

A SMALL SCALE STUDY EXPLORING THE EMOTIONAL NEEDS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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A Small Scale Study Exploring the Emotional Needs of English LanguageLearnersAbstract

Previous research into the needs of English Language Learner pupils (ELL) has predominantly focused on progress made in language acquisition and academic attainment, whereby learning and language needs were identified and managed. The current research aimed to explore the emotional needs of ELL pupils, and how they may be different to those of English speaking pupils. All data was collected from responses provided by pupils and teachers within two West Midlands based primary schools. A sequential mixed methods design was employed within a Critical Realist theoretical approach.

In Phase 1 quantitative data was collected through the use of the Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention measure (2003) as a means of identifying emotional strengths and weaknesses. Self report checklists were completed by 106 pupils aged 9 to 11, 29% of which were identified as ELL. Teacher checklists were also completed for each participant. This data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. In Phase 2 qualitative data was collected via focus groups with ELL pupils and their English speaking counterparts, and semi-structured interviews were also conducted with their class teachers. Thematic analysis was used to analyse qualitative findings.

Quantitative analysis of the checklist data indicated ELL pupils and their teachers scored ELL pupils as having significantly lower emotional literacy skills than their English speaking counterparts, which suggests they may have greater emotional needs. From the qualitative data, ELL pupils reported experiencing greater negative emotions at the time of starting school in the UK, in comparison to English speaking pupils of the same age. English language proficiency is identified by both ELL pupils and their teachers as the factor that has the greatest impact on their emotional well being. Protective factors such as empathic peers and language partners are identified. Possible mechanisms that may lead to the observed behaviours of ELL pupils are considered within the Critical Realist philosophy.

The overall findings are discussed in relation to the literature review conducted, along with a critique of the methods used. The author discusses the lack of consideration of emotional factors within the current national approach to the learning and teaching of ELL pupils. The current study suggests ELL pupils have emotional needs that are specific to their circumstances, and highlights a need to develop a national framework which is grounded in evidence. Future research and the potential role of the educational psychologist in the development of a national ELL framework are discussed.

Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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List of Abbreviations

ABCD	Affective/Behavioural/Cognitive/Dynamic model
Av	Average
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CPH	Critical Period Hypothesis
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
CYPP	Child and Young People's Plan
DCSF	Department for Children Schools and Families
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
EAL	English as an Additional Language
ECM	Every Child Matters
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EL	Emotional Literacy
ELAI	Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention
ELL	English Language Learner
EMP	Empathy (sub scale in ELAI)
ENG	English speaking pupils
ESL	English as a Second Language
EP	Educational Psychologist
EU	European Union
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
GSCE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
KS	Key Stage
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LA	Local Authority
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
Mot/Motiv	Motivation (sub scale in ELAI)
NALDIC	National Association for Language Development in Curriculum
NHSS	National Healthy Schools Standard

NI	National Indicators
OFSTED	Office of Standards in Education
PATHS	Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies curriculum
PSA	Public Service Agreement
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
Res	Researcher
RQ	Research Question
SA	Self-Awareness (sub scale in ELAI)
SEAL	Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning
SEL	Social and Emotional Learning
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCo	Special Educational Needs Coordinator
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLIC	Second Language Instruction Competence
SPS	Southampton Psychology Service
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SR	Self Regulation (sub-scale in ELAI)
SS	Social Skills (sub scale in ELAI)
TA	Teaching Assistant
Tellus4	'Tell Us' survey completed by school age pupils
UK	United Kingdom
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USA	United States of America
WHO	World Health Organisation

Chapter One: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale for Thesis

The population of the United Kingdom (UK), much like those of other European countries, is becoming increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse due to significant changes in immigration over the last few decades. Immigration in this context entails the need for countries to manage diversity in such a way so as to ensure successful social integration. Schools have a key role to play in equipping migrant-background children with the tools needed to participate and contribute successfully to the dominant society. The use and role of language in the acculturation process is paramount, and can contribute to the significant challenges faced by English Language Learner (ELL) pupils in UK schools.

