. The initial phase of the study collects the qualitative data via a structured open-ended questionnaire, which seeks to bring meaning to the social and cultural reality and the linguistic context of the target population through discussion and dialogue. The purpose of which is to create patterns, generate theories and generalizations (Creswell, 2014:184); in other words a bottom up approach seeking to interpret and interconnect the social, historical and linguistic theories or patterns which emerge in order to construct the ELL’s reality in the classroom. Constructivists seek ways of knowing and valuing the social world, drawing from multiple world views (Creswell, 2014:8; Creswell, Plano Clark, 2011:45). To this end, interpretivism informs the constructivist paradigm for the qualitative study guiding the data collection of the study. Interpretivism from an epistemological and methodological perspective, seeks to explore the “lived experiences” of the participants while upholding the two fundamental goals of social enquiry, hypothesis examination and causality (Hesse-Biber, 2010:12). In practice, general, broad, open ended questions are applied in order that the target population are able to convey meaning (Creswell, 2013:25) to the researcher whereby the researcher is better able to understand the cultural, historic and linguistic reality of the sample population. More specifically this refers to understanding the reality of the ELL’s and the English monolingual learners and to this end, to address the proposed hypothesis of the study. In this instance, the significant differences between the ELL’s LLP’s within an exclusive reality when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. The open ended questionnaire provides the background and/or reality of the target group and therefore reveals the social and linguistic reality from a constructivist ontological perspective of the learners and complements the quantitative research to follow.

Guided by the constructivist paradigm that draws from multiple realities, the researcher predominantly draws from a micro-ethnographic methodology or strategy of enquiry which concerns the examination of a cultural group within a natural setting over time through observation.
and interview data (Creswell, 2014:243). Ethnography takes the stance that human behaviour and
the way individuals construct meaning of their worlds and lives is variable and locally constructed
(LeCompte & Shensul, 2010:1). The primary modes of data collection for ethnographers, are ‘their
ears and eyes’ collecting information prior to testing. The purpose of applied ethnographic research
is to gain insight into social and cultural issues within communities and/or institutions and further
positive changes within those communities or institutions (LeCompte & Schensul, 2010:9). From an
ontological perspective and with regard to the research problem, the assumption that a visible
minority population in British Columbia is able to acquire language and literacy simultaneously in a
language not spoken at home within an inclusive classroom is precisely that, an assumption. The
lived reality, of ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously, with an attendant skewed ‘tool
kit’ - their LLP’s, is inequitable access, limited participation and therefore inaccessible excellence of
outcome. To this end, the rights of the ELL’s are negated, unrecognised and therefore neither
acknowledged nor addressed. Considering the ELL’s reality from an epistemological standpoint, ‘how
we know’ the ELL’s reality is not compatible with the accepted language and literacy acquisition
norms. In consideration of the ELL’s plight and the characteristics of applied ethnography the study:

1. Focus on problems that are salient and identified by researchers and key persons in settings
   where the research is to take place.
2. The results are intended to be beneficial to institutions and communities
3. The results are used to develop programs and other intervention strategies

The micro-ethnographic enquiry focuses on the biological attributes of the society and culture of
the target population, namely the ELL’s identified as a vulnerable minority and the English
monolingual learners in British Columbia. The focus of the micro-ethnographic enquiry is based on
the language, background, and inclusion and/or exclusion within society, school and classroom of
the ELL population of British Columbia.

A structured open-ended biographical and lifestyle (participation in school community and social
activities) questionnaire was administered to the sampled subjects of a common group activity that
consisted of parents whose children were acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at
home. In this regard, the constructivist and social constructivist philosophy provide the framework
for collecting, interpreting and analysing data through a structured open-ended questionnaire
thereby substantiating the challenges facing the ELL’s as they acquire literacy in a language not
spoken at home. The qualitative research for this study complements the quantitative research by
delineating the cultural, social, linguistic inequitable and exclusionary background and lifestyle of the
ELL’s, formulating the preliminary outer parameters of the LLP. To this end, bringing further clarity to the research problem and further the answering of the research question.

3.3.3 Quantitative research methodology

The epistemological assumptions which inform the quantitative methods of the study are post positivistic (Creswell, 2009a:12) which recognise that there is no absolute truth when researching human behaviour (Creswell, 2014a:7). Post positivism is deterministic and reductionist in its philosophy seeking to identify and assess cause and effect by reducing notions into discrete sets such as the hypotheses which are formed from the research question and the variables (Creswell, 2014a:7). The ontological assumptions, on the other hand, draw on truth as a probability rather than a certainty (Mertens, 2010:12), which places knowledge as conjectural and therefore revisable. For this reason, post positivists look as much to “failure to reject” the hypothesis as to proving the hypothesis (Creswell, 2014a:5). On the basis that knowledge is conjectural, post positivists begin with a theory and the attendant claims, which are subsequently refined and/or replaced or abandoned. The researcher collects data from participants via carefully selected instruments and or observation in order to develop relevant data which is value free (Mertens, 2009:10) and able to describe the cause and effect relationship. Merten (2009:15) upholds Reichard and Rallis’ (1994:5-11) assertion, that the theories, hypotheses and background knowledge held by the researcher strongly influences what is observed. “Theories are grounded in a particular perspective and world view and all knowledge partial, incomplete and fallible” (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010:150). Multiple data sources, collection strategies and time periods referenced as triangulation are employed to address various potential threats to validity (Bergman, 2009:23), in other words fallibility. Methodological pluralism and triangulation, a cross validation amongst multiple data sources, data collection strategies and theoretical schemes (McMillan & Shumacher, 2009:7) serves the aforementioned in addition to being complementary by “providing a fuller and more complete picture of the phenomenon concerned” (Erzberger & Kelle, 2003:461). Quantitative research gathers data objectively, analyses numerically and presents statistical results numerically (McMclllan & Schumacher, 2001:15; 2010:5).

In this regard, the researcher chose a causal comparative non experimental design which reflects the post positivistic philosophical assumption which is the investigation of cause and effect (Creswell, 2014a:7). To this end, it measures, analyses and compare the LLP’s of ELL’s and English monolingual learners. In so doing, the investigation answers the research question (See 1.5) posed for this study. The best method for a given study in the human sciences may either be a single qualitative method or quantitative method or a mixed qualitative-quantitative depending on the study (Teddliie & Tashakkori, 2010:9). Creswell (2009:4) noted that the notion of mixed methods research stems from the philosophy of integrating reflection in the qualitative data and the analysis of the quantitative
data to reap the benefits of the approach “framed within a larger philosophical foundation” (Leech, 2010:257). In this instance, the qualitative data (the first phase of the assessment) firstly, delineates a cultural, social, linguistic, literacy, lifestyle and background profile for the ELL’s, bringing a reflective clarity to the research problem (See 1.3). Secondly, the quantitative data (second phase of the assessment) attends to the primary objective (See 1.5) to identify, isolate and specify the at risk educational minority by virtue of their LLP thereby further delineating their educational vulnerability. To this end, the larger philosophical foundation argued is embraced and in accordance with the philosophical framework outlined in this chapter, a pluralistic approach is adopted, namely the mixed methods approach.

3.3.4 Mixed methods research methodology

The methodology or strategy of enquiry outlined in 3.3.1, namely pragmatics, links the research problem to the research design and the design method. Methodologies as noted, are derived from the researcher’s assumptions about the nature of existence (ontology) which inform how we know, what we know and what can we know (epistemology), forming a “theoretical bridge that connects the research problem to the research method” (Hesse-Biber, 2010:11). The exploration of the lived experience of the ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a language not spoken at home is upheld by the constructivist methodology of the qualitative research approach, while the post positivist and interpretative methodology explores the testing of the hypothesis and causality. Greene (2002:260) noted that “…methodologies have preferences for particular methods but methods gain meaning only from methodologies that shape and guide their use”. In accord with the methodological pragmatic paradigm selected for this study, diverse world views and different assumptions, multiple approaches and different forms of data collection and analysis are employed (Creswell, 2009a:11). The aforementioned draw from the philosophical perspective, where mixed methods researchers enjoy the freedom of choice and make use of diverse philosophical positions to bridge the post positivistic and interpretative world views and the pragmatic and transformative paradigms (Green, 2007:20). The pragmatic paradigm as described in this study, draws on “what works” using diverse approaches to solve practical problems in the “real world” (Morgan, 2007: 48-76; Feilzer, 2010:8). This is informed by the research problem and research question which remain pivotal to the researchers choice of methodology. Having outlined the methodological parameters for mixed methods researchers and in creating the methodological framework for this study, a methodological definition for mixed methods research is useful. Creswell, Klassen, Plano Clark and Clegg Smith’s, (2011:4) definition is the most suitable with regard to this study in that it highlights the salient points considered pivotal to the study. The definition is as follows. Mixed methods research:
• focuses on research questions that call for real-life contextual understandings, multi-level perspectives, and cultural influences;

• employs rigorous quantitative research methods assessing magnitude and frequency of constructs and rigorous qualitative research exploring the meaning and understanding of constructs;

• utilizes multiple qualitative methods (e.g., in-depth interviews);
• intentionally integrates or combines these methods to draw on the strengths of each; and
• frames the investigation within philosophical and theoretical positions (Creswell et al., 2014:4).

In sum, research methods are shaped and guided by the meaning ascribed to them by the methodology employed by the researcher (Greene, 2002:260). Greene goes onto note that methods are tools within the hands of methodological oriented researchers which become instrumental in the promotion of social justice, social transformation or merely maintaining the status quo (ibid). In accordance with an explicit methodology namely pragmatism, the researcher’s methodological perspective is influential in the choice of a research design (Hesse-Biber, 2010:21). In other words “thoughtful, mixed method planning” (Greene, Benjamin & Goodyear, 2001:29-30), “by narrowing the divide between quantitative and qualitative researchers, mixed methods research has a great potential to promote a shared responsibility in the quest for attaining accountability for educational quality” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:24). The research methodological paradigm selected for the study is realised via diverse data collection and analyses processes, namely qualitative with regard to background, CALD language and literacy profiling and quantitative for the quantifying of the phenomenon of the ELL’s. To this end, integrating and drawing on the strengths of each method, thereby framing the investigation within the philosophical and theoretical positions described. The research design (the blueprint that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analysing the data) follows (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009:6; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:490). In accordance with the framework of this study, the design is informed by the methodologies described above.

3.4 The research design

3.4.1 Introduction

The strategy of enquiry for the study, a complementary comparative approach draws from the research question, research problem, the methodological preferences and the philosophical assumptions. The research design is in accordance with the strategy of enquiry and describes the
types of enquiry within qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research approaches which prescribe and describe specific procedures within the research for conducting the study (Creswell, 2014:12). The research design, therefore details how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects and what methods of data collection are used (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:31) - the blueprint for the intended research (Mouton, 2013:55). In this regard, a simple causal-comparative approach to the mixed model research design is assumed. In this design the qualitative mode of enquiry and a non-experimental quantitative component interact and complement one another to provide a more comprehensive picture and explanation of the phenomenon. The research design is fixed and sequential.

3.4.2 The strategy of inquiry

A strategy of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:245) provides the direction or approach to the procedures within a research study, in other words the design of the study. These procedures are distinct in design, in that they are defined by the research approach (Creswell, 2009:11). A fixed mixed methods strategy of inquiry is applied to the study. The qualitative (an interactive micro-ethnographic study – a cultural, social, linguistic, literacy, lifestyle and background profile) and quantitative approach (a descriptive and non-experimental approach, further identifies, isolates and specifies the at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their LLP’s) constitute a complementary, comparative approach and outline the strategy or modes of enquiry which are predetermined, planned and sequenced at the outset of the research process (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:54). See Table 3.1 below.
3.4.3 *The mixed methods research design*

The research design for the study is a mixed methods sequential design which consists of two distinct strands. The qualitative research design, the first strand, via a structured open-ended questionnaire facilitates the examination of the LLP and attendant linguistic trends in ELL’s backgrounds (the first phase of the assessment), while the quantitative research design, the second strand, via a standardised instrument namely, the Pearson Assessment of Literacy and Language for young children (ALL) (the second phase of the assessment), explored and quantified the phenomenon of the ELL’s quantitatively. The application of the mixed methods research design facilitates the understanding of the ‘social’ story of the ELL’s in addition to the quantitative description of the phenomenon thereby gaining an in depth understanding of the research problem (Biber-Hesse, 2010:26). Simply put, the results of one method are used to “elaborate, enhance, illustrate or clarify the results from another method” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:2) enabling a “better understanding of a [the] research problem” (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2013:97). The dynamic procedure selected for the research design process is motivated by Maxwell and Loomis (2003:241-271) who posit an interactive system based approach to mixed methods research design, founded on the salient principle of this design, namely, the research question. In this regard and in consideration of the overarching pragmatic paradigm, consideration is given to five interconnected components, namely:

1. The study’s purpose - exploring the LLP of the ELL.
2. The conceptual framework - Pragmatism - Mixed methods strategy/mode of enquiry.

3. The research question/s - Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English and monolingual English speaking learners, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

4. The method/s – qualitative (structured open-ended questionnaire) and quantitative (ALL).

5. Validity - triangulation, reliability and the role of the researcher. “The [noted] perspective, stems from the pragmatic foundations for conducting mixed methods research where the notion of ‘what works’ applies well to selecting the methods that work best to address the study’s problem and questions” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:60). Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) further delineate the procedure with their compilation of five broad reasons for mixing the qualitative and quantitative methods: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion, which inform this study and are outlined in the table below.

Table 3.2 The typology of reason for the mixed method of this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greene et al., (1989)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• <strong>Triangulation</strong> seeks convergence, corroboration and correspondence of results from different methods. (See Maxwell and Loomis, validity aforementioned).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• <strong>Complementarity</strong> seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of the results from one method with the results of another. (See Maxwell and Loomis, Conceptual framework – Pragmatism).</td>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Development</strong> seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions. (See Maxwell and Loomis, Method – Mixed methods approach).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• <strong>Initiation</strong> seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives and frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from another method. (See Maxwell and Loomis, Method – Mixed methods approach).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• <strong>Expansion</strong> seeks to extend the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components. (Maxwell and Loomis, Method – Mixed methods Approach).</td>
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Having addressed the key principles the researcher was able to define the mixed methods research design process which was used in the study. To this end, the precise application or procedure of the qualitative and quantitative ‘strands’ were identified thereby formalising the study. A strand is described as a component within a study that embodies the fundamental process of conducting the qualitative and quantitative research namely, posing a question, collecting data, analysing data, and interpreting the results from the data (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:22). Mixed methods research design, consists of at least one qualitative and one quantitative strand which either interact with one another or are independent of one another. The extent of independency is referenced as the level of interaction (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:64). Green (2007:120) noted that this decision is the “most salient and most critical” in designing a mixed methods study. With regard to this study, the qualitative and quantitative strands are implemented independently where the qualitative and quantitative research questions, data collection and data analysis are separate and therefore independent level of interaction. In this instance, the qualitative and quantitative strands, will be weighted equally or given equal priority in addressing the research problem and research question. The strands were implemented by the researcher in two distinct phases (the assessment) and are therefore sequential (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:66). Firstly, the qualitative strand, namely the questionnaire, was administered and data collected and analysed; secondly, the quantitative strand, the ALL test, was administered, data collected and analysed. Both the qualitative and quantitative strands are collectively referenced as the assessment – a two phase process for clarification purposes. The two strands were amalgamated when drawing conclusions during the interpretation phase at the end of the study. Morse (2010:345) termed the integration of the qualitative and quantitative strands as the point of interface, the point within a process of research where the qualitative and quantitative strands are mixed.

Consideration of the interaction, priority, timing and mixing of the research design informs the choice of framework for the mixed methods design. The design choice should reflect the research question and reasons for mixing thus making it manageable, describable and easily delivered (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:68). In an effort to ensure a design that is rigorous, persuasive and with a degree of excellence, the researcher has chosen to choose a typology based design, namely a simple causal comparative study. It is sequential in nature, beginning with the collection and analysing of the qualitative data in the first phase (See 3.3.2) via an open-ended questionnaire, followed by the second phase where the researcher uses a standardised instrument namely the ALL, which built on the first phase specifically to quantify, test and generalise the initial findings (See Table 3.3). With regard to this study, the researcher investigates the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the ELL’s and the challenges which occur when acquiring literacy in a language not
spoken at home. The design type, a causal comparative study, was decided upon to best address the research question and reflects the nature of the study (baselined against monolingual English language speakers in the same research environment).

**Table 3.3** Design type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Qualitative</strong></th>
<th><strong>Quantitative</strong></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instrument</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Structured open-ended questionnaire</td>
<td>- Standardised instrument</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(First phase)</td>
<td>Assessment of Literacy and Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ALL)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Second phase)</td>
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(Adapted from Gien Snelgar, 2010:98)

In closing, the complementary mixed method approach ensures a diverse perspective leading to a more comprehensive investigation and therefore understanding of the phenomenon at hand (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:7) and complies with the pragmatic paradigm considered by Creswell (2014a:11) to be the most “appropriate worldview” for mixed methods research. The research design framework outlined above is developed further, drawing on the literature review (See Chapter 2.), methodology, strategy of enquiry, which underpin the research purpose and the research question; both of which are extrapolated on below.

### 3.4.4 The research purpose

The research purpose statement, a condensed version of the problem statement (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009:96) conveys the objectives and intent of the study thereby orienting the reader and establishes the direction of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:79; Creswell, 2014a:123). Statements of purpose imply the chosen strategy of enquiry. In this instance the type of mixed methods form is causal comparative, where the results of one method elaborate, enhance and clarify the results from another method (Hesse-Biber, 2010:26).

The purpose of this study was to identify the LLP by isolating and highlighting this previously unidentified CALD minority and their subsequent vulnerability through exclusion in an inclusive classroom. This study describes and quantifies the LLP of the ELL and then proceeds to evaluate it, as it pertains to the current inclusive education policy in British Columbia’s classrooms and schools and
whether or not, the educational opportunities made available to the ELL learner are indeed accessible by the ELL. In this comparative study the ELL learner group is baselined against a monolingual English peer group in the same learning environment.

In this regard, the study is conducted within the overarching pragmatic paradigm using the mixed methods approach and attendant research design in support of the research purpose of the study. To this end, the first phase of the study is an interactive qualitative study which explores and describes the phenomenon namely the CALD background of the ELL via an open ended questionnaire. Findings from the qualitative phase are explored and described for greater understanding of the linguistic background of the ELL in order to further the quantitative testing of a hypothesis and eleven sub hypotheses to test and quantify the LLP of the English speaking monolingual and the ELL’s with the use of a standardised instrument, namely the ALL.

The formulation of the problem statement is based on an abstract construct that is not directly observable: the exclusion (micro exclusion) of the ELL with a CALD background in an inclusive classroom by virtue of their LEP. The LEP is an attribute is expressed as a variable that can assume variable values (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:491) namely the LLP. In a non-experimental causal comparative design, the variables are not actively manipulated by the researcher. The term independent and dependent variables are used in this study. The independent variable, the CALD of the ELL precedes the dependent variable the LLP of the ELL. The independent and dependent variables are measured separately (but pertains to the same group of parents and learners) which suggests the cause and effect logic of the quantitative research (Creswell, 2009a:133). The variables are also measured for the monolingual baseline peer group.

The study pertains to the language and literacy profile LLP of the ELL and literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home in the inclusive, multicultural institutions, namely schools, in British Columbia. The study focuses on the early years and the necessary support required. For the purpose of the study the sampling frame for the target population are ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home in K1, K2, and Grade 1 and their parents in British Columbia.

Considering the main problem statement of the study as described above and, as described in Section 1.3 in Chapter 1, the LLP of ELL’s learners acquiring literacy, and whose home language differs from the language used in school, the main research question is stated and elaborated upon below.
3.4.5 The research question

Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

3.4.6 Research aim

This research aims to explore the LLP of learners whose home language is other than English and its attendant efficacy and compatibility in facilitating the level of equitable participation and understanding necessary when acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home in an inclusive classroom. 

More specifically, the aim of the research is to identify, isolate and specify the at risk educational minority namely, the ELL’s by virtue of their LLP and identify their vulnerability, as it pertains to equitable access, participation, excellence and the rights of the learner in an inclusive classroom as they acquire first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. (Their vulnerability is benchmarked against the English monolingual peer group in similar classroom environments).

3.4.7 Hypothesis

On the basis of the literature reviewed, the null and alternative hypotheses question, could be formally stated as,

\[ H_{0m}: \]

There are no statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis:

\[ H_{1m}: \]

There are statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

The difference will be investigated in ELL’s who acquire English language and literacy simultaneously in K1 K2 and Grade 1 in a language not spoken at home.
3.4.7.1 The sub hypothesis

The most effective way of evaluating the main hypothesis would be to divide the main hypothesis into the eleven components of the ALL questionnaire on language and literacy ability and evaluate achievement in each aspect separately. In this regard, the first hypothesis will be presented and thereafter, all other aspects will have the same wording except where “against....will be substituted”. To this effect the sub hypothesis were formulated as follows:

Performance on letter knowledge,

\( H_{01} \):
There is no statistically significant difference in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate letter knowledge when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{11} \):
There is a statistically significant difference in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate letter knowledge when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

Performance on rhyme knowledge,

\( H_{02} \):
There is no statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate rhyme knowledge

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{22} \):
There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate rhyme knowledge

Performance on basic concepts,

\( H_{03} \):
There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate basic concepts
As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{33} \):
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate basic concepts

Performance on receptive vocabulary,

\( H_{43} \):
There is no statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate receptive vocabulary

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{44} \):
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate receptive vocabulary

Performance on parallel sentence production

\( H_{55} \):
There is no statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate parallel sentence production

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{55} \):
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate parallel sentence production

Performance on elision,

\( H_{66} \):
There is no statistically significant...evaluated against age appropriate elision

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\( H_{66} \):
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate elision

Performance on word relationships,
\( H_07: \)
There is no statistically significant...evaluated against age appropriate word relationships

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,
\( H_77: \)
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate word relationships

Performance on phonic knowledge,
\( H_{08}: \)
There is no statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate phonic knowledge

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,
\( H_{88}: \)
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate receptive phonic knowledge

Performance on sound categorisation,
\( H_{09}: \)
There is no statistically significant...evaluated against age appropriate sound categorisation

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,
\( H_{99}: \)
There is a statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate sound categorisation

Performance on sight word recognition,
\( H_{10}: \)
There is no statistically significant difference...evaluated against age appropriate sight word recognition

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,
\( H_{1010}: \)
There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate sight word recognition

Performance on listening comprehension,

\[ H_{11} \]
There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate listening comprehension

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis,

\[ H_{1111} \]
There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated age appropriate against listening comprehension

3.4.8 Sampling

A probabilistic, simple, purposive, random sample strategy best informs the aim of the study. Random sampling as noted by McMillan & Schumacher (2014:6) implies selecting subjects from a population in a manner where every subject has an equal and independent opportunity of being selected for the study and therefore the sampling units are representative of the “population of interest” (Collins, 2010:357). The target population is the technical term referencing a group of subjects who conform to specific criteria, embrace the participants/subjects of interest to the study and represents the larger population and to which we intend to generalize the research results (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:169). The target population is described as ELL’s in inclusive multicultural institutions K1 – Grade 1 classrooms in British Columbia acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. In order to describe and quantify the characteristics namely the CALD backgrounds and the LLP of the ELL’s within the target population, a select subset or sample of the population as representative of the general ELL population was selected (i.e., purposive random sampling (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:489). The sample, the individual elements or components of the target population (Le Compte, & Senschel, 2010:110) was specifically selected from the sample framework to capture the characteristics necessary for the research, namely the CALD background and LLP of the ELL’s ensuring that the characteristics aforementioned would be found in the general K1- Grade 1 ELL population. Leedy and Ormrod (2013:207) defined a sample as a “microcosm of the population’, noting that careful sampling is critical in drawing conclusions that are not biased. Simultaneously English monolingual learners had to be sampled appropriately to ensure a representative baseline peer group. To this end, access to the purposefully selected subset of the
general population for simple random selection purposes was achieved via flyer distribution detailed below. Sampling designs are numerous, situation specific and generally fall into two categories namely probability sampling and nonprobability sampling. Probability sampling the sampling design for this study ensures that subjects are randomly drawn from the larger population or target population with known probabilities (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009:8) ensuring that estimates of “what is true” (McMillan & Shumacher, 2001:170) are represented in the sample or sub set selected. Random selection is based on the assumption, that the characteristics of the sample “approximate the characteristics of the total population” (Leedy & Ormord, 2013:207), and are indeed a true representation of the population.

The choice of sample size is as critical in research as the sample type, as it ultimately determines the ability of the researcher to infer statistical or analytical generalisations (Ongwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:287; Collins, 2010:361). In mixed methods research, inadequate sample sizes restrict the ‘meta-inferences’ (and the reliability of these inferences) that can be drawn from conclusions drawn from both phases of the study. Collins, further notes that within the sequential framework/design, where the qualitative and quantitative components are dependent, an inadequate qualitative sample size restricts the analyses that follows in the quantitative component (Collins, 2010:361). Sample size should draw from the research objective, the research question and the research design. Onwuegbuzie, Jiao, and Bostick (2004), Ongwuebuzie and Collins (2007:317) and Ongwuegbuzie and Leech (2007:105 -121) propose a sampling design /framework typology that includes 24 sampling schemes for qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods in which a two dimensional model of sampling operates, combining time orientation such as sequential data gathering and the relationship between the qualitative and quantitative sample, for example causal comparative.

While Teddlie and Yu (2007:77-100) proposed a five type mixed methods typology of sampling, noting that in sequential mixed methods (as is the case in this study) the sampling of the first strand (qualitative), informs the sampling decisions of the second strand (quantitative). Creswell, Plano Clark and Garrett’s (2009:67) typology on the other hand is primarily based on “timing of implementation, priority / weighting, and stage of mixing” differentiated in type by the researcher’s decisions during the research process. Hall and Howard (2008:248) describe the research process as a synergistic approach combining the basic typologies and integration of approaches. The structure and organisation of the field of mixed methods research-methods and the pursuit of an inclusive typology “continues as the field evolves” (Nastasie et al., 2010: 329). It is however not within the scope of this study to detail and elaborate on the ever ‘elusive’ (Creswell, 2009, cited in Nastasie et al., 2010: 306) ever evolving, integrative typologies classifying mixed methods designs. It is however interesting to note the aforementioned as the theoretical background to a general rule of thumb in
choosing a sample size “the larger the sample the better” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013:215). Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009:133) suggest the following guidelines:

1. If N=100 or less – survey the entire population
2. If N=500 (+-100) – 50% of the population should be sampled
3. If N approximates = 1500 – 20% of the population should be sampled
4. If N approximates= 5000 – a sample size of 400 will be adequate

More simply put, the larger the population the smaller the percentage but not the number of participants sampled - in order to attain a representative sample. In addition the homogeneity of the target population facilitates a reduction in sample size, whereas the heterogeneity of the target population would indicate a larger sample to be drawn. The degree of precision with which the researcher wishes to infer predictions or draw conclusions is an additional important factor to be considered (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:217). Prior to the research commencing and drawing from the previous section, the researcher chose Onwuegbuzie’s and Collins Major Sampling Schemes Typology (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:285; Collins, 2010:358) and the Minimum Sample Size Recommendations for most Common Designs (Collins, 2010:362; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:288) to inform the sampling design/ framework. Therefore, a predetermined sampling unit and sampling size, based on a simple purposive random sampling was selected. This ensures that every individual within the selected population has an equal and independent chance of selection which enhances validity and reduces the false positives in the statistical relationships variables (Collins, 2010:357).

Sample size guidelines (See 1.7.1) for a causal comparative research recommend a sample size of 51 participants per group for one tailed hypotheses (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:2). Furthermore if brought into consideration that the purpose of this study is descriptive and exploratory – not predictive - sample size requirements may be relaxed to a greater extent.