The language barriers faced by ELL pupils, in addition to a variety of other obstacles they are under pressure to negotiate in school, will undoubtedly require them to draw on their emotional resources and skills. Not only is it possible that their lack of English proficiency could be a source of distress, but it may have a further impact on the emotional well being of ELL pupils as they will not have the linguistic means to express their emotional experiences, or seek assistance. The journey undertaken by many ELL pupils, in particular those who are newly arrived, may have been a journey ridden with uncertainty and anxiety, regardless of whether it was one that hoped to offer a safer and more secure environment in which to live and grow. For some fortunate ELL pupils, another pupil who speaks the same language, or a bilingual member of staff may be able to offer some language support in the ELL pupils first language, however this is not always possible. Very little is known about the emotional experiences of ELL pupils, or how their endeavour to achieve emotional well being may be effectively supported. This is the gap in literature that the current research attempts to address.

The numbers of ELL pupils in UK schools have seen significant changes over recent years. School Census data (Data Service Group, DCSF, 2008) indicates 12.5% of compulsory age children in the UK are known to, or believed to speak a first language other than English. Of the data available, 240 different languages

were recorded. In the past, National Census data has not sought such information, however the inclusion of questions referring to first and second languages in the upcoming 2011 National Census indicates the relevance and importance of it.

Despite efforts made by schools to include and teach English Language Learner pupils of immigrant-background (which include children from second and third generation immigrant families in which a different language is spoken at home, as well as newly arrived communities, asylum seekers and refugees), problems continue to persist, where children face issues of inequality, underachievement, exclusion and discrimination (Ochoa, Riccio, Jimenez, Garcia de Alba and Sines, 2004). Language barriers faced by children who are ELL will impact on their ability to integrate successfully into their sociolinguistic communities, both in and out of the school context. The experience of language anxiety whilst acquiring a second language (MacIntyre and Gardener, 2006) may be in addition to a number of other negative emotional experiences linked to attending an English speaking school whilst still learning the English language.

Due to a dearth of literature that focuses on the emotional needs of ELL pupils in UK based English speaking schools, it was necessary for the author to cast a wide net when conducting the literature review. Literature in related areas of interest such as second language acquisition, language anxiety, language and identity, acculturation, the role of emotions in learning and emotional literacy were reviewed.

It can be argued that human beings are emotional creatures, and our emotions highly influence our thoughts, meanings and actions. The importance of emotional well being in school is not only recognised by teachers but is also reflected in educational policy in the UK. The five outcomes the Every Child Matters (ECM, DfES, 2004b) agenda seeks out to encompass the holistic needs of all children, including their emotional well being, which is incorporated into two of the five outcomes; be healthy, and enjoy and achieve. Government guidance for schools recognise the importance of emotional well-being in school, and also recognise that pupils for whom English is not their first language may require additional or targeted support (A Language in Common, QCA, 2000; Aiming High: Guidance on

supporting the education of asylum seeker and refugee children, DfES, 2004a; Aiming High: Guidance on the assessment of pupils learning English as an additional language, DfES, 2005c; Aiming High: Meeting the needs of newly arrived learners of English as an additional language, DfES, 2005d; Ethnicity and Education, DfES, 2006a; Excellence and Enjoyment: Learning and teaching for bilingual pupils in primary years, DfES, 2006b). However, these documents provide guidance on meeting the *educational* needs of ELL pupils, very little guidance is offered to schools in the way of supporting the *emotional* needs of such pupils.

The author, having worked with a number of pupils who are English Language Learners as part of her role as a Trainee Educational Psychologist within a UK based local authority, noticed the lack of attention given to the emotional needs of individual ELL pupils by teachers. This was not due to a lack of consideration or effort by any means, but more linked to a lack of understanding or a lack of awareness of how the emotional needs of ELL pupils may be different from those of their English speaking counterparts.