In accordance with the aforementioned, where the choice of a sample size draws upon the research objective, the research question, the research design, statistical formulas and the economic and logistical limitations of the researcher 50 parents (i.e, 25 ELL’S plus 25 monolingual learners for the qualitative strand) and 50 learners (i.e., 25 ELL’s plus 25 monolingual learners for the quantitative strand) have been selected as the sample size; compliant with Gay, et al.’s (2009:13) guidelines, where if N = 100 or less the entire population was sampled in order to obtain a representative sample.
In this regard, the purpose of the study, namely, to identify the LLP by isolating and highlighting this previously unidentified CALD minority and their subsequent vulnerability through exclusion in an inclusive classroom, the research question that asks whether statistically significant differences be established between the LLP of monolingual English speaking learners and ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home and the primary objective of the study, to isolate and specify an at risk and educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP, all fundamentally inform the research design, the sampling design and therefore the choice of sample size. So too, do the statistical guidelines recommended by Onwuegbuzie et al., (2004) for a causal comparative study inform the choice of sample size. Due to logistical, time and financial constraints, Gay, Mills and Airasian’s (2014:131-152) guidelines although valid, are not entirely viable for this limited study and are considered as follows. N = 100 or less the entire population was sampled in order to obtain a representative sample. In this instance ‘information rich’ sites (i.e., ELL rich) in accord with the purposive, random, sampling framework were targeted. Considering the premise for further research inherent within this study and the firm knowledge that bias and the validity of the research (See 3.6) may be influenced by the small sample size, the researcher additionally justifies the sample size chosen by noting that bias is ‘omnipresent’(Leeds & Ormrod, 2013:219).

Apart from practical research implementation, financial limitations and the fact that the study was exploratory and descriptive rather than predictive, sample size considerations also included the area of focus of the study: CALD and LLP concerns were observed to be associated with urban areas of British Columbia.

The population of interest to this study, the target population, were therefore the areas of Metro Vancouver and Vancouver Island in British Columbia and were identified for sample selection. Creswell (2009a:217) notes that the selected sites – that focus on the research area and participants of interest - facilitate a better understanding of the research question and research problem in the qualitative phase of the research (Creswell, 2009a:178) and in this instance, by default, a target population, in other words, the ELL’s who experience the phenomenon being investigated (in urban British Columbia), is isolated and targeted. Applying Creswell’s reasoning, the target population is delimited to the urban Vancouver and Vancouver island environment and stratified random sampling (which fits in with the research design) is applied to the strata of Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island where high concentrations of ELL’s are found. In this way identified sites render ‘information rich’ subjects, which informs the CALD backgrounds of the ELL and the LLP of both the monolingual and ELL.
Access to the target population for simple purposive random selection was captured via the distribution of flyers, targeting the following ‘information rich’ sites:

1. Metro Vancouver:
   - Community Centre North Vancouver
   - Aberdeen Centre Richmond
   - Yohan Centre Richmond
   - Richmond Centre
   - Guildford Town Centre

2. Vancouver Island:
   - Immigration Welcome Centre Duncan, Cowichan Valley
   - Immigration and Welcome Association Victoria
   - Mayfair Shopping Centre Victoria
   - Woodgrove Shopping Centre Nanaimo

3. Salt Spring Island:
   - Salt Spring Literacy Society
   - Salt Spring Island Elementary School
   - Fulford Elementary School
   - Fernwood Elementary School
   - Phoenix Elementary School
   - Centre School
   - Community notice boards

Flyers were distributed from multi information rich sites to parents of both English monolingual and ELL’s in K1, K2 and Grade 1 in pursuit of Creswell’s (2009:217) rigorous sample selection techniques for the mixed methods design data collection procedures (See 3.4.8). The flyers were distributed to schools, immigration centres, the Salt Spring Literacy Society, public libraries and community notice boards. The immigration societies, schools and the Salt Spring Literacy Society disseminated the flyers in house to all K1, K2 and Grade 1 parents. The researcher personally distributed flyers by hand in the public shopping malls and displayed the flyers on community notice boards and public library notice boards. Parents self-volunteered and responded telephonically to the various societies (contact details on the flyers were site and therefore area specific), leaving their contact details for a
return call from the researcher. The researcher screened the perspective respondents for the required characteristics and scheduled the appointments (each site was allocated a specific two week time frame) for the scheduled meeting with the researcher via a telephonic screening process. The 25 ELL’s and their parents (mother or father) selected, complied with the CALD background requirement and the 25 English monolinguals and their parents (mother or father) complied with the English speaking monolingual requirement. The 25 ELL’s and 25 English monolingual learners selected for the research fell within the prescribed criteria for the ALL assessment: ages 4 to 6 and in K1, K2 and Grade 1. The two groups were not further divided by age, grade or school and selected randomly from all sites thus representing a true subsection or sample of the general population. A total of 50 learners and their parents were selected. The questionnaire (qualitative strand) was delivered to the individual parent (followed sequentially by the assessment for the learner (quantitative strand) - the parent was with the learner throughout the process). The assessments took place at the Salt Spring Literacy Society, the immigrant centres and at the public libraries. A dedicated room/area was reserved specifically at the aforementioned sites. The first phase of the assessment, the qualitative phase consisted of the face to face meeting for the parent where the structured open-ended questionnaire was delivered in the form of an interview (in consideration of the LEP of the SL parents) by the researcher to 50 parents –25 ELL’s parents and 25 English monolingual parents. This was followed by the second phase the quantitative phase where the researcher delivered the ALL assessment to the 25 ELL learners and the 25 English monolingual learners in the company of their respective parents.

Approval and permission for the research conducted in the schools and societies was sought individually from each location, the School Board, in addition to complying with the UNISA Ethics Review and Clearance requirements. Last mentioned is a prerequisite prior to any research taking place. Parental and learner approval and consent were also sought, in situ and with the appropriate Ethic Review Clearance approved consent documentation (See Appendix C-3). The consent form indicating willingness to participate was signed by parents after an introduction to the researcher; an information overview pertaining to what the purpose of the research study is, privacy, integrity, ethical issues and answering any questions the parents may still have had. Translators were provided upon request by the parents and made available by the immigrant societies, schools and community centres in Metro Vancouver and on Vancouver Island. No translators were required on Salt Spring Island. Two parents required a translator, both parents were Mandarin speaking and spoke little if any English. Translators met with the researcher prior to the research commencing for an overview and understanding of the questionnaire itself and the clarification of the terms therein, inclusive of the confidentiality protocol and required sensitivity for data retrieval.
In closing, the researcher for this study, although upholding Onwueggbuzie et al., (2004) guidelines in selecting the sample size is aware that the sample size of the study is limited. However, financial and time constraints made more extensive sampling unrealistic. The study was furthermore delimited to the urban Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring island environment as the target population of the study; and the purpose of the study, namely to identify the LLP by isolating and highlighting this previously unidentified CALD minority and their subsequent vulnerability through exclusion in an inclusive classroom, rendered the research exploratory and descriptive – which relaxes sample size requirement to some extent. This exploratory study opens the door to critical further research where logistics, funds and time are more lenient and therefore reproducibility which is “critical to scientific endeavor” (Johnsons, 2013:1) is achieved via subject selection which supports reproducibility through larger sample selection and adherence to more vigorous scientific methods resulting in strong statistics.

3.4.9 Data collection methods

An analysis of the literature, and an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the data collecting methods for both qualitative and quantitative research, strongly indicate that optimum results for this research, would be achieved by applying more than one data collection method (de Leeu, 2005; de Leeu & Hox, 2009:139) in addressing the multifaceted and complex challenges of the research. In consideration of the CALD backgrounds of the learners and the requisite measures of validity and reliability, it is prudent to explore various evaluation methods to capture the behaviour, background and performance of the ELL and monolingual learners accurately. The answer to the research question will not be reliably addressed in a single battery of assessment materials and therefore the researcher deemed a multipronged qualitative and quantitative approach (a complementary mixed methods approach) for accurate, valid and reliable assessment was deemed necessary. In compliance with the above and in addition the ELL checklist (Gien Snelgar, 2010:107), a qualitative instrument to collect background information was selected, designed and administered by the researcher in addition to the standardised quantitative instrument specified in Table 3.5. See Appendix B - 27 for a description of the data collection framework for the study. To follow a discussion on the qualitative followed by the quantitative instruments and methods used for the study.

3.4.9.1 Qualitative assessment methods and instruments

The instrument used in the qualitative study is tabled below followed by a detailed explanation of the instrument, method, application and justification for use.
Table 3.4 Instrument used for assessing the CALD background

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Structured Open-Ended Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Designer</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gien Snelgar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of instrument</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Researcher assisted by translator where necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents details and age range selected from the fifteen information rich sites and community notice boards</td>
<td>Adult parent of N=25 ELL’s (subjects) N=25 monolingual learners (comparison) Ages: Four to six K1- Grade 1 from Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stated objectives</td>
<td>Learners’ cultural, linguistic and literacy background Community and school support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(See Questionnaire details Appendix A-3)

A questionnaire is generally a measurement instrument and is designed to determine the frequency, incidence and distribution of certain characteristics within a population (Leedy & Ormond, 2013:109). It is designed to capture information about one or more groups pertaining to characteristics, opinions, backgrounds, attitudes and previous experiences (Leedy & Ormond, 2013:189). In this study, a structured, open-ended questionnaire (delivered as an interview in consideration of the LEP of the SL parents) designed and informed by the protocols and ethics for survey and questionnaire design and application, in addition to the ELL checklist detailed below was administered. The framework for the design of the structured open-ended questionnaire was informed by the pilot
studies detailed in section 3.5.1. The structured open-ended questionnaire was administered by the researcher to the parents of the 50 learner respondents individually, with the assistance of a translator when required. The term questionnaire is used and the instrument in and of itself is broadly defined as a questionnaire and intended as a measuring instrument that “presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (Brown, 2001:6), with the purpose of collecting reliable and valid data. The instrument equally relates to the term interview, similar to that used in opinion polls where a live interview is conducted with the researcher or interview conductor, reading out the questions and noting the respondent’s response to such. Both the aforementioned processes, fall within the general “rubric of questionnaire” Dornyei, 2010:3). However, questionnaire research, is based on the inherent premise that the respondents are capable of reading and writing (Dornyei & Tagushi 2010:7) and therefore fluent in the language on the questionnaire which generally is not the case in this instance. In consideration of the CALD and L2 proficiency of the respondents participating in this study, an adaptation to the standard questionnaire protocol was deemed necessary by the researcher.\(^1\) To this end, allowing for and addressing the language proficiency and sensitivity of the SL respondents. The term interview describes the administrative application of the questionnaire. The questions were read by the researcher, rephrased if necessary, to accommodate language and comprehension and in so doing pursued “information rich data”, upheld validity and reliability and in addition, limiting bias where possible in pursuit of the ‘social story’ (Hesse-Biber, 2010:26), namely the background information of the ELL’s and English monolingual learners referenced in this study. Every effort was be made by the researcher to eliminate cultural bias (See 1.8; 3.5.1 and 3.7) pertaining to all aspects of the study and uphold ethical concerns specifically with regard to cultural neutrality and human subject research. Ethical issues pertain to respect for the participants, inclusive of respect for CALD’s and the selected sites for the research (Creswell, 2009:89) and are further elaborated on below (See 3.7). Cultural traditions and norms (See 1.4; 1.7.2.2; 1.7.4; 1.8 and 3.9) as per literature reviewed are upheld within the design protocol of the research framework and instruments used, particularly pertaining to the structured open-ended questionnaire, where building trust and gaining cooperation are

\(^1\) This research study is intentionally non-conformant qualitatively. The methodology was purposefully selected as a means to approach the research question, Kvale’s “way to [the] goal”1996:179) which supported the research design and the comparative nature of the research. To this end, The micro-ethnographic study identifies and describes the biographical details, backgrounds and attitudes towards inclusion or exclusion of the participants. In consideration of the LEP and sensitivity of the SL participants, the structured open-ended questionnaire was selected and delivered as an interview intended to facilitate discussion focused on meaning retrieval. The information was audio recorded by the researcher, reflected upon, segmented, coded and translated by the researcher into a yes/no frequency table for comparative purposes.
essential in order to facilitate accurate data retrieval (Survey Research Centre, 2010:6). Human subject research is a “systematic investigation... designed to develop or contribute to generalizable knowledge” with “a living individual” and has an attendant protocol (United States Department of Health and Human Services Office for Human research Protections, 2005:46.102/d). In consideration of cultural sensitivity and neutrality, and human subject research protocol, namely (human) subjects’ rights and dignity, the ethics pertaining to the research and the researcher, numerous recommendations for practices and questionnaire development were referenced. A comprehensive checklist was prepared and adhered to in the conceptual framework, and the writing and sequencing of the questions for the structured open-ended questionnaire. To this end, handbooks, guidelines and checklists prepared by numerous authors were reviewed in the compilation and choice of the qualitative instrument (See Eiselen & Uys, 2005; Brancato, Macchia, Murgia, Signore, Simeoni, Blanke, Korner, Nimmergut, Lima, Paulino, Hoffmeyer & Zlotnik, 2006; Pennel & Kirsten, 2008; Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010; Chow, Gokiert & Parsa, 2011; Alcser, Antoun, Bowers, Clemens & Lien, 2011). In the compilation of the structured open-ended questionnaire, the researcher considered the questionnaire checklist in Gien Snelgar (2010:107) as an additional guideline. An effective design for a rigorous research instrument adheres to the recommended process of design, research protocol, is ethically considerate, culturally sensitive, culturally neutral and English proficiency sensitive. The recommendations are listed below.

The design of the structured open-ended questionnaire considered the procedural steps recommended by Eiselin & Uys, 2005:2-16; Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010:11-19) when designing the research structured open-ended questionnaire.

The research question and aims of the research study informed the type of questionnaire, the choice of question and the layout and length for the research study. A structured open-ended questionnaire verbally delivered by the researcher was selected specifically, as the ELL’s parents may have difficulty or feel overwhelmed by a written and therefore closed ended questionnaire which would affect validity. The length of the questionnaire was deliberately kept within Dornyei and Taguchi’s (2010:12) four page, thirty-minute limit in consideration of respondent fatigue (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2012:9) bearing in mind that the respondents were responding in a SL and in addition had an active under seven learner waiting in the wings.

The target population the ELL was defined, isolated and selected randomly ensuring that the selection is based on “chance” and not “extraneous or subjective factors” (Dornyei, 2010:61).
Expert opinion and feedback was solicited from Professor N.M. Nel and Mrs. Muller (UNISA) to assess whether all relevant areas had been covered and in addition whether or not the questions themselves solicited the information required in order to answer the research question.

An informal preliminary pilot study soliciting broad and general information informed the predetermined categories which informed the design of the structured open-ended questionnaire and are aligned with the research question.

A second pilot study was conducted as part of an ELL class exercise in order to isolate and eliminate potential problem areas. At this time, it was noted that the socioeconomic questions pertaining to income level brought about some discomfort and were therefore eliminated.

Due to the intrusive nature of the questions on the questionnaire, five basic ethical principles were addressed (See 3.7). In addition, The College of Education, UNISA Ethical Review and Clearance document was obtained prior to the commencement of research.

Threatening or sensitive questions were avoided and questions where possible were phrased with neutrality in mind and emotive issues were avoided.

Considerations amongst others were, cultural and social background, family details, languages spoken at home, literacy appreciation, and skills, competence in English and availability of support from school and community (adapted from Gien Snelgar, 2010:107).

The sections of the structured open-ended questionnaire based on the predetermined categories from the pilot study were ordered logically and begin with soliciting the biographical information which was deemed by the researcher as nonthreatening and proceed as follows:

Section A (Questions 1-9) was formulated to capture the biographical details inclusive of place of birth, duration of residency, and parents mother tongue of respondents.

Section B (Questions 10-22) was formulated to capture the cultural, language, participation and perception of inclusion or exclusion of respondents.

Section C (Questions 23-31) focused on retrieving perceptions of community inclusion and support.

Section D (Questions 32 -43) was designed to capture the language and literacy variables pertaining to the learners.

The structured open-ended questionnaire data was retrieved from the parent/translator via the researcher. Translators were provided upon request by the parents and made available by the immigrant societies, schools and community centres in Metro Vancouver and on Vancouver Island.
The service was provided only where respondents’ LEP inhibited their ability to respond to the questions posed by the researcher. No translators were required on Salt Spring Island. Translators met with the researcher prior to the research commencing for an overview and understanding of the questionnaire itself and the clarification of the terms therein, inclusive of the confidentiality protocol and required sensitivity. Questionnaire testing is critical for identifying difficulties for both the participants and the researcher (Handbook of Recommended Practices for Questionnaire Development and Testing in the European Statistical System, 2008). It is additionally, one of the basic requirements prior to data collection for the Code of Practice and protocols aforementioned (Handbook of Recommended Practices for Questionnaire Development and Testing in the European Statistical System, 2008:II). In accordance with the aforementioned, prior to the participants of the study completing the questionnaire, the original questionnaire was administered by a volunteer teacher at the Salt Spring Literacy Society to five adult ELL’s, as an in classroom exercise, namely “How to respond to Questionnaires?” The EL teacher administered the structured open-ended questionnaire on an individual basis to each of the five learners and then asked for feedback. It was noted that there was some discomfort experienced by the participants in disclosing their economic status. In consideration of cultural sensitivity, respect for the participants and in accordance with the building of trust and therefore gaining cooperation for accurate data retrieval, the section was deleted as was the section pertaining to reasons for immigrating.

The structured open-ended questionnaire applied in this research study is factual (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010:5), probing the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ and designed to gather the demographic and social contextual information from respondents in order to provide insight into the ‘dynamics’ of the home, classroom and school life (Hesse-Biber, 2010:43) of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. The questions target the social context of school participation, constructing the social story pertaining to the ELL and their parents, which are difficult to quantify and are often elusive (Hesse-Biber, 2010:43; 26). This process draws from a micro-ethnographic methodology and is guided by the constructivist paradigm constructing knowledge (Creswell, 2014:243) via the structured open-ended questionnaire as instrument to establish the CALD background and give meaning to the ELL’s reality as they acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home. The findings of the questionnaire in accordance with the mixed methods methodology, are used to broaden and substantiate the quantitative assessment (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:2). Consolidation of the data and the interpretation of the results for both the qualitative and quantitative data follow in Chapter 4.

3.4.9.2 Quantitative assessment methods and instruments
Standardised measuring instruments used in the quantitative study are tabled below, followed by a detailed explanation of the instrument, method, application and justification for use.

**Table 3.5 Standardised Measuring instruments used for assessing the LLP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Designer</td>
<td>Lombardino</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lieberman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of instrument</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administered by researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents details and age range selected from 15 information rich sites and community notice boards</td>
<td>N=25 ELL’s (subjects)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=25 monolingual learners (comparison)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ages: Four to six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K1- Grade 1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>from Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stated objectives</td>
<td>Tests literacy and language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills tested</td>
<td>1. Letter Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Rhyme Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Basic Concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Receptive Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Parallel Sentence Production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Elision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Word Relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Phonics Knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Sound Categorisation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Sight word Recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Listening Comprehension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Assessment of literacy and language (ALL).

The ALL is a standardised norm referenced series of sub tests (see Table 3.5) and a scaled assessment, based on a review of the literature on evidence based research and clinical practice regarding language and literacy (Lombardino, Lieberman & Brown, 2005a:75). It is used to evaluate the development of language and emergent literacy skills of prekindergarten, kindergarten and first grade learners. The primary purpose of the ALL is to identify learners who exhibit language disorders, in this instance LEP and identify learners who are at risk for later literacy acquisition due to specific risk factors including environment, hereditary and difficulties with the phonological system of language. The ALL targets the information upon which the LLP is formed. In this research study, the ALL will not be used for diagnostic purposes but merely to establish the LLP’s of ELL’s and English monolinguals for comparative purposes. The Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL) was administered by the researcher individually to each learner in both groups (i.e., the ELL’s the subject group and English monolinguals the comparison group). The assessments were administered at the Salt Spring Literacy Centre, the Immigrant Societies and the public libraries in dedicated pre reserved quiet rooms. The learners were not matched grade for grade, nor age for age nor monolingual to ELL. The learners were selected randomly from the information rich sites, grouped together provided they matched the criteria for the research study (i.e., aged between four to six, in K1, K2 or Grade 1 and complied with the home language requirement, namely, English as a home language for the monolinguals and a language other than English for the ELL’s.

The purpose of the analysis is an investigation into the literacy and language skills (LLP) of both the comparison group and the subjects for comparative purposes.

ALL subtests are divided into three levels, namely the indicator, diagnostic and criterion referenced. The indicator subsets are administered initially to establish the risk for reading difficulties resulting from language impairment. The subtests selected are indicated by the standardisation sample and the clinical sample where the learner manifested the most significant differences in performance in each grade. Therefore the initial indicator subtests are different for each grade. The diagnostic subtests are used to identify if the learner’s difficulties which arise from language and or emergent literacy deficits. The diagnostic subtests are administered if the learner has performed poorly in the indicator subtests. The criterion – referenced subtests, the third level are administered to evaluate additional clinical behaviours associated with language and literacy impairment. The criterion – referenced assessment will not be used in this research study as the purpose of the study is comparison not diagnostic.
ALL subtest scores provide a measure of specific aspects of language and emergent literacy dependent on the choice of subtest and the learners’ response. The subtest scale scores are normative specifically used for comparing the learner’s score to the performances of those learners in the same grade and semester/term group.

The language and literacy analysis, a quantitative, bivariate, non-experimental comparative study, was administered by the researcher on an individual basis. As per the ALL stimulus book (Lombardino et al., 2005), a trial item for each subtest administered was given by the researcher, facilitating the response strategy required of the learner to be well established prior to beginning the assessment. The time taken for each subtest was approximately ten minutes including the trial items.

A comparative relationship of the mean was investigated using eleven variables, namely, Letter knowledge, Rhyme knowledge, Basic concepts, Receptive vocabulary, Parallel sentence production Elision, Word relationships, Phonics knowledge, Sound categorisation, Sight word recognition, Listening comprehension for each learner. The scaled scores originating from the raw scores were used to calculate the means (See tables in Appendix B1 - 22). However as with any assessment, normal caution should be exercised when accepting any assessment of skills which are as complex as those required for literacy acquisition. Nevertheless, the foregoing results should enable user confidence for the ALL when used with the population for which it was designed in this instance Kindergarten 1 – Grade 1, as a valid measure of accuracy for language and future literacy acquisition.

Viable language proficiency and emergent literacy skills function in tandem in the acquisition of literacy or learning to read. The skills are developmental, age appropriate and failure to achieve such, leads to the life long and devastating effects of reading failure (Lombardino et al., 2002:1).

The primary objective (See 1.5) of this research, namely, to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP is addressed by the comparison of the LLP provided by the diagnostic ALL assessment.

A report on the language and literacy levels of the learner was available to parents at the sites where the assessment had taken place. The report back occurred one week after the assessment, was a one off and given as a courtesy for participating in the study. The time and dates for the feedback were scheduled at the time of the assessment.

3.5 Recording and electronic capturing of data

3.5.1 Qualitative data recording

Analysing qualitative data necessitates the construction of and interpretation for meaning from the data retrieved (i.e., making sense of the data). To this end and compliant with the constructivist paradigm (See 3.3.2), “continual reflection” and “analytical questioning” (Creswell, 2009: 182) was
applied by the researcher to the qualitative data retrieved for this research study. Creswell (2009:184) noted that qualitative data analysis “is conducted concurrently with data gathering, making interpretations and writing reports” and as such is discussed in this light below.

Data recording and analysis for the qualitative strand of the mixed research study occurred in three stages:

- **The first stage**: An informal pilot study – field notes informing the framework of the structured open-ended questionnaire.
- **The second stage**: A pilot study - to isolate and eliminate potential problem areas on the structured open-ended questionnaire.
- **The third stage**: a. Delivery of the structured open-ended questionnaire to the respective parents of the 50 learner respondents.
  b. Preparing the data for analysis

The first stage of the qualitative data collection process was an informal pilot study over the course of three years. The textual data was retrieved in the form of transcribed notes solicited from parent/teacher interviews at the researcher’s place of work. Informed parent and school consent was obtained. The collated data retrieved was organised and prepared for analysis by: transcribing the data into segments, seeking patterns, coding the data, describing the data and categorizing the data. The emergent categories were applied to the broad design of the structured open-ended questionnaire as predetermined categories (See 3.4.9.1), thus the purpose of the pilot study. The predetermined categories once analysed were then divided into subcategories (i.e., the questions See Appendix A-3) on the structured open ended questionnaire applied in this research study.

The second stage: A pilot study - to isolate and eliminate potential problem areas specifically relating to the questions on the structured open-ended questionnaire detailed in section 3.4.9.1 was delivered. The transcribed data was retrieved for analysis and was constructivist in nature in that it focused on the “perspectives, feelings and beliefs of the participants” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:347). To this end, The adult ELL classroom teacher (prepared by the researcher, selected on work experience with adult ELL’s, in addition to Canadian teaching and TESOL qualifications) delivered the structured open-ended questionnaire followed by a group discussion where the participants were encouraged to flag and discuss (i.e., give reasons as to why) questions which initiated personal discomfort. The relevant questions (relating to income, qualifications and profession) were noted along with the ELL’s responses (reasons) as to why the respondents were sensitive towards the highlighted questions. The data was organised, transcribed into mini segments
and coded. The emerging pattern isolated and brought meaning to the most sensitive questions and the researcher in consult with the ELL teachers and the respondents, removed the sensitive questions from the structured open-ended questionnaire.

The third stage:
The structured open-ended questionnaire was administered by the researcher to each respondent (the respective parent of each the 25 English monolingual learners and the 25 ELL’s). The data retrieved from the structured open-ended questionnaire further aligned the predetermined categories and subcategories with the research question by organizing the solicited profile data of the learners and their parents.

The data for the third stage was collected via an electronic audio recording with the respondent’s permission. In addition notes were taken by the researcher for the purpose of recording non-verbal behaviour and points of interest. In so doing, furthering the “construction of “an in depth portrait of a sociocultural group (Leedy & Ormond, 2013:145), namely the ELL’s and thereby upholding the micro ethnographic strategy of enquiry. The data retrieved (answers to the questions on the structured open-ended questionnaire) was in the narrative form (See Appendix A-7). The data was replayed and listened to repeatedly by the researcher in preparation for the data analysis to follow. In addition the notes taken (describing body language, responses that were not immediately clear, difficult translations and so forth) were reviewed and prepared for the data analysis. Throughout the data retrieval process, the researcher maintained a reflexive journal reflecting upon the social interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee, in addition to the interaction between the interviewee, translator and interviewer. The researcher reflected upon aspects of demographics, socio economic status and background and in addition, how the researcher herself may have influenced the respondents, or how the respondents may have influenced her. To this end, sanitizing the researcher to unrecognised prejudices and social bias within herself which could, if not addressed, impact the credibility of the research.

The data was reflected upon, organised, transcribed into segments for meaning retrieval and then coded. The coded data was categorised into yes/no categories by the researcher in preparation for the comparative analysis. The respondents were encouraged by the researcher to respond in the narrative form (as demonstrated in the transcript example in Appendix A-7) via trust building and gentle probing within the parameter of the structured question, to accommodate language and comprehension ability. To this end, retrieving information rich data in response to the open ended
questions (See 3.4.9). The researcher acknowledges, that a non-conformant approach with regard to the qualitative strand of the mixed method study follows. The categorised data was transcribed to a composite table of ‘yes’-response-options of participants for comparative purposes for the following reason. The LEP of the SL learners presented a challenge to the researcher with regard to the retrieval of the “in depth description and interpretation of cultural patterns [perspectives and beliefs]” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:343) as is required in a micro ethnographic study (See example of the transcript in Appendix A-7). To this end, the researcher chose to convert the categories created from the narrative data retrieved from the structured open-ended questionnaire into yes/no categories in preparation for the comparative study. The data however, is still presented in chapter 4 as qualitative data and is treated as such throughout the research even if technically this is not the case. The breakdown of the analysis follows.

The ‘yes’-response-options of participants to questionnaire questions were manually recorded by the researcher (on the frequency response form) and thereafter electronically captured and analysed. Analysis consisted of composite tables of “yes”-response frequencies – comparing ELL learners to English monolingual learners - to the four subsets of questionnaire statements that queried the four CALD aspects: cultural and linguistic background (CALD background); language literacy and participatory levels (inclusion); barriers to inclusion within the community (vulnerability); and language and literacy (LLP indicators). For example, entries in the composite CALD background frequency table consisted of the frequencies of ‘yes’-responses for the ELL and English monolingual parents to questions of whether the learners was born in Canada (q4); and whether the parent and spouse speak English at home (q8). (Please refer to questionnaire example in Appendix A-3).

In sum, data analysis is reflective and analytical in nature and therefore record of the field notes, discussion notes and audio recordings are maintained by the researcher. The researcher purposefully chose to administer the structured open-ended questionnaires (and the quantitative assessments) in consideration of the LEP of the respondents and in so doing ensure accuracy and therefore validity (Creswell, 2009:190).

3.5.2 Quantitative data recording and capturing

As indicated in section 3.4.9.2 that discussed the ALL test, the version of the test used in this research evaluated 11 components of language and literacy skills, namely:

1. Letter Knowledge
2. Rhyme Knowledge
3. Basic Concepts
The learner’s literacy skills and language development are assessed in this battery of tests by presenting the learner with a subset of tasks and activities associated with each test. For example to assess a learner’s basic concepts perception/ or skills, the assessment activity in this instance is the learner’s ability to correctly identify pictures that best represents a specific concept. Another example of assessment activities for the language component of sight word recognition, would be the learner reading a subset of words. For each subtest the number of correct responses to activities forms the learners’ raw score for the specific assessment. A normed score (that positions the learner in relation to all learners in British Columbia of his/ her age and grade) is derived from the learners’ raw scores for each subtests from tables of normed scored developed by the designers of the ALL test for the region of British Columbia. Therefore, for each of the 25 English monolingual and 25 ELL’s assessed in this research, a set of 11 raw score - and normed (or standardised) scores are obtained. The range of the normed (standardised) scores for each ALL subset varies between 1 and 15. Where a value of ‘1’ would represent poor performance and 15 excellent performance compared to the grade and age-appropriate learners in British Columbia. Once all learners were assessed the 11 pairs of raw - and normed scores were electronically captured to an EXCEL spreadsheet.

3.6 The statistical analysis strategy of the research

As part of the design of an analysis strategy this research had to consider (i) the research questions and hypotheses; (ii) identify the type of data collected and identify the variables (questionnaire questions) or subsets of questionnaire questions of interest to specific research questions or hypotheses; (iv) and, select appropriate statistical analysis techniques that will reliably analyse variables linked to a specific research question/ or hypothesis and data type, and, in so doing, answer to the relevant question or hypothesis.
3.6.1 Research questions/ or hypotheses

As a first step in designing an analysis strategy for the research, the research question of the study was again considered, which asks:

*Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?*

This question concerns differences between two groups of learners, namely ELL and English monolingual learners. When differences need to be established appropriate techniques will include the family of techniques that compares groups. The question can further be asked as to which groups to compare; and, what measures of the groups should be compared? For the purpose of this research comparison should firstly cover the various aspects of the CALD background of the two groups (ELL’s and English monolingual learners) and secondly the literacy and language skills of the two groups (which are detailed in the sub-hypothesis stated in section 3.4.7.1).

3.6.2 Identification of data type and variables of interest, CALD and ALL variables

Variables of interest to the CALD comparison of ELL’s and English monolingual learners consisted of four subsets of respectively 6; 13; 9; 12; ‘yes’ (or ‘no’) questionnaire statement responses per participants to four aspects of CALD, namely:
- Cultural and linguistic background;
- Language literacy and participatory levels;
- Barriers to inclusion in the community;
- Language and literacy variables.

It was reasoned that responses to these questions could be captured in an EXCEL data file as entries of ‘1’ for ‘yes’ responses and ‘2’ for ‘no’ responses to these subsets of questionnaire statements. The type of data recorded in this way would represent categorical data (‘yes’, or ‘no’). A variable was created, a learner group identifier with values of ‘1’ to represent ELL’s s ‘2’ to represent monolingual English learners. This variable represented a categorical variable. Four comparisons for the four aspects of LLP between the two learner groups could then be done by contrasting the total number of ‘yes’ responses between the two groups for each question in a particular subsets of LLP questions. In this way the researcher would be able to assess whether the CALD background of the two groups differ. The differences could then be described. Likewise, the ALL questionnaire responses consisted
of eleven raw and normed/standardised scores per participant for the eleven aspects of Letter Knowledge; Rhyme Knowledge; Basic Concepts; Receptive Vocabulary; Parallel Sentence Production; Elision; Word Relationships; Phonics Knowledge; Sound Categorisation; Sight word Recognition; and Listening Comprehension. In the EXCEL data file that captured the ALL raw and standardised/normed scores, a unique id number as well as a learner-type entry should also be recorded. This would allow research to uniquely identify each learner and also categorise each learner into either the ELL or English monolingual language speaking group. In the case quantitative analyses the raw and normed scores represented scale data. The learner-group identifier in this case represented categorical. The creation of a group-identifier or variable (ELL/English monolingual learner) would assist research to compare groups using appropriate analysis techniques (section 3.6.3). By virtue of the learner id and group identifier the qualitative and quantitative data bases could also be combined into a single data base.

3.6.3 Analysis strategy
Against the background of the research hypotheses and identified analysis variables, an analysis strategy for both the CALD and ALL data could be designed. The analysis strategy included the following:
(a) CALD analyses, frequency distributions and bar graphs:
The purpose of the analysis of the CALD data would be to sketch the cultural and linguistic background circumstances of urban-Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island, Salt Spring and environment learners. The description should also distinguish between ELL’s and English monolingual learners to allow research to identify properties that distinguish the ELL learner from the English monolingual learner in a teaching environment (as a vulnerable group). To serve this purpose, four composite frequency tables and associated bar graph presentations can be calculated that compare the frequencies of ‘yes’ responses to a the particular (four) subsets of questions that probe an aspect of CALD for the English monolingual and ELL learners groups. It is argued that such a comparison over the two learners groups will highlight and describe how the CALD background of ELL’s and monolingual learners differ. As mentioned, the CALD questionnaire probed four components of the cultural and linguistic background of parents and learners which include CALD
diversity background; language literacy and participation; barriers to inclusion or vulnerability; and language and literacy competency.

The concept of frequencies and frequency distributions is explained by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:487) who define a one way frequency distribution table as “a display of a set of scores by the number of times each score was obtained”. For this research the set of scores could be regarded as ‘yes’ responses to the subset of questionnaire statements that probe the cultural and linguistic biographical details of the parental structured open-ended questionnaire (q4-q9). The number of times ‘yes’ was reported per questionnaire statement will then represent the frequency of the specific statement. The one-way frequency distribution can be presented as a table with the number of rows equal to the number of statements of the questionnaire (e.g. q4-q9, 6 rows), and a single column to report the frequencies of ‘yes’ responses to each question. The presentation of the frequency results can be extended to a two-way frequency table by adding an additional column to this table and splitting the ‘yes’ frequencies per questionnaire statement between the two columns, for example for the two learner groups (ELL’s and English monolingual learners). The one frequency dimension/ or factor of the table then reports the aspect of CALD probed (the subset) and the second dimension/ or factor, the learner groups probed.

For this research bar graphs are visual presentations of frequency distributions. In such a presentation the frequency of an event (e.g. ‘yes’ responses to q9) is represented by a single bar (or set of bars if the frequency distribution is for example a two-way distribution) with the height of the bar representing the frequency of the incident (e.g. number of ‘yes’ responses to q9). Each bar in the graph therefore represents an event, for example, the ‘yes’ responses to six questionnaire statements would result in six distinct bars presented in the bar graph with heights representing frequency and number of bars representing the six events of ‘yes’ responses to six questionnaire statements.

(b) **ALL analyses: Cochran-Armitage trend tests, parametric and non-parametric analysis of variance (t-tests) to compare learner group means for the 11 ALL assessment of language and literacy skills.**

With respect to the quantitative data of the ALL test, the following analysis strategy was envisioned:

- **An outline** of the eleven sets of raw and normed ALL scores per learner:

The range of the normed scores is 1 and 15 and assesses language and literacy competency of the learners compared to age and grade appropriate learners in British Columbia. The purpose of such an outline table would be to introduce the reader of the thesis to the ALL variables of the quantitative component, and to the format and type of variables that the dataset consists of. The outline would assist in understanding the further analysis-strategy discussions.
Non-parametric analysis, **Cochran Armitage trend tests**:  
As a first step in answering to the eleven hypotheses of the research, namely whether the ELL and English monolingual groups differ with respect to each of the eleven assessment components of the language and literacy test, eleven two-way frequency tables can be compiled that reflect the number of times (frequencies) normed score-level (scores levels of 1 to 15) were attained by ELL’s and English monolingual learners for each component of the ALL test. A visual comparison of the frequency-distributions of the two groups over the normed score levels will serve to familiarise the researcher with assessment trends.  
A Cochran-Armitage trend test can then be performed on the frequencies of each table (each ALL aspect) to determine whether the normed score-level trend of frequencies differ statistically significantly for ELL’s and English monolingual learners. A statistically significantly different frequency trend/ or pattern between the two groups (for any ALL aspect) will imply that frequency trend of normed scores for the one group will, for example, tend to cluster around the higher score levels, while the normed score pattern for the other group will tend to cluster more around the lower score values. In other words, the one normed score pattern will represent a higher assessment of an ALL component for the one learner group compared to the other learner group. In this way a first indication of differences between the two learner groups can be obtained – which assists in answering to the eleven sub hypotheses of the research.  
Some background on the Cochran Armitage trend test: The Cochran-Armitage trend test is a nonparametric test, which means that it is a “statistical procedure used when the assumptions necessary to use a parametric test procedure cannot be confirmed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:488; Siegal & Castellan, 1988:34). The Cochran-Armitage trend-test is furthermore an extension of the McNemar test (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2013:277), and this test for trend (in frequency patterns) is named for William Cochran and Peter Armitage. It is used in categorical data analysis when the aim is to assess for the presence of an association between a variable with two categories (e.g. two learner groups) and a variable with k categories (e.g. the 15 ordered normed score levels of an ALL assessment test). It modifies the Pearson chi-squared test to incorporate a suspected ordering (linear trend) in the effects of the k categories of the second variable. The null hypothesis is the hypothesis of no trend (in other words, the frequency patterns over the levels of the variable with k values for the two groups do not differ), which means that the binomial proportion (between the two groups) is the same for all levels of the explanatory variable (the ALL assessment scores). (Stokes, Davis & Koch, 2000:79-80; Walker, 2002:280; Support help Cochran Armitage Trend Test 2015).

- Parametric and nonparametric tests: **(Wilcoxon rank tests and analysis of variance tests)**
If Cochran Armitage trend tests are conducted on the eleven sets of ALL normed scores for the two learner groups, the tests provide evidence that the performance of two learner groups (the ELL and English monolingual learners) either differs statistically significantly or not for each ALL concept – which answers to the eleven sub hypotheses of the research. However, this research would furthermore like to detail the nature of verified differences in frequency patterns for the two groups. To inform the research in more detail, both nonparametric and parametric analysis of variance procedures can furthermore be performed on the eleven sets of ALL assessment scores. In this way the nature of identified trend differences (established by means of the Cochran-Armitage trend tests) can be detailed. Both the nonparametric and parametric analysis of variance approaches discussed in this bulleted section and the next bulleted section determine whether the overall normed mean scores for the two learner groups for each ALL component differ statistically significantly. This will enable the research to answer more comprehensively to the sub research questions and sub hypotheses: not only indicating to significant frequency trend patterns between the two groups, but also providing detail of how the trends differ (indicating how overall mean scores for each aspect for the two groups compare - provided they do differ statistically significantly).

The question might well be asked why both parametric and nonparametric approaches are envisioned in this study. The total of 50 learners constitutes a reasonable but rather small sample. The assumption of parametric analysis of variance tests include the requirement of normally distributed data (residuals) and homogeneity of group variances. These requirements are less at risk of being violated for big data sets than for smaller datasets. As a means of ensuring research integrity and quality, a more conservative approach was followed to pre-empt the very unlikely possibility of non-normally distributed data. The nonparametric alternative to the parametric analysis of variance test is the Wilcoxon rank test which is free of the normality assumption. (However the parametric test has a higher discriminatory power). If results of the two tests (parametric and nonparametric) prove to be contradictory, the findings of the non-parametric test will be used in this research. (It should be added that the ALL data sets should be checked for normality and homogeneity prior to parametric analysis of variance being implemented – see Chapter 4).

**The Wilcoxon rank sum test (performed on sets of scaled scores of eleven ALL subtests)**

The Wilcoxon test is applicable when the data consists of a nominal variable (e.g. learner groups), and another variable that can be ranked (in other words, ordinal or scale data). This implies situations where one-way analysis of variance would also be applicable (McDonald, 2014:157-164). The eleven sets of ALL scores are therefore appropriate to be analysed in this way because a
categorical variable of ELL’s and English monolingual learners are represented in these data sets, and furthermore, the assessment measures consists of ordered normed scores that can assume values between 1 and 15. For each of the eleven data sets, the Wilcoxon test can determine whether performance (ALL assessment normed scores) between the two learner groups differ statistically significantly.

The test is based on ranks being awarded to the normed test scores for the two groups and then calculating the sum of ranks for both groups (rank-ties are awarded averaged ranks). The test itself consists of a comparison of the ‘relative rank sum magnitudes’ and the rank sum of the first sample or group is used as the Wilcoxon test-statistic. The test statistic is compared against a table of critical values for the Wilcoxon test which have been compiled for various combinations of group size and significance level.

Although the null hypothesis associated with the Wilcoxon test states that the rank sums of two groups (ELL’s and English monolingual learners) are the same (in other words that the two groups are identical), the way of explaining the identified significant difference is then presented by means of two mean normed scores (for the specific ALL component) for the two learner groups that differ statistically significantly on a specific significance level. The Wilcoxon (or Mann-Whitney) rank test, applicable when two groups are compared, is similar to the Kruskal-Wallis test when three groups are compared.

**Parametric analysis of variance (or t test for the two group case)**

Similar to the Wilcoxon rank sum test, the one-way analysis of variance technique can be used to evaluate whether the means normed scores of respectively the eleven ALL assessment measures for learner groups differ statistically significantly.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) examines equality of population means for a quantitative outcome (set of ALL assessment scores) and a single categorical explanatory (learners groups) variable with two or more levels of treatment. The term one-way, also called one-factor, indicates that there is a single explanatory variable (‘treatment’, aka learner group) with two or more levels, and only one level of treatment is applied at any time for a given subject. For this analysis the test statistic, \( F \) is calculated as the ration of the variance attributed to the categorical explanatory and to the error variance of the anova model. The statistical significance of the test statistic is determined by comparing the calculated \( F \) statistic to a tabulated \( F \) value with \( n_1 \) (the number of classes of the explanatory variable – 1) and \( n_e \) (the total number of observations – the number of classes of the explanatory variable) degrees of freedom. The comparison yields a probability that can be associated with the calculated \( F \) statistic. The null hypothesis of the test - of no statistically significant difference between the group means of explanatory variable - is rejected if the probability associated with the
F statistic is less than 0.05; or 0.01; or 0.001, depending on the pre-assumed significance level of the test (McDonald, 2014:146-154). Since only two learners groups are involved in this research (two classes of the categorical variable) the one-way analysis of variance in this instance is equivalent to a t-test and the determined probability will be the same in both cases (McDonald, 2014:154; Seltman, 2015:171).

- **Box plots of the mean scores of the ALL assessment measures for the monolingual and ELL groups**

To complement the results of the Wilcoxon rank tests or the one-way analysis of variance tests, the statistical significance of the effect of learner group on ALL assessment measures (if statistical significance is verified) can be visually illustrated by means of box plots for each ELL component by depicting the mean assessment score per learner group along with additional central location and spread measures that describe each set of ALL assessment scores (Norman & Streiner, 2008:26).

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:485) define a box plot as a “graphic presentation of variability [or dispersion] of a set of scores”. More succinctly put, a picture or image comparing data sets in order to measure variability within specific areas of the data set. A typical box plot is presented as a rectangle with a vertical line across the ‘centre point’ representing the median of the distribution and therefore the ‘estimate of central tendency’ (ibid). The placement of the median indicates whether or not the data is skewed. (If the mean – also indicated in the plot - and median are both central to the box and closely spaced the distribution is not skewed). The length of the box is determined by the first and third quartiles (25th and 75th percentiles) of the distribution which fall at either end of the box (Norman & Streiner, 2008:26; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:164). Two vertical lines “whiskers” extend from the end of the rectangle to the 10th and 90th percentile with additional points demarcating extremely high or low scores, or outliers (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:225; 2010:164). Box plots for each component of the ALL for ELL’s and the English monolingual learners respectively can be presented to allow further visual comparison of group differences (if indicated).

The analysis strategy set out for the quantitative data in this section will therefore introduce the quantitative variables and the categorical variable to the reader (the table that reports the 11 sets of ALL assessment scores for each learner per learner group); allow research to form an initial impression of assessment trends for each of the eleven components per learner group (Cochran Armitage trend tests) addressing the sub-hypotheses of the research; and inform and verify differences in assessment trends for the eleven components by determining the significance of the impact of learner-group on aspects of ALL assessment (One-way analysis of variance). This approach will thus answer to the eleven hypotheses of the research.
3.6.4 Data analysis

The data analysis for this study is informed by the type of research strategy selected for the study, in this instance a mixed methods strategy was selected. Data analysis will therefore occur in both the qualitative (description and thematic text or image analysis) and quantitative (descriptive and inferential numeric analysis) approaches (Creswell, 2009:218) and is sequential and comparative.

Data was collected from the parents to explore the phenomenon of the at risk ELL’s from a qualitative perspective, while simultaneously, the literacy and language assessment gathered the quantitative results of both the comparison and subject group to explore the LLP’s of the ELL’s. The analyses described, are informed by the research methodology which has been outlined and motivated in this chapter (See 3.2). Inference drawn from these results, including the subsequent deductions and recommendations are discussed in Chapter 4.

3.7 Cultural bias and limitations of the researcher

Bias is omnipresent and as such, the limitations of the researcher are addressed with regard to interpretivism. To this end, the researcher acknowledges that her own personal, cultural and historical experiences do ‘shape’ the findings (Creswell, 2013:25). The researcher, becomes the” human instrument” (See 1.8) in defining the framework for the study and the interpretation of the data captured. The researcher’s knowledge and attitude “create a lens”, which colours the data collection process and the interpretation of the data (Rovai, 2013:37). It is therefore the researcher’s responsibility to capture the “lived experience” of the respondents and present it after “critical self-reflection” (ibid) with limited bias numerically and in the narrative form. In this regard, the researcher made use of the cultural, linguistic and literacy capital and well - founded understanding of ELL’s (elaborated upon below), in tandem with the knowledge and cultural insight gained from working within the ELL environment in Vancouver for fifteen years. In accordance with and acknowledgement of her limitations as the ‘human instrument”, the following measures noted below were taken to address the researcher’s inherent bias and therefore promote the integrity of the study.

A mixed methods research study (See 1.7) was purposefully selected, in that it necessitates the use of both quantitative and qualitative data where weakness in one is complemented by the other and vice versa (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:259), to this end, working toward the elimination of bias.

For the qualitative strand, a thorough review of human subject research protocol and SL questionnaire research was undertaken prior to constructing the questionnaire (See 3.4.9.1).
To this end, in consideration of the ELL parents; no time limit was set for the questionnaire process to accommodate ELL speakers in addition to facilitating translators where necessary. By so doing, respect for the respondents/parents is evidenced, which engenders trust and therefore effective data gathering.

For the quantitative strand, the researcher noted Wyatt et al.’s., (2001:2) list of test adaptations for standardised assessments to limit factors which may impact assessment administration when administering assessments to learners of non-mainstream cultures, namely:

- “Reword test instructions
- Increase the number of practice items
- Continue to test beyond the ceiling
- Record a child’s entire response
- Use alternative scoring”

Lombardino et al., (2005a:8) concur with Wyatt et al., and add to the list, suggesting:

- Attention be paid to the communicative style of the researcher notably verbal and nonverbal behaviours.
- Awareness of the learner’s familiarity or lack thereof with the specific item contexts such as pictures, vocabulary, questions or topics.
- Awareness of culturally specific items which may not apply to the cultural background of the learner such as dialectical variations and cultural sensitivity (for further reading Lombardino, et al., 2005a:75).

In accordance with the aforementioned, the researcher reworded the test instruction where necessary, increased the number of presentations for the ALL test items when required and allowed extra time for a response to an untimed task.

In addition, the learners’ language and literacy skills were evaluated using the ALL where the authors are not only cognisant of but acutely aware of the delicacy with regard to factors which affect a learner’s educational success. In this regard, the ALL Manual (Lombardino, et al., 2005a:8-125), dedicate various sections which inform and instruct the administrators of the ALL assessment with regard to the relevant variables pertaining to the learners. For example, the learners background, community, culture ethnicity and dialectical differences which could affect the learner’s responses and therefore assessment results. The ALL was equally assessed by three speech and language pathologists, all experts in their fields of literacy and language and assessment of diverse populations to eliminate bias in the creating of the standardisation and final draft of The ALL (Lombardino, et al., 2013a:8). To this end, learners with barriers to learning, in this instance the ELL’s are accommodated as is envisioned in the ideology of inclusive education.
Finally, the researcher lived and worked in Singapore for eleven and a half years working with learners and counselling parents. She is therefore familiar with and sensitive to the cultural norms, communication lapses and importantly aware of her verbal and nonverbal behaviours in addition to being tuned in to the verbal and nonverbal behaviours of learners and parents. The researcher is aware that the culture of the respondents is inherently conservative and therefore the protocol for the data collection phase and in addition, the dress code of the researcher will be in accordance with such. This facilitated a sense of comfort and trust which in turn enhanced effective data retrieval.

3.8 Ethical issues

The choice of research design, not only requires the selection of suitable subjects and efficient research strategies but the acknowledgement of and adherence to ethical criteria. Generally, ethical issues fall into categories namely, protection from harm, voluntary and informed participation, right to privacy and researcher integrity and honesty (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:104). In this regard, the following steps were taken to address the ethical considerations for this research study.

The UNISA Research Ethics Clearance Certificate (See Appendix C-3) was applied for and obtained prior to the onset of the research process. In accordance with and guided by the UNISA Ethics Clearance document, permissions were applied for and obtained from the School District, School principals, the Immigrant Societies and from the parents of the learners.

The researcher’s supervisor, Professor N.M. Nel’s input, advice and supervision was strictly adhered to, as it informed and guided the development and ultimately the framework of the research study. Dornyei’s (2010:79) five basic principles pertaining to ethics were acknowledged and applied in the constructing of the structured open-ended questionnaire and the implementation of the standardised ALL assessment.

*Principle 1:*

The fundamental ethical principle guiding this research that no harm should come to the respondents as a consequence of their participation in the research was honoured. Guided by the aforementioned, the parents of the learners were at all times available to the learner during the assessment process. In addition, the questions on the structured open-ended questionnaire comply with Dornyei and Taguschi’s (2014:16) rule of thumb: “do not ask any sensitive questions unless absolutely necessary for the project”. To this end, the researcher was mindful of ‘hidden sensitivity[ies]’ inherent in cross cultural data retrieving methods such as religious beliefs and so forth.

*Principle 2:*
The respondents’ right to privacy was respected and upheld by the researcher who is responsible for and upholds the privacy rights of the respondent.

**Principle 3:**
Respondents were provided with detailed information about the research study as per the UNISA CEDU Ethics Clearance permissions document requirements prior to being asked to sign the consent letter and participate in the research. The true purpose of the research study, use of data retrieved and the confidentiality protocol was documented in the permission letters.

**Principle 4:**
Permission for learner participation was obtained from the parents and the learner.

**Principle 5:**
The highest level of confidentiality was and continues to be upheld by the researcher. This is considered a “moral and professional obligation” (Dornyei & Tagahashi, 2010:80) by the researcher. Finally, the researcher accepts the responsibility of the ethical criteria noted and will uphold the aforementioned to the best of her ability.

### 3.9 Validity, reliability and credibility
Scientific evidence based inquiry in education research inclusive of this study, are guided by six fundamental principles which underpin validity, reliability and credibility. They are:
1. The research question/s is such that it can be investigated empirically.
2. The research study should link to a relevant theory/s or concept framework.
3. Apply a method of enquiry that investigates the research question posed and in addition provide explanations and justification of choice.
4. A coherent and explicit reasoning process underlying the inherent logic of inference from evidence to conclusion in the research study, inclusive of limitations of the research and awareness of bias expected.
5. Replication or generalisability of the findings of the study.
6. Disclose research to encourage peer review (National Research Council, 2002).

The six fundamental principles, inform the validity, reliability and credibility of the study which are dependent on the design of the research study, the ability to generalise the findings, the degree to which the explanations are compatible with the world at large (validity) and the ability to replicate the findings (reliability) in further research studies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:8). Credibility on
the other hand refers to the “extent to which the results of the study are to be judged trustworthy and reasonable” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:2).

With the increasing acceptance of mixed methods research (Bergman, 2009:1) and the constant quest toward a quality inherent framework that surpasses the standards of and compliments the qualitative and quantitative approaches, there is a need for a “formal set of standards” to address the three aspects of mixed methods research studies namely, qualitative, quantitative and integrated (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009:116-7). The integrated framework, based on the premise that many principles are similar draws from both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The integration is conceptualised as complimentary as is the case in this research study, where, the results of one method, elaborate, enhance and clarify the results from another method (Hesse-Biber, 2010:26) to this end informing validity and reliability.

The importance of validity in quantitative research is embedded and well documented, whereas in qualitative research, the concept of validity is contentious and the debate vast (Ongwuebuzie & Johnson, 2006:48). Onwuebuzie and Johnson (2006:48) posit that validity is not about singular truths and not limited to quantitative measurement only “which assumes the existence of one reality only” (Bergman, 2009:15). It is instead a composite of the research study in other words the design, the conclusions drawn, and their applications; validity is the sum of “its parts” (Onwuebuzie & Johnson, 2006:48). The ‘sum’ of this study, in accordance with the NRC’s 2002 principles one to four, begins with the research aim and question (See 1.2 and 1.5), which inform the framework and development of the research paradigm, methodology and research design. In this instance, the investigation of the significant differences of the LLP’s of the ELL’s compared to those of the English monolingual learner called for an investigation which looked at using all approaches available to construct the social story of the ELL and in addition, quantify the LLP of the ELL’s. Guided by the aforementioned and Creswell (2003); Creswell and Plano Clark, (2007); Tashakkori and Teddlie, (1998;2003) and Morgan, (2007) and Greene (2007:8) who argue that “pragmatism is a leading contender for the philosophical champion of mixed methods” the researcher selected a mixed methods design to investigate the problem, namely, young learners acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

The choice of paradigm, methodology and research design, the validity of the entire research study, that is the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the research study, is critical when drawing defensible conclusions from the data captured (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:101). Leedy and Ormrod (2013) posit two questions, which the researcher should consider when seeking to validate the research study and minimise threats to validity namely:
1. Does the study have the controls necessary to ensure that the data collected justifies the conclusions drawn?

2. Can the results of the research study be used to make generalisations to the general population beyond the sample population?

Hesse-Biber (2010:100) poses a third: do the research study methods, represent the phenomenon they are intended to measure?

When answering the above, internal validity and external validity will need to be considered as individual applications, when applied to the qualitative and quantitative research methods and when applied to mixed methods research method.

The internal validity of a research study speaks to the design of the research study, the data it yields and the ability of the researcher to draw accurate conclusions about cause and effect and additional relationships within the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:101). While the external validity of a study, speaks to the extent that the conclusions drawn can be generalised. In other words, correct inferences are drawn from the sample data and then transposed on “other persons, settings and future situations” (Creswell, 2014a:243).

Based on the quantitative principles of validity, validity of an instrument is sought in three forms namely:

- **Content validity** - is the intended content measured by the chosen instrument?
- **Concurrent/predictive validity** – do the scores correlate with other findings and do the scores predict a criterion measure?
- **Construct validity** - are hypothetical constructs or concepts measured? (Creswell, 2014a:160).