1.2 Aims of the Research

This study sought to explore the emotional needs of primary aged English Language Learner pupils who attend an English speaking school in the UK. An emotional literacy measure (Southampton Psychology Service, 2003) was used to gain quantitative data regarding emotional needs. The research does not focus on a single ethnic group, but instead attempts to understand the emotional experiences of all groups for whom English is a second language. It is understood however, that factors such as, differences in cultural background, countries of origin, first language proficiency and use, second language proficiency and the nature of an individual child's journey to the UK will contribute to shaping the different experiences of the participating ELL pupils. As such, this study does not assume that ELL pupils constitute a homogenous group, nor does it claim to be a representative sample of ELL pupil populations in the UK.

The overarching aim of the research was to gain knowledge for understanding and knowledge for action (Wallace and Wray, 2006). When taking these approaches the author attempted to develop research knowledge to understand and potentially change practice and policy. The findings of the research were discussed in some detail with the participating schools, in the hope that this may lead to greater awareness and understanding of the emotional needs of ELL pupils.

The research questions addressed were:

RQ1: To what extent are the emotional needs of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school, as measured by the emotional literacy assessment and intervention measure, different to those of English speaking pupils?

RQ2: How do the perceived emotional experiences of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school differ from those of English speaking pupils, and what factors are identified as influential for ELL pupils emotional well-being?

RQ3: What aspects of school staff practice and ELL pupil school experiences, support the emotional well-being of ELL pupils who attend an English speaking school?

The author hypothesised:

The emotional needs of ELL pupils will be different to those of English speaking pupils.

1.3 Systematic Literature Review

In order to review the available literature on the emotional needs of ELL pupils the author used the following electronic/online search databases: Education Resource Information Centre (ERIC), PsychInfo, Education: A Sage full-text collection, Psychology: A Sage full-text collection. The search terms used when reviewing available literature included various combinations of the following terms: language; English; 'English language'; 'language learning'; 'stages of language learning';

'English as an additional language'; 'English as a second language'; bilingual; 'English language learners'; emotion; 'emotional needs'; 'emotional well being', 'language and emotion'; 'language and affect'; 'language anxiety'; school.

In addition to this, literature searches in related areas included the use of the following terms: 'language acquisition', 'second language acquisition'; 'learning and emotion', 'emotional literacy'; 'emotional intelligence'; assessment; 'emotional wellbeing'; acculturation; 'emotion and speech'; language and identity.

1.4 Overview of Methodology

A sequential mixed methods approach to the research design was employed. A combination of quantitative and qualitative data was used to answer the research questions, in an attempt to triangulate findings. Quantitative data was first obtained from pupils and teachers, through the use of the Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention (ELAI) measuring tool. Following this, pupil focus groups and teacher interviews were conducted. Quantitative data was analysed descriptively and statistically. Qualitative data was analysed thematically. ELL pupils were identified by their teacher with the use of a four point language proficiency scale (Hester, 1990). The study assumed that the teacher assessments of their pupil's English language proficiency was a reasonably accurate assessment, as they were likely to be the most knowledgeable source of such information, however this is a limitation of the study. All data collected was done so through the use of English as the mediating language.

The research report begins by providing the reader with a literature review of the relevant and related areas of research in an attempt to provide a context and rationale to the research conducted. Following this the author provides a detailed account of the methodology employed, taking into consideration the author's theoretical perspective. The data obtained are then presented, separated into quantitative and qualitative findings for both pupil and teacher participants. The report sums with the key discussion points that arose from the research in relation to relevant literature, before discussing the role of the Educational Psychologist and future research.

Chapter Two: LITERATURE REVIEW

Part 1 - Introduction

2.1 Introduction

When attempting to explore the emotional needs of English Language Learner (ELL) pupils who attend an English speaking school, literature in a number of different, yet relevant fields of research have been reviewed. Two obvious fields of interest are the areas of 'emotional needs' and 'emotional well being', as well as the field of language acquisition and aspects of the language learning process. Within these key areas of interest there are a number of sub-areas that could potentially shed light upon the research focus in question. In addition to these, there are a whole host of factors that may be identified as having a significant impact on an ELL pupil's efforts to not only acquire English, but also succeed in other aspects of their school life such as their learning and achievement and their social and emotional adjustment and development. Such factors could include acculturation, the role of language in developing identity, previous experiences or trauma, parental influence, emotional literacy and resilience.