In this regard, the researcher after reviewing the literature, as it pertains to ELL’s acquiring language and literacy in a language not spoken at home and personal hands on knowledge in addition to that of colleagues, of the instruments available to measure the LLP’s of English monolingual and ELL’s, the researcher isolated the ALL as the instrument of choice. The choice of the standardised instrument the ALL, was further reviewed, by investigating the development and standardisation literature (Lombardino, et al., 2005a:75-92) for the ALL. To this end, particularly pertaining to validity and reliability, numerous pilot studies were carried out by the designers of the ALL to minimise bias and strengthen validity and in addition addressed cultural sensitivities and dialectical variances. The pilot studies evaluated item performance for prekindergarten, kindergarten and Grade 1 learners of various races/ethnicities, parent education levels and geographic regions (Lombardino et al., 2005a:75). Evidence of reliability for the ALL, was estimated by, test re-test stability, internal consistency and inter-score reliability (Lombardino et al., 2005a:93). Validity on the other hand was
established and based on test content, internal structure, relationship to other variables, and clinical validity statistics in order to ascertain diagnostic accuracy (Lombardino et al., 2005:112). With regard to this study, the attention to cultural sensitivities and dialectical variances contribute to the comfort of the ELL thereby facilitating effective data retrieval. In addition, the ALL is able to adequately measure the eleven hypothetical constructs of the research study thereby fulfilling construct validity.

Validity, from the qualitative perspective, is based on capturing the meaning of the phenomenon under consideration from the perspective of the participants in the study (Tashakkorie & Teddlie, 2010:108), in other words, mutual agreement on the findings. In consideration of meaning as it pertains to validity, particular attention was given to precise data collection “the hallmarks of qualitative research” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:331) by ensuring that critical terminology was ‘low inference’ and understood by the participants as opposed to abstract (ibid). Validity in qualitative research is founded on data collection and data analysis, in this instance a parent (structured open-ended) questionnaire seeking to establish the ELL’s background details. The researcher, noted Creswell’s (2009:191) strategies recommending triangulation (the mixed methods study), thick, rich description, bias clarity (See 3.6) and an external auditor (research supervisor) in addressing validity in qualitative data retrieval and analysis. Lincoln and Guba (1985:290) introduced the umbrella term trustworthiness that included data collection and analysis. Leedy & Ormrod (2013:105), note that both Guba and Lincoln (1985:341-342) and Creswell (2014:199) in terms of qualitative research call for the term validity to be replaced with the terms “credibility, trustworthiness, confirmability and validation”. Bryman (2004:284) introduced the term ‘transparency’ as an indicator of validity whereby the researchers’ reasoning at all stages of the research is clearly stated. Trustworthiness, was sought by the researcher via disclosure as to the purpose and process of the data collection and analysis. Credibility, on the other hand is sought and demonstrated via the findings of the description of the ELL’s reality in the inclusive classroom from a cultural and social perspective (qualitative) and from a numeric perspective by the assessment of the LLP (quantitative) seeking judgment on the results and findings as being reasonable and trustworthy. Bryman’s (2004) transparency is addressed throughout the research study process, by clearly stating the plans and procedures, justifying the choices and presenting the research study, in a logical and well-reasoned format, as is evidenced in the research study itself.

There are numerous new perspectives, which have emerged as mixed methods research evolves validity notwithstanding. Leech et al., (2010:17-31) assembled a framework for validity in mixed methods research introducing the term construct validity, and thereby blends the two approaches (qualitative and quantitative) under the auspices of an overarching framework with regard to validity.
The concept of construct validity is inherent in all phases of the research study inclusive of the literature review, the research design, the evaluation, the conclusions drawn, inferences made and the use and consequence of the findings. Construct validity relates to whether or not the hypothetical constructs or concepts are indeed measured (Creswell, 2014:159). Creswell 2010:59-61 upholds Leech, Dellinger, Brannigan and Tanaka’s (2010:17-31) framework, by noting that the conventional approach in addressing validity inclusive of internal and external validity is to differentiate between and isolate the qualitative and quantitative perspectives. More recently however, the mixed methods approach blends the two perspectives.

In this mixed method study, the researcher approached the issues of validity, reliability and credibility guided by the following:

An understanding, that the validity of a research study is not a singular truth but the sum of its parts and that there are no tests to check validity and reliability and “no absolute rules to ensure validity and reliability [other than to] do your very best with your full intellect to fairly represent the data and communicate the data reveal[d] given the purpose of the study” (Patton, 2002:433). To this end, and, according to and guided by the National Research council’s six principles, the three questions posed by Leedy and Ormrod and Hesse-Biber, Creswell’s quantitative principles of validity in research and Tashakkorie and Teddlie’s principle of validity in qualitative research, the following steps were taken to establish reliability and validity in a mixed methods research study.

1. The establishment of internal validity for a mixed methods study:

A mixed methods research design was selected for the study where both qualitative and quantitative data are collected in order to address the research question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:102). Triangulation of method, informed by the mixed methods research design framework, guided the data collection with both the qualitative and quantitative methods (guided by the principles intrinsic to each). Rovai et al., (2013) note that triangulation requires the use of “more than one measurement technique to measure a single construct”, while McMillan and Schumacher (2013:331) note that “multiple disciplines broaden one’s understanding of the method and the phenomenon of interest”. In this regard, the qualitative method, brings insight to the building of the social story facilitating a deeper understanding of the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home - the research problem. The quantitative method brings the numerical indices which correspond to characteristics of the respondents (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009:139) and tested the hypothesis and theory of the research study. Combining both the qualitative and quantitative methods “enhances the confidence in and reliability of research findings” (Rovai et al., 2013). The data collection procedures followed to ensure internal validity and are detailed in 3.4.9. Qualitative data collection was informed by the researcher’s awareness of personal bias and circumstance as detailed
in 3.7 and in addition transparency and trustworthiness were sought in adherence to the ethical framework of the study. The qualitative and quantitative methods in addition are complementary, compensating for weakness inherent in one or the other (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:259) bringing a ‘coherent justification’ (Creswell, 2009:191) toward establishing reliability and validity.

2. The establishment of external validity for a mixed methods study:
Numerous ‘real life’ sites, namely schools, immigration and community centres with an information rich target population were selected for the research process, thereby yielding findings with broader applications to the real world (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:103). Simple random sampling ensured that every member of the target population, namely ELL’s in K1 K2 and Grade 1, had an equal chance of being selected (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009:6). External validation and supervision was sought from Professor N.M. Nel and Mrs. H. Muller. Creswell’s (2014) construct validity guided and is inherent and evidenced in all phases of the research study, namely, the literature review, the research design, the evaluation, the conclusions drawn, inferences made and the use and consequence of the findings as they address the hypothetical constructs of the research study. Construct validity equally relates to whether or not the hypothetical constructs or concepts have been addressed and Bryman’s (2004) transparency seeks a logical and reasoned research framework which the aforementioned delineates.

Reliability, on the other hand, speaks to the “R[r]eproducibility of scientific research [and is] critical to scientific endeavor” (Johnson, 2013:1). Poor research design, flawed statistical analysis (Hayden, 2013:1) and scientific misconduct are a few factors which contribute to non-reproducibility in scientific research studies. The researcher has described the steps taken to ensure sound research design and statistical analysis, thereby addressing reliability.

In sum, adherence to the six fundamental principles and the addressing the three questions by the researcher, inform the validity, reliability and credibility of the study. The design of the research study, the ability to generalise the findings of the research study, the degree to which the explanations are compatible with the world at large (validity) and the ability to replicate the findings (reliability) in further research studies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:8) and the “extent to which the results of the study are to be judged trustworthy and reasonable” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:2) (credibility) further inform the validity, reliability and credibility of this research.
3.10 Phases of research

Phase 1: Planning – analysing problem statement and research questions
    Select design and research methodology
    Seek permissions from School districts, Principals, Executive Directors and parents.
    Seek UNISA Ethics Review Clearance document

Phase 2: Capture data.
Phase 3: Correlate and analyse data
Phase 4: Present data
Phase 5: Discussion
Phase 6: Conclusion

3.11 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has provided a framework for the research methodology and research design for the study. The measuring instruments, research subjects, the target population and the sample method were elaborated upon. The researchers ethical responsibilities were described, acknowledged and accepted, in addition to the acknowledgement of the inherent researcher’s bias. The reliability, validity and credibility of the measuring instruments were detailed in addition to the reliability, validity and credibility of the study itself. The proposed data analysis strategy for the research study was presented. Chapter four details the results, findings and deductions informed by the data solicited from the sampled respondents. In closing, a detailed discussion informed by the analysis of the results and findings to follow in Chapter 4.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND DATA PRESENTATION

The voyage of discovery is not seeking new landscapes but in having new eyes.

(Marcel Proust, 1913: 27)

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three outlined and justified the research methodology and design of the study in addition to elaborating upon the research data collection framework applied to the study. Chapter four, guided by the aforementioned and in consideration of the research aim, objectives, purpose of the study and the research question (See Ch.1 and Ch.3), presents the synthesized findings and analyses of the qualitative and quantitative components of the complementary mixed model design captured in the research process and furthers discussion on the interpretation thereof.

Of note and in the interests of academic integrity and transparency, Chapter four replicates to a degree, the research data collection framework (in the qualitative study only), data analysis and presentation of findings in Gien Snelgar, 2010 (See chapter 5, Gien Snelgar, 2010). The research data collection framework for the qualitative study utilizes a structured open-ended questionnaire to target and capture data rich and targeted information with the objective of further profiling the LLP of the monolinguals and ELL’s, their language and literacy background and therefore, educational vulnerability. The structured open-ended questionnaire is therefore similar but not identical to that used in Gien Snelgar (2010) for data retrieval. It differs in format and targets and captures data not sought in the Gien Snelgar (2010), other than an overlap, of the biographical details of the parents. The analysis and presentation of data, namely, frequency distribution tables, bar graphs, box plots and t scores, follows that of Gien Snelgar, (2010). The data targeted and captured is unrelated and not linked to Gien Snelgar (2010). The conceptualisation, objectives, synthesised data, findings, outcomes and links are not replicated, nor linked to Gien Snelgar (2010). The 2010 study sought to and established the Hidden Comprehension Deficit (HCD) in learners aged six to eight years acquiring first time literacy in English. The current study seeks to and has established a LLP highlighting the language and literacy deficit and thus the educational vulnerability of the ELL’s when acquiring literacy aged four to six within the inclusive education system in classrooms in British Columbia,
Canada. The sample process is replicated. However, the respondents were not duplicated and were selected randomly as noted in 3.4.8 of this study. In hindsight, the studies as bodies of work are linked, in that they address language, literacy and educational vulnerability. However, from a chronological perspective, the current study could have and likely should have preceded the 2010 study. Language use, results of findings and presentation may appear to be a replica of Gien Snelgar (2010). This is not the case; it is merely a replica of method and presentation and the use of a structured open-ended questionnaire as instrument.

Qualitative data was captured via a structured open-ended questionnaire while the quantitative data was captured via a Literacy and Language assessment (ALL), targeting the eleven language variables noted in Chapter 3.1. Inferences, deductions and recommendations extracted from the findings, are elaborated upon below.

The qualitative findings and analyses interpreted in this chapter delineate the LLP of the learner community, with specific regard to the cultural, language and literacy background biographical details, CALD and inclusion and exclusion within the inclusive classroom and broader community, as they relate to and inform the LLP of the learner. These findings are detailed and elaborated upon in 4.2 of the chapter. Furthermore, the quantitative findings, analyses and deductions, are detailed and elaborated upon in 4.3 as they comply with the research objective and in so doing answer the research question (See 1.5). In consideration of the aforementioned, the research question and research aim are relevant to the elaborations of Chapter 4 and for this reason, are noted below and embedded within the main hypothesis.

\[ H_{0m}: \]
There are no statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills and when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis:

\[ H_{1m}: \]
There are statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to first acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.
The primary objective which supports the research question which is to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and vulnerable educational minority through the identification of their LLP, thereby highlighting the disconnect when preparing the ELL for literacy acquisition in English and the current inclusive classroom practices.

In addition to the language and literacy evaluation, the cultural, linguistic and literacy background biographical details, CALD, inclusion and exclusion properties of the learner community presented in this study aid the further delineation of the LLP and how the prescribed properties inform the at risk and vulnerable educational minority. This includes profiles on both subsets of LLP at risk and not at risk. The main hypothesis, sub hypotheses and their alternative findings and the analyses, deductions and findings will be linked and elaborated upon in a detailed discussion in Chapter 5.

4.2 Analysis and presentation of qualitative data

The qualitative analyses follow and inform and facilitate the identification, description and investigation of the social phenomena of the vulnerable at risk and not at risk learner population’s LLP. Thus, the qualitative analyses, combination with the quantitative study, provide a more substantive insight into the research aim and thereby address the research question. The research objectives, which focus the qualitative study, are adhered to, deliberated upon and realised. In this regard, they support the aim of the study (See 1.2) and the primary objective of the study, which is to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and vulnerable educational minority through the identification of their LLP, thereby highlighting the disconnect when preparing the ELL for literacy acquisition in English and the current inclusive classroom practices.

4.2.1 The identification of extent of, an at risk and educationally vulnerable population acquiring literacy (the research objective)

The primary objective of the study, in other words to isolate and specify the at risk and vulnerable educational minority, through the identification of their LLP is addressed in the qualitative study, in preparation for and in support of the quantitative study. In this regard, the cultural, language and literacy biographical background details, CALD, inclusion, exclusion and linguistic properties of the two subsets are explored. Information pertaining to the cultural, language and literacy biographical background and the participatory profile of parents and learners was collated via an open-ended structured questionnaire (See Appendix A-3) which consists of four sections, namely A, B, C and D. The responses in the qualitative study to the structured open-ended questionnaire are noted as response categories (See Appendix A-4, A-5) and summarised as frequency distribution tables below.
The information is represented in four separate frequency tables each representing the relevant section of the structured open-ended questionnaire, followed by the relevant bar graph for visual presentation purposes. The research objective that each table addresses is noted and explained in the table discussion in section 4.2.1.1 to follow.

4.2.1.1 Cultural and linguistic parental and learner diversity, inclusion and exclusion: Structured open-ended parental Questionnaire

Responses to the structured open-ended questionnaire data was collected from two subsets, namely the ELL’s and the monolingual parents from immigrant associations, community centres, community libraries, community swimming pools and ice rinks, town centres and malls in Greater Vancouver and Vancouver Island. In addition, data was solicited at various elementary schools on Salt Spring Island. Cultural and linguistic information pertaining to the parents and their child – of interest to this study – were collected in the questionnaire. Translators provided by the intercultural society assisted the respondents when necessary. As noted in Chapter 3, in an effort to minimise misunderstanding, cultural and language bias, and dialectical variances, questions were modified or massaged language wise to accommodate the respondent’s language level in an effort to support and therefore target the essence of the question in pursuit of information rich data, where translators were not requested or required.

Chapter 3, (See 3.4.9.1 and Table 3.4) describes the instrument used in the qualitative study, namely the structured open-ended questionnaire and the administration of the structured open-ended questionnaire. In addition, the questionnaire is justified for its value in assessing the linguistic and cultural biographical background, CALD, inclusion and exclusion and educational vulnerability of learners and parents. In this way the LLP of the learning community was probed. The data retrieved (from 43 questions in total) was summarised and is presented in four composite frequency tables each representing a section of the structured open-ended questionnaire (See 3.4.9.1). The frequency tables address the objectives stated in 1.5 and delineate the profile which the monolingual and ELL’s exhibit with regard to their biographical background, CALD, literacy, inclusion and educational vulnerability according to the following sections:

1. Section A - Cultural and linguistic biographical background diversity (See Table 4.1): CALD objective.
2. Section B - Language literacy and participatory levels (See Table 4.2): Inclusion objective.
3. Section C - Barriers to inclusion and learning within the community (see Table 4.3): Educational vulnerability objective.
4. Section D - Language and literacy variables (See Table 4.4): LLP objective of the study.
Section A: Cultural and linguistic biographical background diversity (Assessing CALD: A research objective)

Questions 1 – 3 were not included in the Frequency tables. They pertained to name, age and gender, which the researcher deemed superfluous to informing the LLP of both sub sets. They merely serve as a precautionary check on the parameters required to define suitable respondents, namely age and identification for assessment marking purposes and any queries which may arise subsequent to the assessment such as an outlying score.

Questions (4 – 9) probed the cultural and linguistic biographical properties, as informed by the backgrounds of the sampled population; these are regarded as crucial in profiling the LLP of the at risk and educationally vulnerable community in further analyses. The intricate and well established association of the socio-culture factor, language, as it relates to and informs the acquisition of literacy and therefore informs and defines the LLP, is argued and the assumption supported by the literature (See 2.9) noting that biographical attributes, such as (q 4 and q 5) ‘place of birth for learner and parent’, (q 6 and q 7) ‘English proficiency, home language and length of exposure’ and (q 8 and 9), ‘English spoken at home and literacy proficiency in English’, act as distinct distinguishing background features of monolingual learners and ELL’s. The questions noted best support the comparative cultural and linguistic properties between the monolingual learner’s and their families and the ELL’s and their familial background. For the tabulated response and percentage data, see Appendix A - 4, A - 5 and A - 6.

The six crucial attributes are listed in the condensed composite one way frequency table, Table 4.1. Table 4.1 furthermore illustrates the biographical trends underlying the condensed frequency distributions of Table 4.1 and collaborate with and therefore support the context problem statement (See 1.4).
### Table 4.1 CALD of the ELL community

Frequency distribution of the six most crucial cultural, linguistic and literacy biographical details addressed in the parental structured open-ended questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quest. No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Monolingual (n1=25)</th>
<th>ELL (n2=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Was the learner born in Canada? If not where?</td>
<td>24 96</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Were you or your spouse/partner born in Canada? If not where?</td>
<td>24 96</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>Have you and spouse resided in Canada for your entire lives?</td>
<td>24 96</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Are both you and your spouse able to speak English?</td>
<td>25 100</td>
<td>6 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>Do you and you speak English at home? If not what?</td>
<td>25 100</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>Are both you and your spouse able to write in English?</td>
<td>25 100</td>
<td>2 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency distributions between monolinguals and ELL’s on cultural, linguistic and literacy characteristics are illustrated in a bar graph plot presented below in Figure 4.1.
Table 4.1, in response to (q4), (q5) and (q6), indicates that of the 25 monolingual learners, 96% were born in Canada and 4% were born in the United Kingdom (additional information supplied) – an English speaking country. While 96% of the parents were born in Canada and have resided in Canada, for their entire lives 4% were born in the UK, where they too have resided for most of their lives. The ELL parents on the other hand (q5) were not born in Canada nor have they resided in Canada for their entire lives. Only 4% of the ELL population (q4) were born in Canada while none of the ELL parents have resided in Canada for their entire lives. As will be indicated in the next paragraph the countries of origin of the ELL parents and their children were not English speaking countries.

In response to (q7) and (q8), 100% of the monolingual parents speak English proficiently, with English, the home language. In contrast, 24% of the ELL parents speak English proficiently with a 0% response to English as the home language. The home languages of the ELL’s are as follows: Cantonese 16%, Mandarin 24%, Japanese 4%, Punjabi 16%, Romanian 4%, Tagalog 24%, Singhalese 8% and Swiss German 4%. In response to q9, all monolingual parents are able to read and write in
English and 8% of the ELL parents. (For a “yes” response to (q9), both parents would need to have a generous proficiency in reading and writing in English.)

The aforementioned findings with regard to the cultural, linguistic and literacy biographical attributes indicate that the monolingual and ELL groups differed from one another with respect to place of birth for both parents and learners (where place of birth also reflects an English or non-English speaking country), residency in Canada for both parents and learners, parents’ proficiency in both spoken and written English. Once the significant difference of the two groups, with regard to the LLP is established and elaborated upon in 4.3, this section will be used to describe the at risk and educationally vulnerable population within the inclusive classroom, school and education system in British Columbia Canada with a view to further defining the LLP of the ELL.

Section B: Language, literacy and participatory levels: (Assessing Inclusion: A research objective)

Questions 10 – 22 (listed in Table 4.2) probed the critical language, literacy and participatory properties of the two groups, namely the monolingual and the ELL and are regarded as crucial in further defining the LLP of the at risk and educationally vulnerable community. It was argued in 2.2.2 (Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems theory) that the learner develops language and literacy within a complex system of relationships, namely, participation within the environment, at home and within the community, which impact both the learner and the adults who comprise the environment. ‘Familiarity with the school curriculum’ (q10), ‘participation in the usual teacher/school parent/learner activities such as discussion pertaining to the learner’s experience in the classroom’ (q11), ‘attendance at parent teacher interviews’ (q12), discussing ‘learner progress with the teacher’ (q13) and ‘notes sent home by the teacher’ (q14) act as sound distinguishing participatory factors between the English monolingual learners and the ELL’s. In addition, (q15), (q16), and (q17), probe the participation of ELL’s parents, as it is facilitated by language and literacy proficiency, comfort and accommodation within the communication framework established by the school. The inability to translate and or read communiqués from the school and classroom teachers inhibits full participation and further defines the LLP with regard to the cultural, linguistic, and literacy disconnect of the ELL’s (See 2.2.3 and 2.2.4). This re-affirms Vygotsky’s notion that communities acquire ways of thinking and behaving which ultimately inform their culture.

Questions 18 – 22 probe the perception of the level of support that parents have available with regard to access to and level of support from the school and classroom teachers. It was argued in 2.6.3 and 2.7 that attitude alone towards difference does not create the ‘critical spaces’ needed to embrace the complex participatory, linguistic and literacy needs of the ELL’s and their parents.
Teacher workload, reduction in teaching positions, an increase in teacher/learner ratios, exceeding composition limits and the lack of funding all contribute to the isolation and or exclusion and therefore participation capacity of the ELL’s, and their parents. Questions (10 – 22) acted as sound distinguishers of the English monolingual learners and the ELL’s and their participation in school norms, informed by language and literacy factors. The questionnaire and tabulated data are attached in Appendix A – 3, A - 4, A – 5 and A – 6. The thirteen crucial attributes (q 10 – 22) are listed in the condensed composite one way frequency table, Table 4.2 and are presented below. Furthermore, Table 4.2 illustrates the language and participatory trends that underlie the frequency distributions of Table 4.2. These trends collaborate with and therefore support the description of the context problem statement (See 1.4).
Table 4.2 ELL community: Crucial language and participation issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quest. No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Monolingual (n=25)</th>
<th>ELL (n=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency ('yes' response)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>Are you familiar with the school curriculum?</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
<td>Does the learner discuss his/her classroom experience with you?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>Do you attend parent teacher interviews?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>Do you speak to the teacher about the progress the learner is making?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
<td>Do you respond to the notes sent home by the teacher?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>If not able to translate the notes, is assistance offered by the teacher and or school?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>Are you able to access assistance from the teacher or school if needed?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>Are translation and or assistance services provided if requested?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18</td>
<td>Do you feel that the learner is adequately supported in the classroom?</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19</td>
<td>Would you consider the teacher adequately prepared to assist you and the learner with your requirements?</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20</td>
<td>Do feel free to approach the teacher if you have anything to discuss and is the teacher able to set aside sufficient time to address your and/or your learner's needs?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21</td>
<td>Do you feel adequately supported by the school?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q22</td>
<td>Do you feel adequately supported by the classroom teacher?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Deductions from the structured open-ended questionnaire/interview analyses results: Section B

In response to (q 10), 84% of the monolingual group, acknowledged familiarity with the curriculum whilst 4% of the ELL’s parents are familiar with the curriculum. (Of note, curriculum overviews are readily available to British Columbian parents on line.)

Sixty percent 60% of monolingual learners and 12% of ELL’s shared their classroom experience with their parents (q11) while 100% of monolingual parents attended parent teacher interviews with 44% of the ELL’s attending (q12). In response to (q 13), 96% of monolingual parents consult with the teacher re the learner’s progress whereas 4% of the ELL’s parents sought consultation with the classroom teacher in regard to the learner’s progress. Notes sent home by the teacher (q14) were responded to by 100% of the monolingual parents and 44% of the ELL parents with 16% of the ELL parents noting that translation facilities were made available to them (q15). Teacher accessibility, assistance and translation facilities (q16 and 17) were available to 80% of the monolinguals and 8% of the ELL’s parents, while adequate learner support (q18) was available to 84% of the monolingual group and 24% of the ELL’s group. Teacher adequacy with regard to learner’s needs was responded
to positively by 84% of the monolingual group and 4% of the ELL’s group (q19). While teacher accessibility and availability (q20), was responded to positively by 100% of the monolingual group and 8% of the ELL’s group. Q21 probed parental support by the school and was responded to positively by 100% of the monolingual group and 12% of the ELL’s with 92% of monolinguals responding positively to the classroom support provided (q22) and 8% of the ELL’s responded positively. The findings suggest that ELL learners and their parents do not feel ‘part of’ and do not participate in school activities to the same extent as monolingual parents and their children, which suggest an extent of exclusion.

These findings on the language, literacy and participatory attributes indicate that the monolingual and ELL groups differed from one another with respect to familiarity with the curriculum, parent/teacher interview attendance, access to and support from the teacher and school regarding availability, assimilation and removal of communication barriers such as language which further the sense of exclusion for the ELL community. Once the significance of the differences of the two groups with regard to the LLP is validated and extrapolated on in 4.3, the profile established in this section can be used to further define and describe the at risk educationally vulnerable community within the inclusive classrooms and schools in British Columbia.

Section C: Barriers to inclusion and learning within the broader community (Educational vulnerability: A research objective)

Questions 23-31 (listed in Table 4.3) probed the barriers to inclusion and learning within the broader community of the sampled population and are regarded as sound distinguishing factors in furthering the profile and analyses of the LLP of the at risk and educationally vulnerable community.

The literature review in Chapter 2 supports this assumption as is evidenced in the argument presented regarding the vulnerability of the ELL’s in terms of language, culture and communication skills (q 28, 29, 30 and 31) within the broader framework of globalisation and its fallout within communities and schools (q23, 25, and 27), namely diversity, multiculturalism, inclusion and or exclusion and barriers to learning. These factors best distinguish the comparative inclusion and learning between the monolinguals and the ELL’s within the broader community. The structured open-ended questionnaire and tabulated data are attached in Appendix A -3, A – 4 A – 5 AND A - 6. The nine crucial attributes are listed in the condensed composite one way frequency table, Table 4.3. Table 4.3 presents the frequency distribution trends for monolingual and ELL learners for barriers to inclusion and learning. These trends serve to contextualise problem statement (See 1.4) with respect to educational vulnerability.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quest. No. Section C</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Monolingual (n₁=25)</th>
<th>ELL (n₂=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency ('yes' response)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q23</td>
<td>Do you find the services offered at the community library helpful?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q24</td>
<td>Are translation facilities made readily available to you?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q25</td>
<td>Are you able to access reading material that is useful to you?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q26</td>
<td>Do you and your family participate in community activities?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q27</td>
<td>Do you feel welcomed by the community?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q28</td>
<td>Does the learner participate in the summer activities offered by the community?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q29</td>
<td>Do you have friends who are English speakers?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q30</td>
<td>Does the learner have school friends who are English speakers</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q31</td>
<td>Is the learner invited to play with school friends who are English speakers?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Deductions from the structured open-ended questionnaire/interview analyses results: Section C

Table 4.3 (q23), indicates that 100% of the monolinguals felt supported by the services offered at the community library whilst 40% of the ELL community felt supported (q23). Translation facilities are not required by the monolinguals and it is therefore assumed that 100% of the monolingual community are adequately accommodated with regard to language needs. ELL’s responded at 24% feeling supported (q24). Question 25 probed access to suitable reading material: 100% of the monolinguals responded positively with 4% of the ELL’s responding positively. One hundred percent (100%) of the monolingual group participated in community activities (q26) as opposed to 3% of the ELL’s group. Two percent (2%) of the ELL’s felt welcomed by the community with 100% of the monolinguals feeling welcomed (q27). Summer activities (q28) are supported by 100% of the monolingual community and 2% of the ELL community. (Although not probed in this study, it is of note than many immigrant families return to their country of origin for the summer as noted in Gien Snelgar, 2010). Friendships with English speakers was accessible to 100% of the monolingual parent group and 2% of the ELL parent group (q29); (q30) 100% of monolingual learners have English speaking friends and 4% of the ELL’s have English speaking friends. One hundred percent (100%) of the monolingual group are invited to play with school friends and 3% of the ELL’s are invited to play with English school friends.
These findings on the inclusion and learning within the broader community attributes indicate that the monolingual and ELL groups differed from one another with respect to viable services offered at the community library, access to translators and useful reading material. Participation in community activities, summer community activities and feeling welcomed by the broader community repeat the findings of difference. Parents access to and participation in friendships with English speakers, learner’s access to and participation with English speakers beyond the parameters of the school environment differed significantly. Once the significance of the differences of the two groups with regard to the LLP is validated and extrapolated upon in 4.3, the profile established in this section can be used to further define and describe the at risk educationally vulnerable community within the inclusive classrooms and schools in British Columbia.

**Section D: Crucial language and literacy variables (LLP: A research objective)**

Questions 32 – 43 – listed in Table 4.4 - probed the language and literacy variables of the sampled population and are regarded as crucial and sound distinguishing factors in profiling the LLP of the at risk and educationally vulnerable community in further analyses. ‘Language spoken at home with parents and siblings (q32), availability of suitable books and specifically English books within the home for the learner (q33 and q34), interest and participation in being read to and reading on his/her own, storytelling (q35 and 36), citing Mother Goose rhymes and or other English nursery rhymes and parental knowledge of Mother Goose rhymes (q37 and q38)’ are assumed to be sound distinguishing indicators of the differences between the monolingual group and the ELL group.

Question 40 probed the necessity for ‘extra curricula English’ and (q41) asked if there is ‘sufficient English instruction’ within the classroom. Q 42 and q 43 investigated ‘learner understanding’ (q42) within the classroom context and whether or not the teacher spent ‘sufficient time with the learner explaining difficulties’ (q43).

It was argued in 2.8 that there is overwhelming evidence that deep linguistic proficiency is fundamental to literacy acquisition and in 2.9, that first language development, and ultimately literacy, is a predictable, social and a hierarchical process, beginning in utero and blossoming in the familial milieu rich in language play for example, the Mother Goose nursery rhymes in English.

The structured open-ended questionnaire and tabulated data are attached in Appendix A -2, A – 2.1 A -2.2. The 12 crucial attributes are listed in the condensed composite one way frequency table, Table 4.4 and are presented below. Table 4.4, furthermore illustrates the language and literacy trends underlying the condensed frequency distributions of Table 4.4 and collaborate with and therefore support the context problem statement (See 1.4).

Of note:
In response to q33, a marginal number of parent respondents, noted that books in the home had been added to with iPads, computers and tablets. The ELL’s parents, who responded to q39 with a “no” to English books chosen from the school or community library, were questioned further by the researcher, as to the nature of the technology to which learners were exposed at home. This technology consists mostly of games, educational games and stories in the languages spoken at home. It was also noted that the lack of books in the ELL’s home languages in community libraries was the motivation for the use of technology. The structured open-ended questionnaire was not altered to accommodate this emerging fact for two reasons. Firstly, by the time the aforementioned pattern emerged, the researcher had completed the structured questionnaire and the ALL assessments for the monolinguals and had more or less completed the ELL’s structured open-ended questionnaires and ALL assessments. Secondly, the researcher felt altering the original questionnaire may compromise the integrity of the study. However, it is a poignant point worthy of further research.
Table 4.4 ELL community: Language and literacy variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quest. No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Monolingual (n₁=25)</th>
<th>ELL (n₂=25)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency (‘yes’ response)</td>
<td>Frequency (‘yes’ response)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q32</td>
<td>Does the learner speak English at home with parents or siblings?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q33</td>
<td>Does the learner have books of his/her own at home?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q34</td>
<td>Are the books in English?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q35</td>
<td>Does the learner enjoy participating in stories read to him/her?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q36</td>
<td>Does the learner show an interest in reading on his/her own?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q37</td>
<td>Does the learner enjoy citing English nursery rhymes such as Mother Goose?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q38</td>
<td>Are you familiar with Mother Goose nursery rhymes?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q39</td>
<td>Does the learner choose English books at the school library or community library?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q40</td>
<td>Does the learner attend extra curricula English classes?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q41</td>
<td>Is there sufficient English language instruction in the school or classroom?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q42</td>
<td>Does the learner generally understand the teacher?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q43</td>
<td>Do you feel that the teacher spends sufficient time with the learner explaining difficulties?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Deductions from the structured open-ended questionnaire/interview analyses results: Section D**

Table 4.4 indicates that 100% of the monolingual group speak English as the home language and communicate with parents and siblings in English (q32). The ELL group reported that 0% spoke English at home to communicate with parents and or siblings. Both the monolingual learners (100%) and the ELL’s (100%) all had suitable books within the home environment (q33). The monolinguals reported 100% of these books to be in English with 5% of the ELL’s reporting English books at home (q34). Ninety-six percent (96%) (q35) of monolinguals enjoyed participating in stories being read to them and 100% of the ELL’s participated in story time. An interest in learning to read (q36) independently was shared by 92% of the monolingual group and 92% of the ELL group. The reciting of English nursery rhymes, such as Mother Goose, was enjoyed by 96% of the monolingual learners and 0% of the ELL’s (q37). All (100%) of the monolingual parents are familiar with the Mother Goose rhymes and 0% of the ELL’s are familiar with Mother Goose Rhymes (38). The monolingual learners (100%) chose English books at the school or community library and 16% of the ELL’s chose English books. Twenty percent (20%) of the ELL’s attended extra English classes (q40) with 0% of the monolingual learners attending extra English classes. All (100%) of the monolingual learners (q41) felt that there was sufficient English language instruction in the classroom while 4% of the ELL’s felt that the English language instruction within the classroom was sufficient. Twenty four percent (24%)
of the ELL’s did not generally understand the classroom teacher (q42) whilst 100% of the monolinguals understood the classroom teacher. Time spent with the learner explaining difficulties was deemed sufficient by 96% of the monolingual group and 8% of the ELL group. These findings indicate that exposure to English and the LLP development context of the two groups differ.

In conclusion, the use of the structured open-ended parent questionnaire (informed by the predetermined categories and sub categories of the pilot studies) has provided the researcher with comprehensive data on the differences and or deficits between the two comparative groups with regard to the cultural, linguistic and biographical background diversity, the language literacy and participatory levels, the barriers to inclusion and learning within the broader community and the crucial language and literacy variables between the two groups. In addition, it has aided the realisation of the objectives of the study, in furthering the defining of the LLP of the two groups namely the monolingual group and the ELL’s group.

4.3 Analysis and presentation of quantitative data

4.3.1 Introduction: Assessment of the Language and Literacy profile (A research objective)

The quantitative analysis to follow consolidates the exploration, description of, and quantification of the at risk educational minority as defined by their LLP. The research objectives for this study, are elaborated upon and then realised in support of the primary objective, namely to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and vulnerable educational minority or group through the identification of their LLP (See 1.5) – as base-lined against a monolingual English speaking control group.

4.3.2 Background information

As noted in Chapter three, the Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL), was administered to learner respondents in both the monolingual and the ELL groups. The application of the ALL (a battery of eleven norm referenced subtests) was to test the main hypothesis and the eleven sub hypotheses (See 3.4.7; 3.4.7.1) of the study. By testing the hypothesis, the study aims (See 1.2) to isolate and quantify the components of the LLP as they relate to this study, of the English speaking monolinguals (comparative group) and the ELL’s (subject group). To this end, the ALL assessment of literacy and language was administered to both the monolingual (comparative) and ELL (subject) groups. Prior to the identification (a research objective), description and quantification of the LLP to follow the LLP profiling, a brief analysis of the ALL, its application, an explanation of the score terminology and calculations used, and to close, the scores isolated and selected for the analyses of the study is presented.
The ALL test and the various measurement scores.

The ALL represents a broad range of language and literacy behaviours inclusive of syntactic and semantic skills, which contribute to later reading proficiency (Lombardino et al., 2005:61). The ALL identifies young learners with language barriers which places them at risk for later reading proficiency using eleven norm referenced subtests that assess the language and emergent literacy skills. Assessment measures consist of a comprehensive set of scores for each participant, namely a raw score, scaled score, index scores, percentiles and lastly a confidence Index score. The discussion of the analysis results will indicate that the set of raw scores and scaled scores used in this study are of relevance to this research. The scores are described (See 4.3.2 a; 4.3.2. b.) and applied to the analysis described in Chapter 3 and explained more fully in 4.3.3 and 4.3.4 below.

Each correct learner response to a subtest item on one of the eleven subtests receives a point. Points are then summed and termed the raw score for that particular subtest. Scaled scores are calculated from the raw scores for each of the eleven subtests. Raw scores are scaled (standardised) against a table of normed grade-and-semester specific values which have been compiled for each grade and semester school group. These values are referred to as scaled scores (See Lombardino, et al., 2005: Appendix C 1-5, 155-161) and are compiled by Lombardino, at al., (2005:155-160). Scaled scores therefore provide normative information about the respondents, more specifically, a comparison to learners of the same grade and semester (term) group. A description of the raw scores and scaled scores, follows, in addition to the calculation used to translate the raw score to the scaled score.

a. Raw score

The raw score protocol for each subtest of items for each participant is the sum of the items scored correctly. The conversion of the raw score to its norm-referenced scaled score, is achieved with the use of Tables C 1-6 (Lombardino, et al., 2005:156-161) for the relevant grade, semester (term) and were utilized for this study.

b. Scaled score

Scaled scores are derived for each subtest from the raw scores and are standardised scores from a theoretical distribution (the normal distribution – please refer to the last paragraph of this section) with a mean (M) of 10 and a standard deviation of (SD) of 3. The scaled scores range from 1-19. A scaled score of 10 responds to a typical performance level of a given grade or semester (term) group. Scores of 7 and 13 indicates score-values that are 1 (SD) above and below the mean respectively (See 3.5.2.). Generally, two thirds of learners in a given grade or semester (term) earn scaled scores between 7 and 13 which is considered typical (Lombardino, et al., 2005:27). Raw scores are standardised in the way explained...
above (and used in advanced analyses) as the property of standardisation allows comparison over components, and, comparison to a base-line group. (Standardisation is in essence a process adjusting for a specific component’s variations – it is obtained by dividing by the standard deviation of the component – and renders a component – measure that is ‘unit-free’. In this way the process enables comparison over LLP components.) Standardised scores are therefore uniform and provide uniform information for each variable as it relates to the normal distribution (discussion and explanation of normal distribution to follow), thereby facilitating valid comparison between variables.

Brief motivation for the standardised scores as analysis units that fit in with the Chapter 3 analysis strategy

The comparative nature of the research of this study implies that the analysis strategy (chapter 3) has to provide for techniques (and measurement units/or scores) that will identify whether the impact ‘group’ (monolinguals and ELL’s) on LLP component-measurements are statistically significant. Once this has been verified, the strategy furthermore has to provide for description of the nature of the significant group-impact on measures of the LLP components. This required information type can be obtained by applying the technique of analysis of variance which determines the significance of ‘group’ impact. Once it has been established that ‘group’ (monolinguals and ELL’s) impact measures of LLP, Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means tests can be used as a technique to determine the nature of the ‘group’-impact – in other words, how group means differ for the various LLP component measures. For this analysis strategy, the standardised scores described in the previous paragraph are ideally suited because of their ‘uniform measurement’ property for all LLP component measures (‘component free’) (Wilkins, Rolfhus, Weiss & Zhu, 2005; Zhu, & Chen, 2011:570-580).

Other scores that are routinely/automatically calculated as part of the ALL package include index score, percentiles and confidence intervals and complete a routine profile scoring for the ALL test. For the purpose of the study, which is comparative and descriptive, the raw and standardised scores were however deemed more informative and relevant (see previous paragraph) and these additional scores are only noted in Appendix B 1-22 for reference and interest purposes.

The normal distribution: most commonly encountered theoretical data – distribution

Data sets exhibit specific data – properties (patterns of behaviour). Referred to as underlying theoretical distribution that explains how data behave (e.g. how data cluster around the mean, whether the data is symmetrical with equal proportion of response-data above and below the mean; and whether data cluster close to the mean or are wide-spread, to name but two properties). The advantage of being informed on the theoretical distribution is that every adequately sampled and
sized data set also has variability (or error) included in the data and this imposes a factor of risk/or uncertainty into every research undertaking. When the theoretical distribution of a data set is known, analyses and results interpretation can accommodate risk eliminate ‘error’ and build the risk/or error-estimation into the statistical analyses. In this way analysis results become more reliable and robust. When the theoretical distribution of a data set is known, parametric analysis techniques can be applied. If the data distribution is not known nonparametric (‘distribution free’) techniques are applied. Parametric analyses techniques are commonly the preferred techniques because of the ability of these techniques to estimate error and probability more accurately. Measures exist to verify that the assumed theoretical distribution of a dataset is correct. The issue will not be discussed in this study.

The theoretical distribution that (with good reason is assumed to) underlie ALL-response data sets is the normal distribution, a widely used and assumed theoretical distribution. Properties of the normal distribution, for example include a ‘bell shaped’ symmetrical distribution pattern where responses are more often reported close to the mean and less often towards the extremities. For this distribution roughly 68% of the data responses fall within one standard deviation of the mean; and roughly 95% of the data-responses are expected to fall within two standard deviations of the mean (Stockburger, 2013). In a normally distributed dataset the mean, median and modus will be approximately the same value. These qualities were used to ‘scale’ the raw data response sets for all ALL components and thus provide comparable measures for all ALL components in further advanced analyses discussed in section 4.3.3.

4.3.3 Identifying, describing and quantifying the LLP associated with the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home (A research objective)

Set against this background, a brief summary of results this section, section 4.3 presents and discusses, includes the following, (this was also outlined in the analysis strategy, section of Chapter 3)

(i) An outline of the ALL profile scores for participants.

(ii) Frequency distributions of ALL standardised scores per test and participant group (monolingual and ELL’s) and frequency trend comparison for the two groups.

(iii) Non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sum test (also referred to as the Mann Whitney) and parametric one-way analysis of variances test on each set of standardised ALL scores to establish whether participant group impact the eleven ALL test evaluation measures.

The discussion below will now revert to (i), the presentation of the ALL assessment data.
Assessment data and analysis results are presented in this section for the eleven language and literacy subtests which comprise the Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL): Letter Knowledge, Rhyme knowledge, Basic Concepts, Receptive Vocabulary, Parallel Sentence Production, Elision, Word Relationships, Phonics Knowledge, Sound Categorisation, Sight Words and Listening Comprehension.

To introduce the discussion, Table 4.5 presents assessment data in the format of raw scores and scaled scores for each of the eleven components for each respondent. These scores were assessed from responses collected from research participants that completed the ALL assessment. Responses from both monolingual (comparison) and ELL’s (subjects) research participants were captured.

Sections 4.3.3.1 to 4.3.3.2 then report on the analysis procedures, results and interpretation of results conducted on these assessment scores for the monolingual and the ELL’s.

Table 4.5 reports the raw and scaled scores calculated from the subsets of items that assessed the eleven components of LLP. The table indicates that assessment data was collected from 25 (code ‘1’) monolingual learners and 25 ELL’s. The table therefore presents as an initial ALL profile for the learners. The discussion in sections 4.3.3.1 and 4.3.3.2 now moves over to explaining, reporting, interpreting and illustrating the results of the Cochran-Armitage trend test, the parametric one-way analysis of variance and the non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test.
Table 4.5 Raw scores and scaled scores for the 11 ALL Literacy and Language sub tests for monolinguals and ELL’s

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<td>6</td>
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<td>11</td>
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**Table 4.5** Raw scores and scaled scores for the 11 ALL Literacy and Language sub tests for monolinguals and ELL’s
The brief summary of analysis results to be discussed in this section, Section 4.3, listed the following results:

(i) An outline of the ALL profile scores for participants
(ii) Frequency distributions of ALL standardised scores per test and participant group (monolingual and ELL learners) and frequency trend comparison for the two groups
(iii) Non-parametric Kruskal Wallis and parametric one-way analysis of variances test on each set of standardised ALL scores to establish whether participant group impact the eleven ALL test evaluation measures.

The introduction to the ALL assessment data for participants, point (i) was presented in section 4.3.3 and the discussion now moves on to point (ii) trend comparison of frequency distribution in section 4.3.3.1.

4.3.3.1 Analysis results (of the ALL subtests) - Cochran-Armitage Trend-Test

A comparison of scaled score-frequency trends for the two groups

As a next step in summarising and evaluating the ALL assessment data to answer to the research question of the study, namely, evaluating the nature of the differences (if any) between the LLP profiles of monolingual and ELL learners, the frequencies of scaled score-values (‘1’, ‘2’, to ‘16’) were tabulated for the two groups for each of the eleven LLP components. The frequencies per scaled score value for the two groups are presented in Table 4.6.

Visual scrutiny of the frequency distributions for monolingual and ELL’s for each LLP component seems to suggest that scaled scores for the ELL’s cluster around the lower end of the score scale and scaled scores for the monolingual learners more towards the higher levels of the score scale.

This visual observation was further investigated for all LLP components (except for the Letter Knowledge and Phonic Knowledge sub tests set of scaled scores) by means of Cochran-Armitage trend tests (refer 3.5.2). To recap briefly, the Cochran Armitage trend test evaluates whether - for a specific LLP-component, the frequency-trends over scaled score-values (if such trends do exist) for monolinguals and ELL’s, differs. In other words whether, for example, higher proportions of frequencies are associated with higher score values for the monolingual learners and higher proportions of frequencies are associated with lower levels of scaled score-values for the ELL’s. The Cochran Armitage trend test is a non-parametric test and was used in this instance to inform the comparative nature of the main and sub-research question/ hypotheses. The test is also suitable for smaller datasets (applicable to this study with 50 observations) and is distribution free: in other
words normality need not be assumed for the data (please refer to the second paragraph of section 4.3.3.2 re normality).

_Deductions deduced from the Cochran-Armitage trend-test results_

In Tables 4.6 and 4.7, the cells of each table report the particular scaled score frequencies per score value and language group. The column percentages are reported in brackets in each cell. Apart from the subtest label in the title line of each subtest table, the Cochran-Armitage Z statistic calculated for each component (derived from the frequencies) is also reported in the title-line. The associated probability for each statistic and the significance level that can be attached to the specific probability are also reported. The results of the eleven subtests indicate that, with the exception of the Letter Knowledge subtest (a non-significant probability of 0.21 is associated with the Z statistic of 0.81), the frequency distribution patterns over scaled scores for the two language groups differ statistically significantly on the 0.1% level of significance for the other All attributes barring the Phonic Knowledge and Sound Categorisation attributes that differ statistically significantly on the 5% and 1% levels respectively. These results verify that the response patterns of language literacy performance of the two groups differ statistically significantly (with the exception of the Letter Knowledge component).

The nature of differences between the profiles of monolingual and ELL’s are further investigated by means of parametric analysis of variance (in this instance akin to t-testing, (McDonald, 2014:154) and nonparametric Wilcoxon rank sum tests for each of the eleven ALL attributes (McDonald, 2014:158). (The discussion and interpretation of Table 4.8 and 4.9 that follow explain the nature of the response-differences in more detail).
Table 4.6: Frequency distribution for the two learner groups cross-tabulated with the scaled score values of the eleven ALL subscales

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Basic concepts normed scores Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic = 4.96; Probability (Z of 4.96 under H₀ of no difference in distributions) = <0.001***

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Parallel sentence production normed scores Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic = 4.15; Probability (Z of 4.15 under H₀ of no difference in distributions) = <0.001***

Significance legend:
* : significance on the 5% level; ** : significance on the 1% level; ***: significance on the 0.1% level
**Table 4.7:** Cochran–Armitage trend test: Identifies statistical significance of ALL trend differences for monolinguals and ELL’s

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**World relationships normed scores**
- Cochran–Armitage trend test statistic = 4.47; Probability (Z of 4.47 under H0 of no difference in distributions) = <0.001***

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<td>9</td>
<td>3 (12.00)</td>
<td>4 (16.00)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>9 (36.00)</td>
<td>5 (20.00)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7 (28.00)</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7 (28.00)</td>
<td>6 (24.00)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>8 (32.00)</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6 (24.00)</td>
<td>8 (32.00)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7 (28.00)</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>3 (12.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3 (12.00)</td>
<td>4 (16.00)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4 (16.00)</td>
<td>1 (4.00)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2 (8.00)</td>
<td>1 (4.00)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tot</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significance legend:**
- *: significance on the 5% level;  **: significance on the 1% level;  ***: significance on the 0.1% level
4.3.3.2 Analysis results and deductions: Wilcoxon rank sum test and analysis of variance for the eleven sets of ALL assessment scores

To conclude the discussion of analysis results of this section, parametric analysis of variance and non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sum test results are reported in this subsection, the third of the three discussion points listed in the introduction to Section 4.3 on analysis results reporting.

The question might well be asked why parametric and non-parametric tests are included in this section. It is argued that the sample size of the study is limited to 25 monolingual learners and 25 ELL learners. The total of 50 learners constitutes a reasonable but rather small sample. The assumption of normally distributed data is less at risk of being violated for large data sets as opposed to smaller datasets. As a means of ensuring research integrity and quality, a more conservative approach was followed to pre-empt the very unlikely possibility of non-normally distributed data and apply techniques that are (i) dependent on normally distributed responses, and, (ii) techniques free of normality assumptions. If results of the two tests proved to be contradictory, the findings of the non-parametric test would be used. (It should be added that the frequency distributions were examined and showed no signs of excessive skewness or kurtosis – signs of non-normality).

The non-parametric Wilcoxon rank test: performed on sets of scaled scores of eleven ALL subtests

As mentioned, the Wilcoxon test is a non-parametric test and is applicable when the data consists of a nominal variable (e.g. groups: monolingual and ELL’s), and another variable that can be ranked. In other words, situations where one-way analysis of variance would be applicable (excluding data only presented as ranks) (McDonald, 2014:157-164). When two groups are compared the procedure is referred to as the Wilcoxon (or Mann-Whitney) test and when more than two groups are involved, the non-parametric procedure is referred to as the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Similar to parametric analysis of variance, the Wilcoxon test determines whether assessment data (a set of ALL scaled scores) differ statistically significantly with respect to the nominal variable (e.g. monolingual and ELL’s groups). The results of the Mann-Whitney tests are reported in Table 4.8 and interpretation of results and deductions that can be derived from these findings follow on Table 4.8.

Explaining Table 4.8

Results of the 11 Wilcoxon rank sum tests performed on each of the 11 sets of scaled score values are presented in Table 4.8 below. Each row of the table displays the results of a test: the column labelled ‘Wilcoxon’, reports the test statistic and associated significance for each ALL attribute; and the column, marked ‘n’, the number of monolingual (‘1’) and ELL’s (‘2’) assessed on a specific attribute. The two columns labelled ‘scaled mean’ and ‘std. dev.’ represent the mean and standard deviation for the monolingual and ELL’s for the specific set of scaled score values. For instance the
results indicate that scaled score values/ or assessment for the monolingual and ELL’s on the Rhyme Knowledge assessment differ statistically significantly on the 0.1% level of significance (based on a test statistic of 893.0). In this instance the mean scaled score responded for monolingual and ELL’s were respectively 10.48 and 7.84.

Interpreting the results of Table 4.8

The significance levels reported for each of the Mann-Whitney tests (for the ALL components) indicate that:

(i) No statistically significant group-difference was reported for the Letter knowledge and Phonic Knowledge components of the ALL subtests. In other words, the general performance (mean scaled score) of monolingual and ELL’s on these two attributes were not statistically significantly different. However,

(ii) Statistically significant differences between the scaled score means of the monolingual and ELL’s were reported for the ALL attributes of Rhyme Knowledge; Basic Concepts; Receptive Vocabulary; Parallel Sentence Production; Elision; Word Relationships; Sound Categorisation, Sight Words and Listening Comprehension attributes on the 0.1% level of significance. Test performance of ELL’s and monolingual learners on these attributes were statistically significantly different.

These results compliment the findings of the Cochran-Armitage trend tests (Table 4.6 and 4.7) which indicated statistically significant differences in the frequency patterns for monolingual and ELL’s for the attributes of Rhyme Knowledge; Basic Concepts; Receptive Vocabulary; Parallel Sentence Production Elision; Word Relationships; Sound Categorisation; Sight Words and Listening Comprehension. The Wilcoxon test results indicate how the frequency patterns for the two groups differ: ELL’s on average constantly score lower than the monolingual learners. This is reflected in the mean scaled scores reported in the ‘scaled means’ columns of Table 4.8: the ELL’s mean scaled scores are constantly smaller than the monolingual scaled scores for the mentioned attributes (e.g. 6.68 compared to 10.68 for the Basic Concepts attribute; 7.92 compared to 10.28 for the Parallel Sentence production attribute; 8.52 compared to 10.36 for the Sound Categorization; 7.80 compared to 10.72 for Listening Comprehension; 7.84 compared to 10.48 for Rhyme Knowledge; 8.40 compared to 11.24 for Receptive Vocabulary; 10.52 and 8.48 for Sight Words; and 10.76 and 7.64 for the attribute of Elision.

These results confirm (barring for the Phonic and Letter Knowledge components) that English proficiency and literacy – as measured against ALL assessment measures – differs statistically significantly for ELL’s and monolingual learners. These differences are illustrated in the box plots of
the scaled means scores in Figure 4.5 and 4.6. Lastly, the results of the parametric analysis of variance are reported in Table 4.9 and compared to the results of the non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sum tests.

Table 4.8: Results of the Wilcoxon rank-sum tests to evaluate group-effect (monolingual and ELL learners) on each of the eleven sets of ALL scaled scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Letter knowledge</th>
<th>Rhyme knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon (sign.)</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Scaled mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>643.5 n.s.</td>
<td>1 (25)</td>
<td>10.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (25)</td>
<td>10.28</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic concepts</td>
<td>912.5 ***</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>858.0 ***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World relations</td>
<td>873.0 ***</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound categories</td>
<td>688.0 ***</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>847.0 ***</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significance legend:
* : significance on the 5% level; ** : significance on the 1% level; ***: significance on the 0.1% level; n.s. not significant

Std. dev.: standard deviation; sign: stats significance

* The Mann-Whitney or Wilcoxon test compares two groups while the Kruskal-Wallis test compares 3 groups. (Michael Chernick, 2012)

The parametric one-way analysis of variance confirms the non-parametric Mann-Whitney results

Results of eleven one-way analyses of variance performed on each of the sets of scaled scores of the ALL test with group (monolingual and ELL learners) entered as the explanatory variable in each model and scaled scores of an ALL attribute as dependent variable (Table 4.9) confirmed the results of the Wilcoxon tests in Table 4.8. The probabilities associated with the F-statistic (also the (t-statistic)^2, as only two groups are compared) for the attributes of Letter Knowledge; Rhyme Knowledge; Basic Concepts; Receptive Vocabulary; Parallel Sentence Production; Elision; Word Relationships; Phonic Knowledge; Sound Categorization; Listening Comprehension; and Sight words are respectively 0.4314; <0.0001***; <0.0001***; <0.0001***; <0.0001***; <0.0001***;
indicating that statistically significant differences between monolingual learners and ELL’s were established for all attributes excluding Letter Knowledge and Phonic Knowledge. This confirms the results of the non-parametric tests.

Table 4.9: One-way analysis of variance (or t-test) results performed of the eleven sets of scaled All scores with group (monolingual and ELL learners) entered as explanatory variable in each model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALL attributes</th>
<th>Df (error)</th>
<th>R square</th>
<th>F statistic (t statistic)²</th>
<th>F or t probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Letter knowledge</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhyme knowledge</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>43.74</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic concepts</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>46.40</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive vocabulary</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>35.44</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel sentences</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>25.15</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elision</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>34.29</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World relations</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>31.97</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonic knowledge</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>9.58</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight words</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>20.38</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significance legend: *: 5% significance level; **: 1% significance level; *** 0.1% significance level
DF(error) error degrees of freedom;
Figure 4.5: Box plots illustrating the significant differences between the scaled score means for monolingual and ELL’s for six of the ALL attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Box Plots</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Rhyme knowledge</td>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Rhyme Knowledge Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Basic concepts</td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="Basic Concepts Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Receptive vocabulary</td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Receptive Vocabulary Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Parallel Sentence Production</td>
<td><img src="image4" alt="Parallel Sentence Production Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Elision</td>
<td><img src="image5" alt="Elision Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. World relationships</td>
<td><img src="image6" alt="World Relationships Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.6: Box plots illustrating the significant differences between the scaled score means for monolingual and ELL’s for three of the ALL attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Box Plots</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Sound categorization</td>
<td><img src="image7" alt="Sound Categorization Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sight word recognition</td>
<td><img src="image8" alt="Sight Word Recognition Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Listening comprehension</td>
<td><img src="image9" alt="Listening Comprehension Box Plots" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Overview and conclusion

This chapter outlined the results of the qualitative and quantitative components of the complimentary mixed model design which were applied to the research data retrieved specifically to isolate and specify an at risk educational minority by virtue of their LLP and identify their resulting vulnerability.