The main purpose of this research was to conduct an empirical investigation into the emotional needs of English Language Learner pupils who attend an English speaking school, with the ultimate aim of developing a better understanding and a greater insight into their experiences as they perceive them, and as their teachers observe them. In doing so, it is the hope of the author that practice, pedagogy and interventions developed for this particular group of children are better informed, and have a greater evidence base to draw from. The author does not claim to provide all the answers by any means, but instead hopes to provide an initial exploration of the emotional needs of ELL pupils, to highlight the lack of research in this area, and the necessity for further research.

Due to the broad areas of focus within the research, i.e. language learning, and emotional well being in school, deciding how to go about searching, reviewing and presenting a literature review was a challenging task. Owing to the fact that both

language based theory and research, and, emotions based theory and research are highly relevant when trying to understand the experiences of an ELL pupil in an English speaking school, the author felt there was a need to include relevant literature from both fields. Due to the sheer volume of literature, much of which is beyond the scope of this thesis, the author has attempted to review the most salient and pertinent literature, in order to alert the reader to the author's reasoning and rationale behind the research conducted.

This chapter has been organised into four parts. Part One begins by providing some background contextual information with regards to current language diversity within the United Kingdom (UK). This will be followed firstly with the definition of the term English Language Learner, and the reasoning behind the use of this term. Information on national prevalence of people who speak English as an additional language, and prevalence in schools, along with information of language proficiency measures previously used in schools, will follow. In Part Two, the author has attempted to review literature which provides some interesting and relevant insights into the process of second language acquisition, and the role of, and impact of emotions within this process. The aim of this section is to highlight to the reader various bodies of literature which suggest there is good reason to believe that emotions play a significant role in the language learning process, and that the affective dimensions of language learning need to be considered with greater magnitude, particularly for school-age pupils learning an additional language which is also the dominant language of communication within their educational setting.

In Part Three, the author will then shift the chapter's focus to literature that discusses the topic of emotional well being and emotional literacy in school. Definitions of key terms are provided, and the notion that emotions play a fundamental role in effective learning in school is discussed. It is in Part Four that the author has attempted to review the very small body of literature in which reference had been made, more specifically, to the emotional experiences of English language learner pupils. The apparent lack of research and literature within this specific field of emotional needs of English Language Learner pupils who attend an English speaking primary school within the UK is highlighted and

the literature available is critically reviewed in relation to the present research aims.

The author recognises that there are large bodies of literature available that could be considered relevant to the research. When deciding what to include in this literature review, the author selected what she felt was the most influential and insightful literature. The literature that has been reviewed has been chosen and included so as to provide the reader with an understanding and an insight into key related research findings, and to highlight the gap in available literature that this research has attempted to address. In doing so an overview of the wide range of theory and research in key areas has been presented, which attempts to place the current study within a larger context. Part Four presents a review of literature that was found through the use of a systematic approach, which involved the use of specifically chosen search terms. The search terms and the databases within which these terms were used have been provided in Chapter One. The literature review presented in Part Four is of literature that was closest to the aims of the current research.

The author will now begin by providing definitions of key terms and contextual and demographical information with regards to the linguistic diversity within the UK.

2.2 Linguistically Diverse Society

The majority of the world's population speaks more than one language. For many people the ability to communicate in two or more languages is an integral part of everyday life. Language is learnt along a continuum of proficiency, which can vary depending on various factors such as teaching, practice and exposure to the language being learnt, or the purposes for which the language is used.

There are a number of social contexts in which children become bilingual (definition provided in the next section). In some homes each parent will speak a different language and the child will grow up bilingually. In other homes a language other than English is spoken but acquisition of English is seen as important for economic and social reasons. Many UK born pupils hear and learn to speak a

language other than English at home and in their community during the first few years of their life. This language may continue to be used regularly throughout their lives. Although these pupils may have some familiarity with English from television or older siblings for example, their extensive exposure to English effectively begins when they enter the education system.