In this regard, it was argued that a sub group of learners, namely the ELL’s who acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home and who reside in the Province of British Columbia, Canada, present a LLP which impedes equitable access, participation, excellence and impinges upon the rights of the ELL within an inclusive classroom, thereby placing the ELL’s at risk, when compared with the LLP of the monolingual English speaking learners.

In this regard, a language and literacy background profile was compiled qualitatively, with the compliant techniques and analyses to define and profile the LLP of the sub group aforementioned. A comparative analysis between the monolinguals (comparison) and the ELL’s (subjects) whose home language is not English was performed. It was further argued that if the LLP of the ELL sub group profiled, could be verified via quantitative techniques as having significant indicators of difference, when compared to the English speaking monolinguals LLP, the purpose of the research would be met, namely to identify and profile a learner’s group that presents with a significantly or marked deficit when their LLP’s are compared with the LLP’s of the English speaking monolingual learners.

The qualitative profiling of the at risk group was achieved by collecting biographical, linguistic and literacy information from parents by means of a structured open-ended questionnaire (See 4.2). It was further argued, that the assessment and profiling of the LLP be further determined via quantitative tests applied to the eleven subtests of the Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL) namely; Letter Knowledge, Rhyme knowledge, Basic Concepts, Receptive Vocabulary, Parallel Sentence Production, Elision, Word Relationships, Phonics Knowledge, Sound Categorisation, Sight Words and Listening Comprehension. In so doing, the causal, comparative approach to the mixed model research design are attended to (See 3.4).

The quantitative tests applied, furthered the profiling of the LPP, specifically with regard to the LLP difference when comparing the two groups of LLP’s, namely the monolingual group and the ELL’s group.
In this regard and with respect to the qualitative component of the research design, the vulnerable at risk group, namely the ELL’s were profiled in Table 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 and are summarised below.

Table 4.1 targets the cultural, linguistic and literacy biographical attributes of the sub group and findings indicate to distinguishing features of the ELL’s parent group: parent place of birth (immigrants 0% born in Canada), parental residency (immigrants 0% lifelong residency Canada), learners place of birth (4% Canada), English as a home language (0%), parents ability to speak English (24%) and parents’ ability to write in English (8%). This is supported in the literature (See 2.5.1.) where globalisation is discussed and indicated as an influential factor in defining the LLP and therefore, a determining factor in the vulnerability of the at risk ELL.

The vulnerable at risk group (ELL’s) were further profiled from a qualitative perspective in Table 4.2 with specific regard to the language and literacy participatory levels with distinctive differences noted as follows. Familiarity with the school curriculum (4%), learner-parent discussion regarding classroom experience (12%), parent-teacher interview attendance (44%), progress discussions with teacher (4%), response to notes sent home (48%), translation assistance offered if necessary(16%), access to teacher assistance (2%), translation and or assistance provided upon request (2%), adequate learner support (6%), teacher preparedness (1%), freedom to approach teacher (1%), support from school (3%) and finally support form teacher (2%). This is supported in the literature (See 2.6.2; 2.6.3; 2.7; 2.7.2 and 2.7.3) where inclusion, exclusion, pedagogical ethics and transculturation are discussed and considered influential factors in defining the LLP and therefore are a determining factor in the vulnerability of the at risk ELL’s.

The vulnerable at risk group (ELL’s) were further profiled qualitatively, in Table 4.3, with specific regard to inclusion and learning within the broader community, with distinctive differences noted as follows. Helpful services offered (40%), translation facilities made available (24%), access to useful reading material (12%), participation in community activities (24%), welcomed by the community (20%), learner participation in community summer activities (20%), parent friends who are English speakers (20%), learner friends who are English speakers (24%), learner invitations to play dates, (12%). Cultural and therefore social inclusion and learning are discussed in the literature (See 2.5.1.), support the aforementioned and are considered to be influential factors in defining the LLP and therefore, a determining factor in the vulnerability of the at risk ELL’s.

The vulnerable at risk group, (ELL’s) were further profiled qualitatively, in Table 4.4, with specific regard to language and literacy variables with distinctive differences noted as follows. Is English spoken at home by the learner to parents or siblings? (0%). Does the learner have books of his/her
own in English at home? (20%). Learner knowledge and enjoyment of Mother Goose rhymes (0%). Is the parent familiar with Mother Goose rhymes? (0%). Are English books chosen at the school or public library? (16%). Does the learner attend extra curricula English classes? (20%). Is there sufficient English language instruction in the classroom? (4%). Does the learner generally understand the teacher (24%). Sufficient time spent with the learner explaining difficulties (8%). The findings are supported in the literacy review where the language and literacy variables are discussed (See 2.8; 2.9; 2.10; 2.11; and 2.12). The findings heretofore noted, are elaborated upon further in Chapter 5.

In support of the complementary aspect of the study, and as argued, the quantitative study, further delineated the LLP, by empirically testing the literacy and language components of the learners’ LLP, via the ALL assessment tool and the eleven attendant subtest results namely, Letter knowledge, Rhyme knowledge, Basic Concepts, Receptive Vocabulary, Parallel Sentence Production, Elision, Word Relationships, Phonics Knowledge, Sound Categorisation, Sight Words and Listening Comprehension. The subtests findings, identified substantial evidence of difference, (bar Letter knowledge and Phonic knowledge), in learner ability with regard to the LLP of monolinguals, when compared to the LLP of the ELL. The ALL mean scaled test scores for the monolingual group (comparison) is consistently (and significantly higher) than the corresponding mean of the ELL group (subjects) with the exception of the Letter knowledge and phonic knowledge subtest. This confirms the English proficiency and literacy differences between the monolingual (comparison) group and the ELL’s (subject) group.

The aforementioned attends to the primary objective of the study namely, to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk and vulnerable educational minority through the profiling of their LLP. The ELL’s were profiled as children of immigrants, with limited English proficiency, presenting with a significant literacy and language difference, more astutely put, a language and literacy deficit. This deficit was evidenced upon scrutiny of the LLP both qualitatively and quantitatively. The lack of exposure to spoken English and relevant literature in the home, where a language other than English is spoken and in turn, policies, curriculum and classroom practices not specifically tailored to the ELL’s specific needs, by default and as argued in the literature review (See 2.5) facilitate exclusion. Exclusion in and of itself, may then be deemed a barrier to literacy acquisition and learning. A further barrier, presented in the findings of the qualitative study, schools (q14,15,21), teachers (q12,13,14,18,19,20,22) and communities (q 23,24,25,26,27,28), struggle to fulfil the unique and specific needs of the ELL’s when manacled by funding, policies and proposed practice (See 2.6.3.1). Both modes of the investigation attended to the secondary aims of the study. The first aim is to provide policy makers, curriculum developers and teachers with a framework for and awareness of the language and literacy vulnerabilities of the ELL. The second aim is to enable adequate support
for CALD learners in inclusive schools and classrooms by firstly acknowledging the ELL’s literacy and language vulnerability and then addressing the resultant barriers to inclusion and learning, specifically literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home, namely English. The final aim is to facilitate vigorous and urgent further research (leading to application in the classroom) into the needs of this previously unidentified CALD community and their subsequent educational vulnerability in inclusive classrooms. The primary, general and secondary aims of the study have been realised.

Chapter 5, in conclusion, will elaborate upon the findings of the literature review and the empirical study, aligning them with the objectives and the problem statement which support the hypothesis and sub hypotheses.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“We should not make light of the troubles of children, they are worse than ours, because we can see the end of our trouble and they can never see any end” (Yeats, 1965:41).

5.1 Introduction

Chapters 1 to 4 have integrated and therefore delineated the focus of the study, namely, the ELL in K 1, K 2 and Grade 1, acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, in this instance English. The motivation for the study, namely the ELL’s struggle and vulnerability when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, has been upheld and contextualised throughout the previous chapters. The study sought to clarify, whether the ELL’s, are indeed the postulated at risk educationally vulnerable minority, as they acquire literacy in an inclusive classroom in British Columbia, Canada. In this regard, Chapter 1 presented the background to the study, the context of the problem and stated the motivation of the study. Chapter 2 presented an overview of the theoretical frameworks followed by the literature review, where within the parameters of the noted theoretical frameworks, the discourse on globalisation and diversity, inclusion, pedagogical practices, language proficiency from a cultural, first and SLA perspective and the language and literacy acquisition interconnect were discussed. Thus, the focus was on language and literacy acquisition and their repercussions within these theoretical paradigms. To this end, the primary objective was addressed, namely to identify, isolate and specify the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their LLP and to this end, identify their vulnerability, as it pertains to equitable access, participation, excellence and the rights of the learner in an inclusive classroom as they acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

Chapter 3 detailed the integration of paradigm, methodology, research design methods and instruments research methodology and Chapter 4 presented the findings of the investigation. Chapter 5 presents the concluding statements and recommendations. To this end, Chapter 1 through 5 systematically synthesises and addresses the objectives of the study, thus reflecting the main purpose of the study, which is to answer the research question (See 1.5) and test the hypothesis and sub hypotheses as presented below in Table 5.1.
## Table 5.1 Hypothesis and eleven sub hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Alternative Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(H_{0m}): There are no statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills and when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.</td>
<td>(H_{1m}): There are statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Hypotheses</th>
<th>Alternative sub hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance on letter knowledge,</strong> (H_{01}): There is no statistically significant difference LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against letter knowledge when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.</td>
<td>As opposed to the alternative hypothesis, (H_{11}): There is a statistically significant difference in LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against letter knowledge when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Performance on rhyme knowledge,</strong> (H_{02}):</th>
<th>As opposed to the alternative hypothesis, (H_{12}):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate rhyme knowledge</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate rhyme knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Performance on basic concepts,</strong> (H_{03}):</th>
<th>As opposed to the alternative hypothesis, (H_{13}):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against basic concepts</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated against basic concepts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Performance on receptive vocabulary,</strong> (H_{04}):</th>
<th>As opposed to the alternative hypothesis, (H_{14}):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate receptive vocabulary</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate receptive vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Performance on parallel sentence production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H₀₅: There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate parallel sentence production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance on word relationships,</td>
<td>H₀₆: There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate word relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H₀₇: There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate phonic knowledge</td>
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<td>Performance on sound categorisation,</td>
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<td>H₀₉: There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate sight word recognition</td>
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<td>Performance on sound categorisation,</td>
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<td>H₀₉: There is no statistically significant difference... evaluated against age appropriate sight word recognition</td>
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The objectives of the study and the problem statement have been attended to in chapters 1 to 4 and are reiterated in Chapter 5. Chapter 5, the concluding chapter for this study, summarises the findings of the theoretical framework review, the literature review and the empirical study, thereby, aligning the theoretical framework, the literature review and the empirical study with the objectives and problem statement and thus upholding the hypothesis and sub hypothesis. The chapter opens with an overview of the objectives and a summary of the findings of the theoretical framework and literature review. The research question aligned to the findings of the comparative approach to the mixed model research design study (the empirical study) is then examined in the light of the theoretical propositions found in Chapter 2. Thus, researcher is then able to isolate and specify an at risk educationally vulnerable minority, through the identification of the LLP. To this end, attending to the motivation, purpose, focus objectives and answering the research question of the study.

Finally, conclusions are sought from the theoretical review, the literature review and the empirical investigation. Recommendations are made and the limitations of the study are deliberated and noted. Of note, the conclusions drawn are relevant to a microcosm of ELL’s in British Columbia who participated in the study which limits the inference of analytical generalization. However, conclusions may be applicable to many ELL’s not only in British Columbia but those mentioned in Chapter 2 (2.5.1.3).

5.1.1 Overview of the objectives

The primary objective of the study was to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP. In support of and in order to sustain the primary objective, the general objectives were attended to, namely:

1. To explore the CALD and therefore reality of ELL’s acquiring literacy in English.
2. To explore the ELL’s cultural, linguistic and participatory needs within the current ideology of inclusion and the attendant fiscal austerity prevalent in today’s classroom.
3. To identify a high risk, that is, educationally vulnerable ELL population acquiring literacy and how the ideals of equity and excellence translate in both practice and application for these young learners.

4. To explore and describe the barriers to learning and participation experienced by the young ELL learner acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

5. To explore and describe the rights of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

6. To identify, describe and quantify the LLP associated with ELL’s acquiring literacy in a second or third language.

7. To understand, describe and quantify the difference between the ELL’s LLP as it supports literacy acquisition, accessibility and participation when compared to English speaking monolinguals in the high risk population identified for this study.

8. To explore and describe current budget austerity and how it supports or not, ELL’s during first time literacy acquisition in the high risk population identified for this study.

9. To describe inclusive education legislation and policy in British Columbia and how they pertain to and accommodate or not, the ELL acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

10. To explore and describe teacher preparedness and therefore efficacy, as it pertains to addressing the LLP and the CALD of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

11. To explore the teacher’s ability for inclusion of parents in decision making processes which pertain to their children, the classroom and the school, when language is a barrier to communication.

Secondary objectives of this research are:

- To provide policy makers, curriculum developers and teachers with a framework for and awareness of the language and literacy vulnerabilities of the ELL and to highlight the attendant exclusion via the inability to access and participate in the inclusive classroom.

- Making inclusive education a tangible reality, rather than a silent, covert exclusionary process as a result of difference and diversity for an at risk educationally vulnerable minority acquiring first time literacy in a second language.

- To provide substantive evidence in support of teachers who presently uphold and support, an inspirational ideology without the necessary tools for success.

- To facilitate further research into the needs of this previously unidentified CALD community and their subsequent educational vulnerability in inclusive classrooms.
The objectives are firstly supported by the theoretical frameworks discussion in Chapter 2 which highlight the disconnect of ELL’s and their attending LLP’s. The frameworks discussed are namely, CT, inclusive education, Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system’s theory, the dynamic system’s theory and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and finally the first and second language and literacy acquisition theoretical frameworks from a biological, environmental and sociocultural perspective. Secondly, aligned with and in support of the aforementioned objectives, the literature review analysed the relevant and poignant aspects of globalisation, diversity, inclusion, the pedagogical practices, linguistic proficiency focusing on culture, language and literacy acquisition from a cultural and first and SLA perspective and finally, from the perspective of literacy averse minority learners. Thus, the objectives were aligned with the theoretical framework and the literature review, thus presenting a theoretical framework for the empirical investigation: a simple causal comparative complementary approach to the mixed model research design and a complementary mixed methods approach to the mixed model research design (see Fig 3.1). The qualitative investigation, was intended to create a profile of the ELL’s more specifically the LLP, with regard to CALD’s when compared to the monolingual learner. The quantitative investigation sought to answer the research question: Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom? To this end, the variables of the eleven subtests (Letter Knowledge, Rhyme knowledge, Basic Concepts, Receptive Vocabulary, Parallel Sentence Production, Elision, Word Relationships, Phonics Knowledge, Sound Categorisation, Sight Words and Listening Comprehension) and how they determine the LLP of ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home were examined.

5.2 Summary of the theoretical framework and literature review

5.2.1 Introduction

The focus of the theoretical framework delineated the principles considered for optimum language and literacy acquisition, as they apply to the normative developmental language and literacy milestones of monolinguals. Thus, they provided a comparative framework with which to compare ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home and their apparent divergence and disconnect. The focus of the literature review was to select, explore and elaborate upon a synthesis of current research pertaining to the globalisation, diversity, inclusion, pedagogical practices as well as language proficiency relating to language and literacy, inclusive of the components of language and elements of literacy acquisition. This concluded with a discussion on literacy averse minority
learners, as they relate to and inform the primary objective of the study which to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP.

Chapter 2 begins with the outline of the theoretical framework in preparation for and support of the literature review and the comparative investigation. The investigation explored the development of and parity between the LLP of the ELL’s and the monolingual learners in British Columbia and the environment in which the aforementioned evolved. The overarching interconnected theoretical frameworks (CT, inclusive education and SLA as they relate to social justice and inclusivity, Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory and dynamic systems theory as they pertain to normative hierarchical learner centred development of language and literacy, Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory, as it relates to the CALD of the ELL) and finally the theoretical frameworks which concern first and second language and literacy acquisition from a biological, environmental and sociocultural perspective narrowed the scope of the discussion. Thus, the parameters for the proposed comparative study of the LLP of the ELL’s and the monolingual learners was established.

The findings are elaborated upon below in 5.2.2.

The literature review follows and focused on an exploration of current and past research, pertaining to globalisation and diversity, inclusion, pedagogical practices, linguistic proficiency, language and literacy acquisition and the components and elements of language focusing on ‘monolingual rich’ (Gien Snelgar, 2010:154) literature. Thus the purpose of the literature review was reached which was to devise a vigorous theoretical framework, within which to conduct a comparative study of the parity of the LLP of the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home when compared to the LLP’s of the monolingual learners. The literature review expanded the theoretical framework and contextual frameworks by elaborating on and focusing the discussion toward the overarching and interconnected theoretical frameworks within which the study was conceptualized namely, CT, inclusive education philosophy and SLA. The discussion identified the diverse backgrounds, inclusion within the inclusive classroom and community, pedagogical practices which support or hinder inclusion, and therefore learning, linguistic development and proficiency. Finally, the discussion focused on barriers to learning and how the aforementioned further inform and delineate the LLP of the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. The findings of the broad and complex theoretical exploration and literature review justify and contribute to the profiling of the LLP and the subsequent defining and isolating of the at risk educational minority acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home. The main findings of the theoretical framework and literature review are summarised below for the purpose of concluding the study.
5.2.2 A summary of the findings of the theoretical framework

The intellectual articulation of the principles within the theories selected for this study: CT, Bronfenbrenner’s’ ecological systems theory, dynamic systems theory, sociocultural theory and the theoretical frameworks pertaining to first and second language acquisition, isolated and specified the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority (i.e., ESL speakers in an English speaking country). This exposition highlighted the social injustice, divergence and disconnect between monolingual learners and ELL’s. It also identified the inhibited participation or barrier to learning within the inclusive schooling system as ELL’s pursue literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home. To this end, the exclusionary, disconnected, divergent and therefore subpar environmental variables were examined in tandem with the disconnected and divergent individual variables, namely LEP, which inform the LLP’s of the ELL’s; this further identifying and isolating the ELL’s as an at risk educational minority. The recommendations of this study (See 5.5) are underpinned by the theoretical framework discussion.

The findings of the theoretical framework described the principles considered for optimum language and literacy acquisition, as they apply to the normative developmental language and literacy milestones of monolinguals. The discussion in each instance (See 2.2) raised the pertinent question as to whether or not the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home are being served by the ideals of inclusion within the inclusive community, school and classroom when considered within these frameworks and taking into account the CALD of the ELL’s. The findings of the theoretical frameworks selected, align with firstly, the CT tenet of examining, identifying, confronting and resolving issues of injustice and inequality (See 2.2.1) and secondly, the normative language and literacy developmental frameworks discussing the salient language and literacy developmental disconnect of the ELL’s (See 2.2.2, 2.2.3, 2.2.4; 2.3). Thus, the frameworks provide a springboard for further research, construct an informed, needs based, support network (scaffolding) (See 2.4.3) which encapsulates an ‘assets’ based (Ryan, 2008) support network in line with Vygotsky’s ZPD (See 2.4.2) to serve the needs of this at risk educationally vulnerable minority. The intellectual articulation of the principles embodied within the selected theoretical frameworks aforementioned, and within the overarching interconnected critical theoretical and inclusive education philosophy (see 2.2.1, 2.6) in addition to the SLA theories combined with contextual knowledge, provided insight into the plight of the ELL’s. This realised the ideals of both CT (pursuing social justice through ‘awareness, reflection and argumentation’) and inclusive education as an evolutionary process embodying equity and excellence.

In sum, the theoretical framework firstly revealed the at risk educationally vulnerable minority, identified through an expansive investigation of injustice and inequality as argued in the discussion
on CT (See 2.2.1) and inclusive education (See 2.6). Further, a divergence and disconnect from the normative literacy and language developmental frameworks was revealed, as elaborated upon in the discussion on Chomsky (See 2.3.1), Vygotsky (See 2.3.2) and Krashen (See 2.3.3), thereby facilitating a barrier to participation, function and interaction for ELL’s within the inclusive classroom in British Columbia. Secondly, the theoretical framework explored the parity of the LLP of the ELL’s when compared to the LLP of monolingual learners with regard to normative literacy and language developmental frameworks, when considered within Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory, the dynamic system’s theory and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. To this end, the theoretical framework revealed a divergence and disconnect of the ELL’s LLP with regard to the typical language and literacy acquisition when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home in K1, K2 and Grade1. Thus, the objective of the theoretical framework was served by delineating and specifying an at risk educationally vulnerable minority, namely ELL’s, by virtue of injustice and inequality, in addition to the divergence and disconnect from the normative literacy and language developmental frameworks.

A summary of the findings of the literature review follow.

5.2.3 A summary of the findings of the literature

The findings of the literature revealed the following.

1. The discussion on globalisation and diversity (See 2.5.1) isolated and defined a demographic and geographic population of learners, who by dint of circumstance, are ELL’s in an English speaking country and are identified as an at risk educationally vulnerable minority when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

2. Inclusion, diversity and inclusive education (See 2.6, 2.7), were discussed from a linguistic, cultural and accessibility perspective in order to elaborate on the academic environment of the at risk educationally vulnerable minority focusing on the community, school, classroom, pedagogic principles and application thereof.

3. The discussion on pedagogical practices in section 2.7 further highlighted the at risk educationally vulnerable minority acquiring language and literacy in a ‘conflict zone’, by virtue of identifying the need to improve policy, curriculum and teaching standards, in the area of languages in this instance SLA. This provided the ‘space’ necessary to fully embrace the complex needs of ELL’s, acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

4. Linguistic proficiency in terms of a barrier to learning and as it pertains to literacy acquisition in both first and second language (See 2.8), furthered the discussion thereby isolating and
defining the at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their LLP when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

5. The complexity of the five to six year disconnect of ELL’s in terms of a culturally skewed language and literacy profile (See 2.9) is discussed, isolating a linguistic and literacy sociocultural disconnect thereby delineating the at risk educationally vulnerable minority.

6. The discussion on the language and literacy connect (See 2.10) further isolated and defined the at risk educationally vulnerable minority who by virtue of the ‘time exposure’ to English and the resultant fledgling SL (a language not spoken at home) are expected and required to acquire literacy in English. In so doing, the ELL’s manifest a five to six year English exposure and development deficit of the required language skills for literacy acquisition. To this end, a LEP inhibits the progression from orality to literacy and the emergent phonological age appropriate processing abilities, which contribute to the disparity between the ELL’s and the monolingual learners.

7. Language and literacy proficiency (See 2.11) were discussed from a literacy acquisition perspective and, in so doing, isolating and delineating the at risk educationally vulnerable minority with regard to “poverty of [language and literacy]” (Hart & Risley, 2003:6-9) stimulus and the marked divergence from the theoretical frameworks outlined in section 2.2.

8. Literacy averse minority learners are discussed in relation to the systematic and hierarchical process necessary for literacy acquisition and the ‘toolkit’ paucity and disconnect experienced by the ELL’s when required to acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home. In so doing, the at risk educationally vulnerable minority are further isolated and defined.

The literature review discussion justifies and informs the recommendations of this study which are discussed in section 5.5.

The findings of the literature research described the ideals of inclusive education as an ideology that embodies equity and excellence, is evolutionary and is underpinned by the democratic values on which Canada is founded. To this end neatly tying in with the CT’s (See 2.2.1) examining, identifying, confronting and resolving the issues of injustice and inequality when serving the dynamic needs of the learners acquiring language and literacy simultaneously. The discussion in each instance raised the pertinent question as to whether or not the ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously in a language not spoken at home in K1, K2 and Grade 1, are being served by the ideals of inclusion within the inclusive community, school, classroom and indeed the pedagogical practices when considered within this framework. Specifically, the question took into account the ELL’s disparate language and literacy skills. Firstly, the findings of the discussion on inclusion, namely the
demographic and geographic identification and the ‘micro exclusion’ of the at risk educationally vulnerable minority, serve to provide a platform for further research. Secondly, and in fulfilment of the primary goal of inclusion, the findings provide the possibility of transforming the ‘myth’ of inclusion to reality, via the establishment of a viable and vigorous support structure, which will serve and create a ‘space’ for the diverse needs of this at risk educationally vulnerable minority. Thirdly, the findings comply with and support the evolutionary nature of inclusion, as it realises the tenets of equity and excellence in pursuit of serving the needs of the at risk educationally vulnerable minority.

The literature review firstly isolated an at risk educationally vulnerable minority, geographically and demographically as aforementioned (See 5.2.1). Secondly the review selected, explored and elaborated upon a synthesis of current research pertaining to the globalisation, diversity and inclusion as they relate to and inform simultaneous language and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home in K1, K2 and Grade 1. The findings of the literature review further revealed the disparate, disconnected trajectories of and therefore the barriers to language and literacy acquisition manifested in ELL’s and their LLP’s when compared to the English monolingual learners. It highlighted the:

- ‘micro exclusion’ of the ELL’s in the inclusive classroom, which by default limits opportunities, equitable access and participation. It creates a barrier to language and literacy acquisition thereby isolating and identifying this at risk educationally vulnerable minority;
- identification of inequity in policy, curriculum and teacher standards in the area of SL language and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home and therefore identified the ELL’s as educationally vulnerable learners within this milieu of “differential opportunity” (Cloward & Ohlin 1995);
- a barrier to learning via LEP with regard to literacy acquisition when language and literacy are acquired simultaneously in a language (English) not spoken at home in the at risk educationally vulnerable minority;
- a five to six year disconnect in the at risk educationally vulnerable minority in terms of a culturally skewed LLP;
- exposure and development deficit of language and literacy for typical literacy acquisition, further isolated and defined the at risk educationally vulnerable minority;
- “Poverty of [language and literacy] stimulus” (Hart & Risley, 2003) and the marked divergence from the theoretical frameworks’ blueprint isolated and identified the at risk educationally vulnerable minority; and
the absence of the typical hierarchical process in language and literacy development and therefore the skills ,for the typical transition from orality to literacy further isolated the at risk educationally vulnerable minority.

Delineating the differential deficit between the ELL’s and the monolinguals via the profiling of the LLP, when informed by the aforementioned, highlights the barrier to learning specifically as it pertains to literature acquisition when acquired with LEP as is the case of the ELL’s. To this end the literature review’s purpose and the primary objective of the study, namely, to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP was served.

The ELL’s markedly divergent LLP as mapped in the literature review, identifies the ELL’s within the inclusive classroom in British Columbia as the at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of isolating and identifying the following:

- The geographic and demographic identification of the ELL’s (2.5.1)
- The ‘micro exclusion’ of the ELL in the inclusive classroom (2.6.2 and 2.6.3)
- An inequity in policy, curriculum and teacher practices (See 2.7)
- The five to six year language, literacy and cultural disconnect in the language not spoken at home contributes to the LEP of the ELL’s when compared to the English monolingual learners in K1, K2 and Grade 1. (See 2.11).
- An exposure to and development deficit in both language and literacy (See 2.8; 2.9; 2.10; 2.11 and 2.12)
- A cultural disconnect revealed in the literature (See 2.9) further isolates and identifies this at risk educationally vulnerable minority.

In consideration of the aforementioned, the ELL’s marked disparity, divergence and therefore disconnect when compared to the English monolingual learners does not align the ELL’s LLP with the LLP of the English monolingual learners from a cultural, linguistic or literacy acquisition perspective. The literature revealed the ELL’s divergence and disconnect by virtue of their LLP on the one hand, and on the other, the inadequate serving of the ELL’s needs with regard to policy making, school, classroom and pedagogical practices within the inclusive classroom in British Columbia in terms of the ELL’s language and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home.

In summary, the literature revealed an at risk educationally vulnerable minority identified from a demographic, geographic and exclusionary perspective. Furthermore, the findings delineated specific cultural, language and literacy disconnects and deficits inclusive of LEP, which profiled the critical limitations of the ELL’s LLP when compared to those of the English monolingual learners,
Further identifying the at risk educationally vulnerable minority. Finally, pedagogical shortfalls further inhibit the LLP for the ELL’s, when the needs of the ELL’s are compared to the needs of English monolingual learners in an inclusive classroom. This identified a barrier to learning and in this instance specifically literacy acquisition further substantiating the identification of this at risk educationally vulnerable minority. The purpose of the literature review was firstly to investigate the learner in K1, K2 and Grade 1 acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, from a demographic and geographic perspective. Secondly, the literature review created a theoretical framework for the comparative study on language and literacy acquisition in both ELL’s and English monolinguals. It charted the micro exclusion, divergence, disconnect and deficits of the ELL’s with regard to the comparative language and literacy proficiency of the monolingual and ELL, inclusive of the components and elements of language and literacy. This was done with specific reference to literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home for learners in K1, K2 and Grade 1. In so doing, an at risk educationally vulnerable minority was identified and isolated in terms of geography, demographics, exclusion, pedagogical practices, a cultural and linguistic disconnect, linguistic and literacy differences and deficits and a LEP with regard to language and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home in the K1, K2 and Grade 1 classroom. To this end, the literature review further delineated the LLP’s of the ELL’s in preparation for the comparative study of the LLP’s of the English monolingual learners. The literature review captured the objectives of the study aligning it and the objectives with the proposed empirical investigation.

The literature review identified theoretical and policy implications with regard to ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home in K1, K2 and Grade 1. In addition, the literature review, collated, examined and analysed the findings, thereby providing a result based framework of reference for the research data collection. The literature therefore underpins and informs the empirical investigation of a complementary mixed method investigation which is summarised and reviewed in the next section.

5.3 Summary of the empirical findings

5.3.1 Introduction

The findings of the theoretical framework and literature review isolated and identified an at risk minority by virtue of their LLP. These findings formed the overarching theoretical framework in preparation for the empirical investigation, namely a complementary mixed method investigation which is summarised below.
5.3.2 Summary of the qualitative findings

The purpose of the qualitative study was to delineate a cultural, social, linguistic, literacy, lifestyle and background profile for the ELL, clarifying the research problem: whether current practices in British Columbia’s classrooms reflect current research, with regard to effective practices, with specific reference to support programs and teacher proficiency, currently available to the ELL’s acquiring first time literacy in a language other than that spoken at home. This was aimed at addressing the research question (See 1.5) in preparation for and as complement to the qualitative study.

The theoretical framework in addition to the literature review provided the framework for the micro-ethnographic study by isolating and identifying an at risk educationally vulnerable minority with regard to their divergence from and disconnect to the normative literacy and language developmental frameworks in addition to the disparate, disconnected, deficient and exclusionary trajectories of their (ELL’s) language and literacy acquisition in K1, K2 and Grades 1., when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.

The micro-ethnographic study by means of two pilot studies and a structured open-ended questionnaire (See Appendix A-3) elaborated upon and further identified the at risk educationally vulnerable minority by isolating and identifying the cultural, social, linguistic, literacy lifestyle and background profile for the ELL (See 3.4.9.1). In so doing the initial stage of the primary objective (4.1) was realised in addition to the general objectives for the study. The qualitative component (See 4.2) justified by the theoretical framework and the literature review in Chapter 2 revealed the differences (CALD) and/or deficits between the two comparative groups with regard to the biographical background, CALD, the language literacy and participatory levels, pedagogical practices, the barriers to inclusion and learning within the broader community, school, classroom and the crucial language and literacy variables between the two groups further defining the LLP of the ELL’s.

The theoretical framework, the literature review and the qualitative investigation underpin, inform and complement the quantitative investigation elaborated upon below.

5.3.3 Summary of the quantitative findings

The theoretical framework, the literature review and the qualitative investigation, isolated and identified a CALD population who are deemed an at risk educationally vulnerable minority with regard to their background, participation, pedagogical practices, barriers to inclusion and learning within their broader environment. This complemented the quantitative investigation, which attended to the second stage of the primary objective, namely (See 1.5) to further identify, isolate and specify the at risk educationally vulnerable minority, by virtue of their LLP and further delineate
their vulnerability, as it pertains to equitable access, participation, excellence and the rights of the learner and importantly, LEP in an inclusive classroom as they acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home. The first component of the primary objective and the general objectives, were attended to via the isolation and specification of the at risk educationally vulnerable minority population as detailed in the aforementioned section. The quantitative investigation addressed the research question (See 1.5) by targeting the isolated components of language and elements of literacy via further delineation and identification of the LLP of the ELL’s and their educational vulnerability. To this end, the second component of the primary objective was addressed, the hypothesis statement supported and the research question answered.

The instrument applied in the quantitative study, the ALL, exposed eleven variables which have statistical relevance which relate to and inform the second component of the primary objective, namely the identification of the ELL’s LLP as it relates to parity when compared to the LLP of the English monolingual learner. The findings in the comparative study revealed a group effect indicating a significant statistical factor which distinguished between the two groups. In addition, the analysis results indicated that for the nine language and literacy attributes, namely, Rhyme Knowledge, Basic Concepts, Receptive Vocabulary, Parallel Sentence Production, Elision, Word Relationships, Sound Categorisation, Sight Word Recognition and Listening Comprehension where significant statistical differences had been indicated, the English monolingual learners constantly outperformed the ELL’s. This confirms (barring Letter Knowledge and Phonic Knowledge which revealed no significant difference) significant language and literacy differences between the two groups, identifying a disparate, disconnected and deficient LLP in addition to an educational vulnerability for ELL’s when compared to English monolingual learners. To this end, the research question was answered by capturing the significant differences in addition to the significant statistical differences of the ELL’s when compared to the English monolingual learners, highlighting their educational vulnerability and in so doing, denoting their at risk status in the inclusive classroom.

The findings of the qualitative study supported by the theoretical framework and literature review reveal the presence of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority with regard to their CALD. These findings attended to the first component of the primary objective, the hypothesis and in turn, complement the quantitative study. The findings of the quantitative study reveal a disparate, disconnected and deficient LLP in the ELL population, whilst simultaneously specifying and identifying the ELL population via language and literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home and therefore their vulnerability. The quantitative study attends to the second component of the primary objective and answers the research question. The empirical investigation is supported and
informed by the literature review. The section to follow will note the summary of the findings, draw a conclusion and indicate whether or not the hypothesis has been confirmed.

5.4 Conclusion

5.4.1 Introduction

“I have lived my life in service of words: finding where they hide in the convoluted recesses of the brain, studying their layers of meaning and form” (Wolf, 2007: ox). The acquisition of words is an innate magical, ancient and fundamental process which begins in utero, continues into adulthood, from where it is passed to the next generation along with the attendant literacy and cultural attributes. Literacy is not innate (Wolf, 2007:11), it is taught; it is hierarchical, dependent on language proficiency in and amongst other innate and environmental precursors which come together at more or less five or six years of age. Typical literacy acquisition is not dissimilar to typical language acquisition, other than, it is defined by, reliant upon and is rooted in age related language proficiency. Proficient language and literacy skills not only inform but are a necessity for positive learning outcomes. The difficult and abstract meta linguistic concepts that are essential for literacy acquisition: a one for one correspondence between sound and symbol; that each symbol or letter has a name in addition to a sound or sounds; that each sound has a corresponding letter or letters and the knowledge that words can be segmented into both sounds and syllable, are learned not innate. What then happens to the young learner who firstly has little or no exposure to the musicality (Mother Goose songs and rhymes) of and/or word play (silly words) in English, nor the notion for example, of the meaning of the English word ‘cat’, neither in the concrete (a physical cat) nor the abstract (a picture or word). Where does one begin to single out the abstract concept of the sounds /c/ /a/ /t/ (when the ear is not tuned) which correspond to the letters which in turn present sounds and words when the fundamental word object relationship is unknown? Finally, words can be segmented into both letters and sounds. The critical importance of language as it informs literacy skills (collectively referred to in this study as the LLP) indicate that a divergence, disconnect and/or deficit in such as alluded to above, determines the risk involved in attaining functional literacy levels and therefore positive academic outcomes for learners with LEP.

Today, contrary to common opinion and despite the benefits of inclusive education, the disregard of the well-founded theoretical frameworks pertaining to FLA, SLA and literacy acquisition and the non-adherence and indifference to the normative developmental theoretical frameworks, where learners are contextually immersed as they develop within their linguistic and culturally specific cocoons, as elaborated upon in Bronfenbrenner’s micro system (See 2.2.2), are not without grave consequence. Finally, policy planning, pedagogical practices and teaching practices, founded on frugal fiscal policies as opposed to sound theoretical frameworks, correspondingly, lead to serious
consequences. In this instance, the contextual language and literacy developmental needs of ELL’s with specific regard to their CALD are not addressed or met. Therefore, barriers to learning and risk laden learning outcomes are fostered. To this end, conflict zones with regard to ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously, in a language not spoken at home, are actively nurtured within the inclusive classroom. This promotes divergence, disconnect and or deficit within the LLP’s of ELL’s in English speaking inclusive classrooms. The rights of ELL’s in the inclusive classroom are therefore not recognised nor are their needs addressed. More pointedly, “differential opportunity[ies]” (Clohard & Ohlin, 1995:37) underpin the language and literacy acquisition process of ELL’s in inclusive classrooms, denoting an injustice and inequality as the “dogmas of the past” live on, muting the call (rooted within the Critical theoretical framework) to “think anew and act anew” facilitating a vigorous although unintended nurturing of exclusion and an at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their language and literacy needs (LLP). The pleasure of learning translates as tragedy, ache, conflict, micro exclusion and an at risk and educationally vulnerable population within the inclusive classroom. Jane Goodall (2004:19) wrote “Only when we understand can we care; only when we care shall we help; only if we help will all be saved”. “Why [then] is compassion [insight and understanding] not part of our established curriculum, an inherent part of our education? Compassion, awe, wonder, curiosity, exaltation, humility – these are the very foundation of any real civilization, no longer prerogative, the preserves of any one church, but belonging to everyone, every child [learner] in every school” (Yehudi Menuhen, 1962:52). To make light of the troubles of the ELL’s is neither compassionate nor insightful, nor does it serve the tenets of democracy nor the ideals of inclusive education specifically equity and excellence. Learning involves nurturing nature (Le Doux, 2002:9) as argued theoretically and empirically in this study.

This study has focused on the ELL’s in K 1, K 2 and Grade 1, acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home, in this instance English. The objective of the study, was to isolate and specify the extent of an at risk educationally vulnerable minority through the identification of their LLP. In summary, the study explored typical learners (in other words learners who do not have developmental, neurological nor sensory impairments) who present with LLP’s which to varying degrees manifest divergence, disconnect and/or deficits. The skewed LLP’s, weighted by LEP and marked limited emergent literacy skills and literacy proficiency, indicate and therefore delineate the extent of the risk attributed to the ELL’s with regard to their ability to acquire proficient literacy skills enabling academic competence and positive learning outcomes.

In consideration of the findings in Chapter 4, and the argued summary aforementioned, the literature review and the empirical investigation, respond to and address the main hypothesis posed in Chapter 1.
\( H_{0m}: \)

There is no statistically significant difference in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills and when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.

As opposed to the alternative hypothesis:

\( H_{1m}: \)

There is statistically significant difference in the LLP of ELL’s (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.

Therefore, it can be argued that an at risk educationally vulnerable minority exists, identified by their CALD, their LEP and limited emergent literacy and literacy skills, as is evidenced in their comparative LLP’s.

The phenomenon aforementioned renders the ideal of seamless, typical literacy acquisition impotent. An “unfortunate [ominous] phenomenon” (Wolf, 2007:103) with serious consequences for the rest of their [learners’] lives – for all our lives” (Wolf, 2007:102). Literacy does not happen by chance. The five to six years prior to formal schooling are dedicated to, among others, language and literacy acquisition. “Not a word, a concept, or a social routine” (ibid) is ignored. Upon school entry, the literacy precursors are either primed and at the ready or not. It is the ‘or not’ revealed in the LLP of the ELL’s and the ominous knowledge that if not addressed, we not only infringe upon the rights of all learners but we fail in our moral obligation as policy makers, curriculum planners, teachers and parents to attend to our learners’ fundamental needs - language and literacy acquisition. “They are all our children, and we must be ready for each of them, beginning with a communal commitment to teaching each child and armed with knowledge about how reading in any language develops over time” (Wolf, 2007:107). To this end, we should facilitate the glorious “leap into [literacy] transcendence” (Rich, 1978: 43-50) “armed with knowledge” (Wolf, 2007:107) and not ignorance. His Highness the Aga Kahn (2006) insightfully noted, “…The failure to see value in pluralism is a terrible liability...Bumpy though the road is...it is going to be an ongoing task” (HH Agah Kahn, 2006). One in which John Locke’s (1632-1704), “rational man will hold his opinions with a measure of doubt” will and must lead the way to in depth “awareness, reflection and argumentation” (Branner, 2011:6). Our multicultural society, is enveloped by the evolutionary ideology of excellence and equity within the portals of inclusive education and firmly founded on the principles of democracy.
For an overview of the study and its findings see Appendix B-28. Founded on the conclusions aforementioned, and aligned with evolution, “awareness, reflection and argumentation” (Branner, 2011:6) the following recommendations are made.

5.5 Recommendations

The following section outlines recommendations based on the findings of the study founded on the premise for further research. It begins with an overview of the researcher’s proposed theoretical framework and attendant curriculum for simultaneous language and literacy acquisition in K1, K2 and Grade 1, followed by further research recommendations.

A. The proposed theoretical framework and curriculum: Semiotic Scaffolding – From Theory to Practice

A theoretical framework in tandem with a theory infused curriculum is proposed, within which, ELL’s develop an identity of ‘ability’ and acceptance, as opposed to a disconnect and exclusion with regard to LEP and the resultant skewed LLP of the ELL’s. To this end, the researcher, based on the findings of this study recommends the following.

1. A specific, intensive, targeted, long term, simultaneous language and literacy acquisition theoretical framework which translates into the attendant needs based curriculum. The proposed framework and curriculum are inherently linked, collaborative and evolutionary, in that they will be founded on and informed by, the existing classical and modern theoretical frameworks (See 2.3). To this end, the curriculum will provide informed, systematic scaffolding, targeting the complex bidirectional and specific language and literacy special needs of the ELL’s. In so doing, it will address the form and function - components and elements (See 2.11.1) of simultaneous language and literacy acquisition within the parameters of the theoretical frameworks.

2. Further, teacher preparedness requires redress (see objective number 10) aligned with and informed by the proposed theoretical framework and proposed curriculum. This is referenced for further research but not addressed in this study (See limitations 6).

3. An example of the proposed theoretical framework and skeletal overview of the proposed curriculum is presented firstly as an explanation of the table. Secondly the table itself (See 5.2) is presented followed by an example of principle number three noted within the table under the heading: Principles.
A. Explanation of the proposed theoretical framework

Table 5.2 presents the proposed theoretical framework and secondly, a skeletal overview of the practice and application informing the proposed curriculum planning. The phases noted in the table, namely, one to five, address the delivery of simultaneous language and literacy acquisition to the ELL’s. The phases relate to the language and literacy (emergent literacy) disconnect of the ELL’s (See Fig 2.4) by focusing on the components and elements of language and literacy. As noted, the proposed theoretical framework and resultant curriculum overview are informed by and founded on the theoretical frameworks noted in 2.2. The essence of which encompasses an intense, structured, systematic, hierarchical language and literature acquisition program, isolating and targeting the components of language and elements of literacy (empirical). The program is modelled on the mother child model of FLA in addition to recognising the cognitive abilities of the ELL’s (theoretical/scaffolding). To this end, each phase relates to various normative language acquisition stages, namely, babbling, phonemic sound and word play, point to object and name (concrete to abstract), progressing to point to picture and name.

B. Table presenting the proposed theoretical framework
### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

**Proposed Theoretical Framework**

**LLP - Semiotic Scaffolding From Theory to Practice**

4-6 yrs.

*(drawing from the classical and modern theoretical frameworks)*

1. **Draws on innate ability:** Recognition of age related cognition and competence.
2. **Extrinsic factors:** Social and culturally contextual.
3. **A learned language system:** Rich, componential specific, systematic language delivery.
4. **Components of language isolated, hierarchical and integrated - replicate mother to child model (birth to five).**
5. **Elements of emergent literacy/literacy with emphasis and integration of the social and cultural perspectives.**
6. **Repetition, vocabulary rich, parroting (acquisition, retention, and production) building receptive and expressive vocabulary emulating mother and child interaction – a learned language system.**
7. **Generative, constructivist, learned – dynamic**
8. **Nurture nature – biological, social, cultural and contextual**

*Note: The above is founded on the tenets of the classical and modern theoretical frameworks noted in this table.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Classical and Modern Theoretical frameworks</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(See 2.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Chomsky: Intrinsic (LAD) and extrinsic (social scaffolding and mediation), generative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Vygotsky: Innate cognition, scaffolded and or mediated by the social and cultural environment (ZPD), constructivist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Bronfenbrenner: Contextual bidirectional influences – innate biological disposition and physical traits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Krashen: Cognition and interaction promote further learning – a learned language system.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Practice**
**Aim:** Simultaneous language and literacy acquisition, retention and productivity

**ABILITY**

**Principle:**
1. Replicate mother to child language nurturing
2. Innate ability tapped by external rich language environment
3. Isolation of concept, repetition, retention, production
4. Concrete to abstract
5. Face to face – emulating mother and child (maxilla facial/sound mirroring)
6. Socioculturally sensitive – needs and assets based
7. Left to right eye and hand synchronizing (tracking/eye, midline hand and eye)
8. Affective - ability nurtured to success

### Phase 1

#### Prosody: ELL's

**Purpose:**
- Tuning the ear and eye for intonation and rhyme
- Aligning the speech apparatus to new sounds
- Building receptive and expressive vocabulary
- Establishing a contextual lexicon
- Re enforcing word meaning via concrete object and picture relation
- Introducing sound object relation e.g. /p/ pat
- Left to right eye/hand tracking and movement
- To introduce culture contextually steeped in a rich, dynamic social milieu
- Developing representational thought in English

**Application:**
- Replicate the components of language
- Replicate the elements of emergent literacy and literacy
- Isolation of concept, repetition and production
  1. Babble – phonic games playing with the consonants and vowels of the alphabet – silly sounds e.g. the /p/ sound, sounded rapidly extending to consonant and vowel combinations – replicating the repetitive sequence as per monolinguals from birth to one.
  2. Finger play/action rhymes reinforcing

#### Normative mother to child comparison monolingual

**Practice/Application**

- **Purpose:** Replicating birth to five in monolinguals

1. Babble – replicating the sounds of human speech, vowels and consonants and combinations thereof. Sounds are social in function and reliant on face to face for progress.
2. Imitation and intonation – point and name (echolalia) and the beginning of meaning and understanding.
3. Holophrases.
4. The threshold of literacy and numeracy.
5. Two word phrases using noun or pronoun and a verb.
6. Usually grammatically correct.
7. Egocentric word play – talking to oneself or at other children.
9. Three or four word sentences, plurals, past tense, pronouns used correctly...you, me, I.
10. Four or five sentence words inclusive of prepositions. Sentences six to eight words, opposites, conjunctions prepositions and articles.
11. Language socialised.
concept /p/
For example This little piggy.
Build from concrete to abstract
Introduce plastic pig figures and name, progress to pictures in different sizes and colours (emphasis on vocabulary building in addition to sound recognition).

3. Introduce “funny phonics” substituting beginning sounds. Language play.
For example ‘is this a zig’ no it is a /p/ pig.

*Point and name routinely at every opportunity – replicating mother to child in the first year (echolalia)
**Test and understand in the form of question and answer games. For example is this a little pig? No it is a big pig.

Concrete to abstract – a plastic pig (concrete) the word (abstract) – scaffolding, mediating and working within the ZPP.
Progress from naming the object (plastic pig) to a picture of the object (a pig), progress to the word in isolation and finally when learner receptive, progress to word sound relationship. For example what can you hear at the beginning of the word pig? /p/. What can you hear at the end of the word pig? /P/.
Introduce letter p as a symbol, first in the concrete.
Finally in letter formation (abstract) emphasising top to bottom.
Top to bottom.
*** Targeted theme related and rich vocabulary
**** Song, nursery rhyme based introducing alliteration and rhyme
***** Learner needs dependent

4. Introduce prepositions as games for example “Where is the little/big/ pig/ now”? The little pig is on the table (rich language, colour size and so forth).

5. Counting, pairing, categorizing and so forth from concrete to abstract. Introduce singular and plural emphasising the concept of isolation and emphasising the s in the plural form.

6. Introduce colours, shape size and so forth

7. Introduce left to right concept when
pairing, categorizing and reading (preparation for reading and writing).

8. Limited, clear simple (grammatically correct) targeted word and picture rich story books.
   Read, review, and read again with the emphasis on book discussion (i.e., language production).

9. Separate pages of the book and rebuild story on mat or table – left to right and identify beginning middle and end.

10. Stories and so forth thematic and relating to relevant sound/sounds. Play with alliteration and sounds.

*Note: Phase 1 overlaps phase 2 and so forth, introducing phonics on a learner dependent needs basis – innate ability.
Throughout phase 1-5 concentrate on clearly enunciated words, intonation and rich vocabulary – not quite motherese but the ELL’s version thereof. Sentences to be short and grammatically correct including story books and songs. Holophrases or telegraphic speech are to be avoided (prevent fossilization). To be researched and developed further.

*Replicate, the stages of language acquisition for monolingual children sequentially, hierarchically isolating and targeting the components of language and the elements of literacy. The time frame and delivery are compacted, intensified and phases overlap in consideration of the cognitive ability of the ELL’s learners while modelling the mother to child model.

C. Example of Principle 3: Isolation of concept and repetition
- The introduction of the isolation of concept and repetition as a grounding principle in teaching simultaneous language and literature acquisition, for example, phonetics and sight words (A Montessori construct well received in remedial tuition.) For example:
  - Circle the letter a

```
a
a b
a g a
a s a
 c a
```
The cat met the rat.

4. Finally, teachers specifically prepared for delivery of the proposed LLP – Semiotic Scaffolding – From Theory to Practice model. Mothers, Fathers, siblings and caregivers should be included where possible. Introducing music, rhyme (Mother Goose), word and sound play, specifically structured for ELL’s and based on the mother to child as noted in Table 5.2 principle 1. In other words, replicating, intensifying and compacting, the first five to six years of language acquisition.

Note:

*Phase 1 only is overviewed and used as a simplistic example. Phases two to five (Phase 2 – phonology; Phase 3 – Syntax; Phase 4 - Morphological awareness and Phase 5 - Comprehension Semantics Pragmatics and Meta cognition) follow the same application principles as detailed above. The phases overlap, enforce and reinforce somewhat like an accordion file, not dissimilar to Bronfenbrenner’s nested, complex system of relationships, namely, micro, meso and so forth (See 2.2.2). In addition they are compliant with Vygotsky’s ZPD (See 2.4.2), where the learner’s abilities (assets) also referenced as the “learner’s initial level of mastery” (Campione, Brown, Ferrara & Bryant, 1984:77) and the ‘zone’ where the learner’s needs meet namely the ZPD. The phases are connected, isolated and integrated. They are age and cognitive ability sensitive, in addition to being
compliant with the English exposure/skill and the socio-cultural needs of the learner. For example, Japanese ELL’s curriculum will isolate and emphasise the differences in sound between the /r/ and /l/. In other words, a curriculum that is evolutionary in nature, theoretically grounded, and speaks to ‘ability’ equity and excellence in support of the ideals of inclusive education.

**The aforementioned, is merely a skeletal overview and representation – a springboard for further in depth detailed research is required to develop a curriculum where barriers to learning are eliminated and learning ‘ability’ as opposed to a learning disconnect becomes the norm for ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously. An exciting challenge.

Figure 5.1 below presents a schematic overview of the integration of the study and support for the recommendations. The proposed theoretical framework namely, LLP – Semiotic Scaffolding - from theory to practice, is presented schematically, as it is supported and informed by reasoned argument and evidence as argued in the discussion on the CT paradigm, inclusive education, the literature review and theoretical frameworks elaborated upon in Chapter 2. In addition, it is supported by the empirical findings (See 4.3) and how the phenomenon identified, an at risk educationally vulnerable minority by virtue of their LLP, (i.e., ELL’s acquiring simultaneous language and literacy) is accounted for. The proposed theoretical framework provides a foundation and therefore an explanation and application for the necessary action needed to address the barriers to learning of ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously. In sum, the past as it provides a scaffold the future is an extension of Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system’s theory theoretical framework. A schematic overview of the integration of the study is presented below.
Figure. 5.1: Schematic overview of the integration of the study

Source: Snelgar (2013)
D. Further research recommendations

1. The validity of the compromised LLP of the ELL’s has not been truly established in the literature, nor the empirical investigation. The phenomenon necessitates further research: to minimise risk, eradicate exclusion, eliminate barriers to learning; and to realise equity and excellence, therefore furthering the support for the ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home and the evolutionary ideals of inclusive education.

2. The sample used in this investigation was representative of the population of interest. However, it was demographically isolated and microscopic. The salient recommendation is to extend the sample to include all ELL’s acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home and therefore capture reliable data for further research.

3. A longitudinal study is recommended to investigate the progress, extent and limitations of, the ELL’s LLP with the regard to risk reduction, policy, curriculum and pedagogical adjustment and inclusion as learners progress in age and grade, in other words beyond K1, K2 and Grade 1.

4. A longitudinal study investigating learning outcomes, behavioural issues, barriers to learning, special needs, affective factors relating to and informed by exclusion, participation and interaction in K1, K2, Grade 1 and beyond is recommended.

5. Aligned with the aforementioned, a broad and in depth exploration of and ultimately the devising and refining of an assessment instrument or instruments dedicated to and sensitive towards ELL’s CALD and language and literacy skills are needed.

6. A multidisciplinary approach to curriculum planning, teaching methods and support, collaboratively researched and applied with a focus on supporting ELL’s acquiring language and literacy simultaneously is recommended. This should not be dissimilar and ideally modelled on the current provisions made in British Columbia for SNL as described in the Special Education Services Manual of Policies and Guidelines (2013). The myriad of new sounds to the untrained ear requires targeted, informed delivery in line with speech pathology remediation and eye hand (left to right) occupational therapeutic and/or physiotherapeutic input.

7. Further research is required inclusive of a targeted, focused and vigorously honest review of current practices not obfuscated by funds and policy expedience. This should not only be with regard to simultaneous language and literacy acquisition but with regard to the current relationship between the ideologies of inclusive education, politics and funding (See 2.6.3.1) and how they influence the reality in the inclusive classroom.
8. Further research is required on a macro level to recognize the broader needs and assets of the ELL’s as they pertain to the LLP. This should be followed, by an in depth investigation into the micro needs and assets of ELL’s as they are informed by the components and elements of the LLP. This should result in the overhaul of the programs which provide teachers with the critical and specific skills required when working with LEP learners, based on and founded within sound theoretical frameworks inclusive of but not isolated to the language and literacy acquisition frameworks.

9. Isolating and recognising that literacy acquisition in a language not spoken at home requires in depth knowledge of language, its components, FLA and, importantly SLA, in addition to the elements of literacy acquisition and their relevant theoretical frameworks when introducing literacy acquisition to a learner in a language not spoken at home. For example, an informed knowledge of the phonetic sounds of the alphabet where the /r/ is sounded as /r/ and not /ra/.

10. In consideration of the aforementioned, research into the recalibration of current teaching programmes, teacher preparedness programmes and teacher awareness and skills is required. This would align them with the specific requirements of the ELL’s informed by the theoretical frameworks, not funding, and thus meet the needs of the ELL’s and ideals of inclusive education.

11. Further research is required into understanding the affective factors relating to compromised language and literacy proficiency, micro exclusion and the disconnect enabled identity of the ELL’s within and beyond the classroom for learners and their families.