There is also a group of newly arrived pupils who arrive in school at different ages and may be new to English. It is important to find out as much as possible about a new pupil in order to ensure appropriate educational arrangements are made. Some late-arriving pupils may be from families seeking asylum or refuge who may have had limited or interrupted education due to political unrest or war-stricken conditions within their home country. Such pupils are faced with the task of acquiring English and learning curriculum content at the same time, which may present them with a considerable amount of catching up to do in a short time. In addition to this they may have suffered trauma in their previous living conditions which may be contributing to their readiness to learn and their ability to integrate and adjust to their new surroundings.

It is not difficult to observe the diversity within the UK population, which is reflected in school populations. Accurate information on exactly how linguistically diverse the UK population is, and the nature of the diversity, is difficult to obtain due to a lack of reliable sources. However recent changes to data collecting tools, such as the national census, are hoping to address this problem.

Before reviewing current information regarding linguistic diversity on a national level and on a school level, a definition for ELL is provided below.

2.3 Definition of 'English Language Learner'

The expression 'English as an additional language' (EAL) is more commonly used in the UK to refer to individuals who are speakers of languages other than English. Pupils who speak EAL have another language which is most commonly one that is spoken in their native or home country. This language is most commonly the first language they are exposed to and is one which they consider to be their home

language or first language (L1). For EAL pupils, English is considered to be a language which is used in addition to L1, i.e. it is their L2, or L3, depending on how many languages were learnt prior to learning English. Despite its extensive use within UK schools, government guidance publications and previous research, the author did not feel the term 'EAL' takes into account the factor of language proficiency. Welply (2010) agrees with this point and considers the term EAL to be problematic as it does not reflect the diversity of language proficiency.

To illustrate this point the author will describe two contrasting EAL pupils. A pupil who had recently arrived in the UK who had had no previous exposure to English and was in the very early stages of learning English, but was fluent in their home language, would be considered as an EAL pupil by school. In contrast, a British born pupil who had been exposed to a first language other than English within the home initially, but who later on, had had considerable exposure to English and thus were able to understand and speak basic English, would also be considered as an EAL pupil. The difference between these two pupils is their English language proficiency, which the term EAL does not distinguish.

The term 'bilingual' is another popular term that is often used to refer to individuals or groups of people who obtain the knowledge and use of more than one language. Butler and Hakuta (2004) report that many researchers employ a broader view of bilinguals as individuals who are fluent in one language, and who can produce 'complete meaningful utterances' in the other language. UK government guidance documents (Excellence and Enjoyment, DFES, 2006b) which aim to support schools working with EAL children, define bilingual children to be those who have access to more than one language both at home and at school. They note however, that being bilingual does not necessarily imply full fluency in both or all languages spoken. As with the term 'EAL', the author felt the term 'bilingual' did not provide an indication of an individuals' level of language proficiency, and thus allowed children who are in the early stages of language acquisition and who are not fluent or confident in their use or understanding of English, to be classified as bilinguals. Due to the level of language proficiency being of primary concern in the present research, the author did not feel 'EAL' or

'bilingual' were appropriate terms, and felt the term 'English Language Learner' was more suitable, as it refers directly to pupils who are still learning English.

The author defines English Language Learners (ELL) as individuals who have limited proficiency in the English language, and are thus still learning to speak, understand and communicate in English, regardless of their proficiency in their first or prior languages. The four stage English language proficiency scale on which ELL pupils were placed according to their English proficiency by schools in the past, has been discussed in detail later in this chapter, and briefly in Chapter Three.

The language learning process that ELL pupils in UK schools are engaged in is likely to involve learning through direct language instruction, and through experiences in which English is being used as a medium for communication and teaching. Due to the common use of the term EAL to refer to pupils who are not considered to be fluent English speakers, literature using this term has been deemed highly relevant in this review and so the terms EAL and ELL are used interchangeably, however the preferred term is ELL.

2.4 The National ELL Picture

According to reports published by the Office for National Statistics (Social Trends Journal, 2010), the number of people living in the UK has steadily increased by 5.5 million people between 1971 and 2008. Historically, net natural population change (difference between births and deaths) was the main driver behind population increase. Since 1971, the influence of net natural change has been much lower, and net inflows of immigrants have had a larger impact on population growth, accounting for 62% of the growth between 2001 and 2008, which later dropped to 46% by mid-year 2008.

The Migration Statistics Annual Report (Office for National Statistics, 2008) states 7% of people living in the UK in 2008 were non-British nationals. The most common foreign nationality of UK residents was Polish, followed by nationals from

Republic of Ireland, India, Pakistan and USA. Five percent of Polish nationals had been granted British citizenship, compared to 51% of Indian born UK residents.

There were around 31,300 applications for asylum (including dependents) to the UK in 2008, an increase of 11% on the previous year, the first annual increase in applications since 2002. Around 70% of these applications were refused. Of these applications, 40% were made by African nationals, 37% from nationals of Asia and Oceania, 19% from Middle-Eastern nationals, and 3% from European nationals.

Of the British population, 83% is reported to be made up predominantly of people from White British ethnic backgrounds. However, during the second half of the 20th Century, the pattern of migration into Britain produced a number of distinct ethnic minority groups within the general population. In 2008, the second largest ethnic group was Other White (5%), for example those born overseas, followed by Indian (2%) and Pakistani (2%). The remaining ethnic minority groups accounted for around 8% of the population (Office for National Statistics, 2010).

The number of people granted British Citizenship in 2008 had decreased by 21% when compared to the previous year's figures. The nationalities with the largest number of British citizenship grants awarded in 2008, were (in decreasing order), Indian, Pakistani, and Iraqi.

Data on national statistics with regards to the number of people who speak languages other than English, until recently, has been difficult to obtain. There is no official source giving a detailed breakdown of how many people in the UK speak EAL or the ranking of community languages spoken in the UK. In her investigation into the needs of people whose first language is not English, and the barriers they may face when seeking employment, education or training, Shellekens (2001), reports that the lack of reliable data has caused serious problems with the planning and delivery of education and training provision. Aspinall (2007) more recently reported the lack of statistical information to have hindered the incorporation of language into ethnic monitoring, with regards to health inequalities.

Schellekens (2001) estimates from the data sources available, that there are at least three million people living in the UK who were born in countries where English is not the national language, and that between 1 and 1.5 million people living in the UK lack the English language skills required to function in society and employment. The considerable range suggested by Shellekens (2001) is indicative of the lack of reliable and accurate sources available.

The UK Statistics Authority proposes to introduce new questions on first and second languages and language proficiency into the 2011 Census. The most recent national census was completed in 2001, and provided no information on language use or proficiency. Responses in the upcoming census will provide an indication of areas and communities where foreign language services may be necessary, and will help develop a better understanding of the diversity of the UK population (Helping to shape tomorrow, Cabinet Office, 2008).

2.5 ELL Pupils in Schools

The 2008 Annual Schools Census carried out by the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF, Data Services Group, 2008) reported 12.5% of all pupils of compulsory school age in England are known to be or believed to have a language other than English as their first language. For 87.2% of school age pupils, English is known to be their first language, and for 0.3% of pupils their first language is unclassified. Of the pupils who are known to or believed to have a language other than English as their first language, specific language information was provided for seventy nine percent of them. These pupils were recorded as speaking up to 240 different languages. Of the 12.5% of pupils thought to have a first language other than English, 1.6% speak Punjabi, 1.3% speak Urdu, 1.1% speak Bengali, 0.6% speak Gujrati, 0.5% speak Somali and 0.4% speak Polish. However 2.7% of children who were known to speak a first language other than English did not have a specific language recorded. A total of 236 languages were spoken by the remaining 4.3% of pupils.

School census data available may be considered as a more accurate source of information with regards to current linguistic diversity of the children within UK schools, than national census data as it is a data collection procedure that is

completed on an annual basis, as opposed to the ten yearly UK national census. In their attempt to demonstrate the value of school census data for measuring migration, Simpson, Marquis and Jivraj (2010) claim that the school census is the only regularly updated dataset covering almost all of the population of a certain age (5 to 15 years old) who attend a state school. They go on to argue that school census data can potentially give good local indicators of the stock of families and family migration, with additional indicators of ethnicity, language and welfare claimant status, and is sensitive to short term changes.