12. An Investigation of teacher attitudes, ability and perceived ability in teaching ELL’s language and literacy simultaneously in an English speaking inclusive classroom is needed as well as the exploration of ideas and possibilities for remediation of current classroom conditions. Teachers are a rich, untapped resource, which proffer a hands-on component to research that complements and underpins the theoretical frameworks.

13. Further research with regard to a rich home language environment in the SL, where parents are encouraged to acquire and promote activities which focus on sound play, word play and meaning. Examples are shared rhyming, book reading, sharing reviews on books read, retelling of the stories in both the home language and the SL which may contribute to a strong language and literacy profile. This comprises a construct drawn in “meaning making” and promote “meaning making strategies” (Dunn Dooley & Mathews, 2009:269-294) involving not just the ELL but the extended family and community, in line with and modelled on Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system.
14. Future studies could investigate the LLP of older siblings, whose English is further advanced, investigating improvement or deterioration over time and exposure to English. This will highlight specific needs which in turn will inform the proposed programmes for the early years by identifying gaps and targeting such early on.

15. The researcher recommends further research on the effects of LEP, in other words “successively degraded levels of linguistic competence” (Frances, 2012:133) on overall cognitive development with specific regard to meta cognitive thought such as is required beyond grade 4.

The aforementioned recommendations skim the surface of this challenging, yet exhilarating field. To this end, they proffer the possible tentative beginnings of critical research to address the intrinsic nature of inclusive education and social justice by asking the pointed question: Are the needs of the learners being addressed by the tenets of inclusion and social justice, the mainstay of education in British Columbia and democracy respectively?

Further research (Kuhn’s (1999:10) “further practice”) is critical, if we wish to address issues of inequality, and injustice linked to globalisation, to fulfil the evolutionary vision of inclusive education and doggedly journey along the Aga Kahn’s bumpy road, in pursuit of equity, excellence and social justice.

5.6 Limitations of the research

1. The study was limited in both the number of subjects and the geographical location of the subjects. These factors compromise the reliability and validity of the study. To this end, a greater subject selection and broader demographic area is recommended as noted in section 5.5.

2. The demographic isolation and the inadequate sample of subject size limits the inference of statistical or analytical generalizations (Collins, 2010:361), restricts the meta inferences drawn and therefore, compromises the external validity of the findings. However, this said, the premise for further research embedded within the study is attended to and in so doing fulfils the goals of inclusive education and social justice.

3. Content validity was limited via the accuracy of the instrument used. The ALL, although sensitive to cultural and linguistic differences would have been more precise if the assessment instrument used, was targeted specifically to ELL’s as they acquire language and
literacy simultaneously. In so doing, the findings are then applicable to all ELL’s irrespective of origin and culture, therefore creating a more sound, relevant and applicable investigation.

4. The inherent, “omnipresent” (Leeds & Ormrod, 2013:219), researcher bias, limits the reliability, validity and credibility of the study. To this end, further research on researcher preparation with regard to cross cultural bias divestment is recommended.

5. The researcher’s limited ability to further investigate the ELL from a multidisciplinary perspective ranging from the affective to the biological. For example, of great interest to the researcher are the comparable neurological processes when acquiring language and literacy simultaneously at age four to six.

6. The researcher’s limited ability due to the scope and focus of the current study to elucidate, investigate and propose a teacher preparedness framework aligned to the proposed theoretical framework and proposed curriculum.

5.7 Concluding remarks

This chapter concludes the research in which the problems noted and argued in Chapter 1 have been explored and the objectives met. The salient findings of the theoretical framework, the literature review and the empirical study facilitated the identification of an ‘at risk educationally vulnerable minority, further identified by the language and literacy components and elements of their LLP’s. The purported aim was achieved, the hypothesis accepted and the research question answered. It is the hope of the researcher that this research will elicit further research which will acknowledge the existence of and establish the identity of this at risk educationally vulnerable minority population and further quantify the LLP. It is hoped that this study will impel further rigorous empirical research with the aim of establishing the notion and therefore the recognition that a viable LLP as an entity is a critical prerequisite to language and literacy acquisition. In other words, a viable LLP is a critical “skill” (tool) and recognition of this will secure the LLP as a cornerstone and/or principle, within the SL literacy and language acquisition theoretical frameworks. This will bring recognition of the LLP as a salient beacon for the identification of barriers to learning, which, if not attended to, imperil the learning outcomes and therefore academic success of the young learners.

The recommendations for further research emerged from the theoretical frameworks, the literature review the empirical study and the researchers’ experience and continued passion in this field.

Green (1966:13) noted his “dangerous moment” as the moment he realised he could read. He kept his secret, not wishing to share his new found ability. So too do the ELL’s keep their “dangerous moments” (ibid) protectively hidden as they struggle to make the leap to literacy in a language not spoken at home. Insight into and the understanding of every learner is an inherent goal of inclusive
education. The fulfilment of this goal requires urgent research, founded on compassion, moral obligation and social justice.

In closing, “Each torpid turn of the world has such disinherited children to whom neither what’s been nor what is to come, belongs, for what comes next is too large and remote for human kind” (Rilke, 1939:63). Let not this be the case for our most vulnerable, our children, let us heed their call in this rapidly changing global world.


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APPENDIX A

A-1 CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS

Language and cultural diversity, globalisation, inclusion and the resultant phenomenon of first time literacy acquisition in a second language

You have in response to the flyer, voluntarily selected to participate in a research study conducted by Elizabeth Claire Gien Snelgar, a DEd student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). The results of the research will contribute to the existing knowledge base of ELL’s as they acquire literacy in a language not spoken at home.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to identify the language and literacy profile (LLP) of ELL and monolingual learners in B.C. classrooms and schools and whether or not, the educational opportunities made available to the ELL learner, are indeed accessible to the ELL.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this research study, I (the researcher), will ask you the parent to participate in the answering of a questionnaire/ interview, with the sole purpose of ascertaining language and cultural background information. The information will be strictly confidential and available to the researcher only. The learners will be asked to participate in the LLP assessment administered by myself (the researcher) with the parent in attendance. The data collected will be strictly confidential and available to myself only.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

This research study does not entail any risks, discomforts or inconveniences. The questionnaire/interview is conducted by the researcher with full confidentiality. The LLP assessment is conducted by the researcher in the presence of the parents with full confidentiality.
4. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There will be no payment for participation in this study. At the parent’s request, the researcher will provide feedback on the language and literacy levels of the learner, and introduce activities to enhance such where necessary. The report back will occur one week after the assessment, is a one off and given as a courtesy for participating in the study.

Thank you for your participation. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions about this research study.

__________________________________

Elizabeth Claire Gien Snelgar
APPENDIX A

A-2 ASSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH (CHILDREN UNDER 18)

(Asent form to be delivered verbally by the researcher to the learner in the presence of the parent/caregiver after parental consent form signed. The learner will indicate assent or dissent by marking the relevant smiley face with a coloured marker.) The researcher’s language will be adjusted to accommodate the ELL’s where necessary. If required, the parent/caregiver will be asked to assist.

Assent form for learners

Language and cultural diversity, globalisation, inclusion and the resultant phenomenon of first time literacy acquisition in a second language

Researcher: Elizabeth Claire Gien Snelgar.

Salt Spring Literacy Society

126 Hereford Ave.,

BC V8K 2T4

Tel: 250 537 9717

Hello, my name is Claire and thank you for coming to see me today.

What is your name? Can you pick a marker from the tub in your favourite colour?

Can you write your name on the line for me please?
Your Mum/Dad/caregiver has already signed their form to allow you to help me. Now I am going to ask you to help me make your own form. Choose your most favourite colour marker and let’s begin.

Can you mark the smiley face if you would like to help me and the sad face if you say no?

😊 ☹

Your Mum/Dad/caregiver will stay with us while we work together. Can you see them in the corner?

😊 ☹

You must be wondering what we are going to do?

😊 ☹

I am asking you to help me with my work which I hope will help all the children in K1/2/Grade 1 who are learning to read (and learning to speak English... for ELL’s). Would you like to help me?

😊 ☹

Are you in K1 K2, or Grade?

😊 ☹
Do you speak Mandarin/Tagalog/Hindi/ Farsi/English at home? (The researcher will choose the correct term having spoken to the parent/caregiver.)

😊 😊

We are going to page through that big stand up book with pictures on each page. Can you see it?

😊 😊

Good, I am going to ask you questions about the pictures on each page can you help me by answering the questions?

😊 😊

Your answers will not be shared with anybody else. I am going to keep them in my big book. Is that OK?

😊 😊

If you get tired while we are working and want to ‘shake out the sillies’, ask me to stop and you can have a walk about, shake out the sillies, and if you like, have something to drink. Will you tell me if you get tired?

😊 😊

I think that this will be fun for you and it will help your teacher to teach all the learners who come into her/his classroom to learn to read.
I would like you to help me if you can. Do you think you can?

😊 😊

If you become unhappy, tired or uncomfortable we can stop. Just ask me OK?

😊 😊

I will give your Mum/Dad/Caregiver a copy of your smiley faces for you to take home OK?

😊 😊

Do you have any questions?

😊 😊

Now I am going to read a small passage to you and I want you to mark the smiley face if your answer is yes and the sad face if your answer is no with the first letter of your name.

**Learner’s Assent**: I have told you about my work and you know we are doing this to help children. You also know that you do not have to do it if you do not want to. You also know that you can ask me questions and can stop at any time. And you will have a copy to take home.

😊 😊

Are you ready to begin looking at the pictures on the stand up book?

😊 😊
Thank you for helping me and the children who are learning to read 😊

Let’s begin 😊
APPENDIX A

A-3 STRUCTURED OPEN - ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE

Language and Literacy Questionnaire: LLP

Introduction

Researcher:

Thank you for your participation in this research study. Your support and time is greatly appreciated. The questionnaire to follow is a verbal questionnaire

A few background questions before we begin:

- Are you aware of the purpose of the research study having read and signed the consent form?
- Do you have any further questions regarding the study?
- If at any time you do not feel comfortable answering a question, please indicate such. At no time will you be asked to answer a question that causes you any discomfort.
- You indicated that you did/did not require a translator. Are you still comfortable with this decision?
- Your personal information, for example biographical details, will only be available to the researcher.
- Individual learner assessment results will only be available to the researcher and not shared with Education departments, schools or teachers.
- Results will be presented anonymously for statistical purposes.
Participation in the research study is voluntary.

The results of the research study will be available electronically on the UNISA website [http://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/506](http://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/506)

Language and Literacy Questionnaire: LLP

**SECTION A:**

Biographical details inclusive of place of birth, duration of residency, and parents mother tongue

1. **Research objective**: To explore the CALD and reality of the ELL’s acquiring literacy in English.
2. Name of learner
3. Age of learner D.O.B
4. Which grade will the learner enter in September?
5. Was the learner born in Canada? If not where was the learner born?
6. Were you or your spouse born in Canada? If not where were you born?
7. Have you and/or your spouse resided in Canada for your entire lives?
8. Are both you and your spouse able to speak English?
9. Do you speak English at home? If not what language other than English?
10. Are you both able to read and write in English?

**SECTION B: Cultural, language, participation and perception of inclusion or exclusion**

1. **Research objectives**: To explore cultural, linguistic and participatory needs within the current ideology of inclusion and the attendant fiscal austerity prevalent in today’s classrooms.
2. To explore the teacher’s ability for inclusion of parents in decision making processes which pertain to their children, the classroom and the school, when language is a barrier to communication.
11. Are you familiar with the school curriculum?
12. Does the learner discuss his/her classroom experience with you?
13. Do you attend parent teacher interviews?
14. Do you speak to the teacher about the progress the learner is making?
15. Do you respond to the notes sent home by the teacher?
16. If not able to translate the notes, is assistance offered by the teacher and or school?
17. Are you able to access assistance from the teacher or school if needed?
18. Are translation and or assistance services provided if requested?
19. Do you feel that the learner is adequately supported in the classroom?
20. Would you consider the teacher adequately prepared to assist you and the learner with your requirements?
21. Do feel free to approach the teacher if you have anything to discuss and is the teacher able to set aside sufficient time to address your and or your learner’s needs?
22. Do you feel adequately supported by the school?
23. Do you feel adequately supported by the classroom teacher?

SECTION C: Community inclusion and support

1. Research objective: To explore the CALD and reality of the ELL’s acquiring literacy.
2. To explore and describe barriers to learning and participation of the young ELL acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

24. Do you find the services offered at the community library helpful?
25. Are translation facilities made readily available to you?
26. Are you able to access reading material that is useful to you?
27. Do you and your family participate in community activities?
28. Do you feel welcomed by the community?
29. Does the learner participate in the summer activities offered by the community?
30. Do you have friends who are English speakers?
31. Does the learner have school friends who are English speakers?
32. Is the learner invited to play with school friends who are English speakers?
SECTION D: Language and literacy variables pertaining to the learner

1. **Research objective**: To identify the high risk educationally vulnerable ELL population acquiring literacy and how the ideals of equity and excellence translate in both practice and application.

2. To explore and describe barriers to learning and participation of the young EL’s acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

33. Does the learner speak English at home with parents or siblings?
34. Does the learner have books of his/her own at home?
35. Are the books in English?
36. Does the learner enjoy participating in stories read to him/her?
37. Does the learner show an interest in reading on his/her own?
38. Does the learner enjoy citing English nursery rhymes such as Mother Goose?
39. Are you familiar with Mother Goose nursery rhymes?
40. Does the learner choose English books at the school library or community library?
41. Does the learner attend extra curricula English classes?
42. Is there sufficient English language instruction in the school or classroom?
43. Does the learner generally understand the teacher?
44. Do you feel that the teacher spends sufficient time with the learner explaining difficulties?

Thank you for your participation.
## APPENDIX A

### A-4 TABULATED CHART BASED ON THE STRUCTURE OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE

**ELL'S**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SECTION A</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>*1.</td>
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<tr>
<td>*2.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*3.</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

**SECTION B**

| 10. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| 16. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| 20. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 21. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 22. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

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Notes:

Question 1 denoted with a * and shaded was not tabulated - privacy considerations

Questions 1 - 3 denoted with a * not tabulated in frequency distribution tables

Median Age ELL’s: 5.3

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<td>T - Togalog</td>
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<td>S - Singhalese</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW – Switzerland</td>
<td>SG – Swiss German</td>
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<td>Y – Yes</td>
<td>N - no</td>
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APPENDIX A

A – 5 TABULATED CHART BASED ON THE STRUCTURED OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE

Monolinguals

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<th>QUESTIONS</th>
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### QUESTIONS SECTION

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### Notes:

Question 1 denoted with a * and shaded was not tabulated - privacy considerations
Questions 1 - 3 denoted with a * not tabulated in frequency distribution table
Median Age monolinguals: 5.4

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<td>UK – United Kingdom</td>
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<td>Y – Yes</td>
<td>N - no</td>
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# APPENDIX A

## A-6 TABULATION FOR STRUCTURED OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE PERCENTAGES

### Section A

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<td>96%</td>
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</tr>
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<td>96%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>For a Y response both parents would need to speak English</td>
</tr>
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### Section B

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### Section D

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</table>
APPENDIX A

A-7 STRUCTURED OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE TRANSCRIPT:

EXAMPLE OF TWO ELL PARENTS

RESPONDENTS NUMBER 7 AND 25

Section A

Question – 8

Do you speak English at home? If not what language other than English?

ELLP Respondent # 7: “Moe Mandarin”. (Researcher’s hand written note note (RN): sp? hand gesture - no - open hand palm facing left with right to left gesturing).

ELLP Respondent # 25: “No, we speak Tagalog. We use some English words” (RN code Switching noted interview)

Section B:

Question – 20

Do feel free to approach the teacher if you have anything to discuss and is the teacher able to set aside sufficient time to address your and or your learner’s needs?

ELLP Respondent # 7: “Moe... cannot lah Englis no No lah”. (RN: shy smile (hand gesture repeated; (head shake hesitant)

ELLP Respondent # 25: “Teacher very kind but ayoko (chuckle) time for help with English”
Section C

Question – 25

Are you able to access reading material that is useful to you?

ELLP Respondent # 7: “Cannot no Mandarin ”

ELLP Respondent # 25: “ Not at the community library but at the Filipino immigrant society in North Vancouver and my friend Evilin from church” (RN: Books both adult and child, magazines and audio tapes available at Filipino immigrant society in Tagalog)

Section D

Question – 43

Do you feel that the teacher spends sufficient time with the learner explaining difficulties?

ELLP Respondent # 7 “No lah... my neighbour help”

ELLP Respondent # 25: “Yes but for every day school but my son needs help with English reading and she can’t do that...too busy. He has reading buddy on Wed. morning” (RN: Reading buddy – an adult volunteer allocated to learners with reading difficulties. Usually reads with the learner once or twice a week for an hour.)
### APPENDIX B

**B-1 LETTER KNOWLEDGE DATA (MONOLINGUALS - ALL)**

(Comparison group)

**Subtest 1.**

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<th>SUBJECT</th>
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<th>(CI)SC/SC</th>
<th>SCALED SCORE</th>
<th>INDEX SCORE</th>
<th>PERCENTILE</th>
<th>(CI)%</th>
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<td>75</td>
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<td>9 to 13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>63</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25/75</td>
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Appendix B

B-2 LETTER KNOWLEDGE DATA (ELL’S - ALL)

(Subject group)

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Appendix B

B-3 RHYME KNOWLEDGE DATA (MONOLINGUALS - ALL)

(Subject group)

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## Appendix B

### B-4 RHYME KNOWLEDGE DATA (ELL’s - ALL)

*(Comparison group)*

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Appendix B

B-5 BACIC CONCEPTS DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

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Appendix B

B-6 BASIC CONCEPTS DATA (ELL’S – ALL)

(Subject group)

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Appendix B

B-7 RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY DATA (MONOLINGUALS –ALL)

(Comparison group)

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(Subject group)

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Appendix B

B-9 PARALLEL SENTENCE PRODUCTION DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

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**B-10 PARALELL SENTENCE PRODUCTION DATA (ELL’s – ALL)**

*(Subject group)*

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TOTAL
Appendix B

B-11 ELISION DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

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### Appendix B

**B-12 ELISION DATA (ELL’s – ALL)**

(Subject group)

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## Appendix B

**B-13 WORD RELATIONSHIPS DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)**

(Comparison group)

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Appendix B

B-14 WORD RELATIONSHIPS DATA (ELL’s – ALL)

(Subject group)

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### B-15 PHONICS KNOWLEDGE DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

*(Comparison group)*

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Appendix B

B-16 PHONICS KNOWLEDGE DATA (ELL’s – ALL)

(Subject group)

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Appendix B

B-17 SOUND CATEGORIZATION DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

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Appendix B

B-18 SOUND CATEGORIZATION DATA (ELL’s – ALL)

(Subject group)

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## Appendix B

### B-19 SIGHT WORD RECOGNITION DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

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Appendix B

B-20 SIGHT WORD RECOGNITION DATA (ELL’s – ALL)

(Subject group)

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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16/63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8 to 12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25/75</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9/50</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>0.4/9</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9/50</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>7 to 11</td>
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<td>95</td>
<td>37</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0.4/9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6 to 10</td>
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Appendix B

B-21 LISTENING COMPREHENSION DATA (MONOLINGUALS – ALL)

(Comparison group)

**Subtest 11.**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>RAW SCORE</th>
<th>(CI)SC/SC</th>
<th>SCALED SCORE</th>
<th>INDEX SCORE</th>
<th>PERCENTILE</th>
<th>(CI)%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9 to 15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>37/95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8 to 14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25/91</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>10 to 13</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>50/84</td>
</tr>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9 to 15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>37/95</td>
</tr>
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<td>17</td>
<td>8 to 14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25/91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8 to 14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25/91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7 to 13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16/84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7 to 13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16/84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>95</td>
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<td>9/75</td>
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<td>10 to 16</td>
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<td>110</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>37/95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
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<td>9 to 15</td>
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<td>110</td>
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<td>37/95</td>
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<td>8 to 14</td>
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<td>25/91</td>
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<td>16/84</td>
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<td>110</td>
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<tr>
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<td>20.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7 to 13</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16/84</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
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<td>7 to 13</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>16/84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<td>37/95</td>
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TOTAL 415 268 2590 1473
Appendix B

B-22 LISTENING COMPREHENSION DATA (ELL’s – ALL)

(Subject group)

Subtest 11.

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<th>SUBJECT</th>
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<th>SCALED SCORE</th>
<th>INDEX SCORE</th>
<th>PERCENTILE</th>
<th>(CI)%</th>
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<td>95</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9/75</td>
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<td>7 to 13</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16/84</td>
</tr>
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<td>9</td>
<td>1/37</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>5/63</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4 to 10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2/50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6 to 12</td>
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<td>95</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9/75</td>
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<td>5 to 11</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>5/63</td>
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</tr>
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<td>9/75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>25/91</td>
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APPENDIX B

B-23 COMPARATIVE BOX PLOT FOR ELEVEN SUBTESTS FORM THE ALL – SCALED SCORES

Source: Gien (2015)
APPENDIX B

B-24 COMPARATIVE BOX PLOT FOR ELEVEN SUBTESTS FORM THE ALL – RAW SCORES

Source: Gien (2015)
APPENDIX B

B-25 SCHEMATIC OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER 2

Source: Snelgar (2013)
APPENDIX B

B-26 SCHEMATIC OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER 2 CONTINUED

Source: Snelgar (2013)
# APPENDIX B

## B-27 DATA COLLECTION FRAMEWORK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus of the study</th>
<th>Data collection strategies methods techniques and respondents</th>
<th>Focus of questionnaire and ALL assessment (in support of the aim, objectives and research question of the study)</th>
<th>Aim, Objectives and research question of the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The ELL’s CALD background as it influences the LLP instrumental in literacy acquisition in a language other than that spoken at home</td>
<td>1. Instrument QUAL: Questionnaire Individually administered by researcher assisted by translator where necessary</td>
<td>1. Questionnaire: Level, skill and value placed on reading and or literacy activities in the home for ELL’s and monolinguals. Level of parental participation in school and community. Perception of and level of support from the community and school for parents and learners</td>
<td>1. Aim: Explore the LLP of the ELL acquiring literacy in English whose home language is other than English. Primary aim: To identify and isolate and specify an educational minority by virtue of their LLP and identify their vulnerability (see 1.2.1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Exclusion within an inclusive classroom. Rights of the ELL acquiring literacy.</td>
<td>2. Respondents: Parents/care givers of N =25 ELL’s N=25 monolingual learners from Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island B.C.</td>
<td>2. What is the learners’ linguistic background? How is this supported or not, within the school and community? Create a portrait of the ELL acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home.</td>
<td>2. Objectives: Explore and describe: CALD and reality of the ELL. Needs and rights of the ELL. Barriers to learning for the ELL - micro exclusion. Identify the ELL as a high risk educational minority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Exploring the ELL’s language and literacy profile for literacy acquisition in a</td>
<td>3. Instrument QUAN: Individually administered by researcher Assessment of Literacy</td>
<td>3. ALL: Quantify the LLP of the ELL. Explore LLP differences between ELL and the monolingual learner.</td>
<td>3. Research question: Can statistically significant differences be established</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
language other than that spoken at home and Language (ALL)
Respondents: 
N=25 ELL’s 
N=25 monolingual learners 
Age range: 4-6 yrs. (K-1 to Grd.1) from Metro Vancouver, Vancouver Island and Salt Spring Island B.C.

between the LLP’s of ELL’s whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

(Adapted from Dreyer, 2013:116)
APPENDIX B

B-28 SCHEMATIC SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH AND SUBSEQUENT FINDINGS

LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY, GLOBALISATION, INCLUSION AND THE RESULTANT PHENOMENON OF FIRST TIME LITERACY ACQUISITION IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

RESEARCH AIM

To explore the LLP of learners whose home language is other than English and its attendant efficacy and compatibility in facilitating the level of equitable participation and understanding necessary when acquiring literacy in a language other than that spoken at home in an inclusive classroom.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Can statistically significant differences be established between the LLP's of ELLs whose home language is other than English, during first time literacy acquisition and monolingual English speaking learners when English is the language medium used in the school and inclusive classroom?

PRIMARY OBJECTIVE

The primary objective of the study was to isolate and specify the extent of an 'at risk and vulnerable educational minority' through the identification of their LLP.

PRIMARY AIM

To identify, isolate and specify the at risk educational minority by virtue of their LLP and identify their vulnerability, as it pertains to equitable access, participation, excellence and the rights of the learner in an inclusive classroom as they acquire literacy in a language other than that spoken at home.

HYPOTHESIS H0m

There are no statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELLs (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate and LLP skills and when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction. As opposed to the alternative hypothesis:

HYPOTHESIS H1m

There are statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELLs (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills when learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.
FINDINGS OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
- The disparate, disconnected trajectories of and therefore the barriers to language and literacy acquisition manifested in ELL’s and their LLP’s when compared to the monolingual learners.

FINDINGS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW
- Isolated a postulated ‘at risk educational minority’, geographically and demographically.
- A divergence and disconnect of the ELL’s LLP with regard to the typical language and literacy acquisition when acquiring literacy in a language not spoken at home in K1, K2 and Grade1.

RESEARCH DESIGN
Simple causal – comparative approach to mixed model research design and a complementary mixed methods approach to mixed model research design.

QUAL
Open ended structured questionnaire

QUAN
Standardised instrument Assessment of Literacy and Language (ALL)

FINDINGS OF QUAL
- Revealed ‘at risk educationally vulnerable minority’ by isolating and identifying the cultural, social, linguistic, literacy lifestyle and background profile for the ELL
- Highlighted the differences (CALD) and or deficits between the two comparative groups with regard to the biographical background, CALD, the language literacy and participatory levels, pedagogical practices, the barriers to inclusion and learning within the broader community, school, classroom and the crucial language and literacy variables between the two groups further defining the LLP of the ELL’s

FINDINGS OF QUAN
- Identified an at risk educationally vulnerable minority
- Identified a divergent, disconnected and deficient LLP for ELL’s
CONCLUSION

- An at risk educationally vulnerable minority was established.
- Established statistically significant differences in the LLP of ELL's (whose home language is other than English) and monolingual learners (whose home language is English) when evaluated against age appropriate LLP skills as learners are exposed to literacy acquisition in an inclusive school/classroom environment where English is the language of instruction.
APPENDIX C

C-1 UNISA RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

E C G Snelgar [35139013]

for a D Ed study entitled

Language and cultural diversity, globalisation, inclusion and the resultant
phenomenon of first time literacy acquisition in a second language

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.

Prof KP Divimbo
Executive Dean : CEDU

Dr M Claassens
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
medic@netactive.co.za

Reference number: 2014 JULY /35139013/MC 16 JULY 2014
APPENDIX D

D-1 THE BLIND MEN AND THE ELEPHANT.

A HINDOO FABLE.

I.

IT was six men of Indostan
To learning much inclined,
Who went to see the Elephant
(Though all of them were blind),
That each by observation
Might satisfy his mind.

II.

The First approached the Elephant,
And happening to fall
Against his broad and sturdy side,
At once began to bawl:
"God bless me!—but the Elephant
Is very like a wall!"

III.

The Second, feeling of the tusk,
Cried:"Ho!—what have we here
So very round and smooth and sharp?
To me 't is mighty clear
This wonder of an Elephant
Is very like a spear!"

IV.

The Third approached the animal,
And happening to take
The squirming trunk within his hands,
Thus boldly up and spake:

"I see," quoth he, "the Elephant
Is very like a snake!"

V.

The Fourth reached out his eager hand,
And felt about the knee.
"What most this wondrous beast is like
Is mighty plain," quoth he;
"'T is clear enough the Elephant
Is very like a tree!"

VI.

The Fifth, who chanced to touch the ear,
Said: "E'en the blindest man
Can tell what this resembles most;
Deny the fact who can,
This marvel of an Elephant
Is very like a fan!"

VII.

The Sixth no sooner had begun
About the beast to grope,
Than, seizing on the swinging tail
That fell within his scope,
"I see," quoth he, "the Elephant
Is very like a rope!"

VIII.

And so these men of Indostan
Disputed loud and long,
Each in his own opinion
Exceeding stiff and strong,
Though each was partly in the right,
And all were in the wrong!
MORAL.

So, oft in theologic wars
The disputants, I ween,
Rail on in utter ignorance
Of what each other mean,
And prate about an Elephant
Not one of them has seen!

John Godfrey Saxe (1872)