In order to assist schools in managing changes in the demographics and the needs of different groups of pupils, the government often produce publications of reference. A variety of documents have been published by the DCSF over recent years, (A Language in Common (QCA) 2000; Aiming High: Guidance on supporting the education of asylum seeker and refugee children (DfES) 2004a; Aiming High: Guidance on the assessment of pupils learning English as an additional language (DfES) 2005c; and Aiming High: Meeting the needs of newly arrived learners of English as an additional language (DfES) 2005d; Excellence and Enjoyment (DfES), 2006b) which have offered guidance, strategies, techniques and interventions on how to support pupils who speak EAL. In the past many Local Authorities have used a four stage English learning model developed by Hester (1990) as a means of measuring English proficiency. This model has been described below, along with a review of a study in which the relationship between the different levels of English learning and educational attainment has been investigated. Following this, key government publications that focus on the EAL pupil population have been discussed.

2.6 English Language Proficiency in School

The relationship between English language skills and scholastic performance has been recognised in the past. Strand and Demie (2005) argued that analysis of national test and examination results in England has indicated strong relationships between EAL and pupil performance. This is illustrated by national test data from 2003, in which only 67% of 11 year old EAL pupils are recorded to have achieved the expected Level 4 or above in English, compared to 76% of their monolingual

peers (Strand and Demie, 2005). They report that this differential can also be seen in Mathematics and Science test data, as well as national tests taken at ages 7 and 14 and in General Certificate in Secondary Education (GCSE) public examinations at age 16.

Due to an apparent lack of research into the relationship between stages of fluency in English and attainment, Strand and Demie (2005) conducted a borough wide survey of Year 6 (age 10 and 11) pupils in an inner London borough, which they report as being one of the most ethnically and linguistically diverse boroughs in Britain, with 39% recorded as bilingual, and Black African pupils forming the largest ethnic group. They collected a range of background data of these pupils which included stages of fluency in English and attainment, and claimed that a single dichotomous measure of EAL is insufficient to do justice to the range and degree of language learning needs of EAL pupils. To measure stages of fluency they used Hester's (1990) four stage model. This model has been used by many Local Authorities in the UK in the past, to enable teachers to assess and monitor the progress of EAL pupils. A description of the four stages of English learning has been provided below.

► Stage 1 – New to English

Might be able to engage in classroom learning activities using their mother tongue but need support to operate in English. They may 'echo' words and phrases of other children and adults.

► Stage 2 – Becoming familiar with English

Can engage in all learning activities, but whose spoken and/or written English clearly shows that English is not their first language. Oral English is developing but they need considerable support to operate successfully in written activities.

► Stage 3 – Becoming confident as a user of English

Oral and written English is progressing well. They can engage successfully in both oral and written activities, but need further support for a variety of reasons e.g. technical terminology.

► Stage 4 - Fully fluent in English

Use of English and engagement in curriculum are considered a success, and they do not require additional language support.

The four stages of English learning. Strand and Demie (2005), based on Hester (1990).

In addition to Hester's model, other models of language learning are available, some of which differ from Hester's (1990) model (Haynes, 2007; California Department of Education, 2009), however these were developed and used in the USA, and so Hester's (1990) model is the most applicable to the current study due to its development in response to UK school pupil needs.

From their borough wide study, Strand and Demie (2005) found a significant relationship between stage fluency in English and Key Stage 2 test scores, with a systematic increase in score as fluency increased. They claim that their findings clearly show that stage fluency in English is a significant predictor of differential attainment among EAL pupils. These findings, when applied to reports written on the performance of EAL pupils by, for example the DCSF or OFSTED, suggest that EAL should not be assumed to be a homogenous group, and that such reports may be misleading. Whilst their findings are interesting, the author felt some aspects of their sample demographics may have influenced their findings. For example the sample from which their findings were drawn consisted largely of pupils of Black African and Caribbean heritage, which were the largest ethnic groups in the Local Authority within which the research was conducted. Due to such a high proportion of the sample (45% in total) being members of this ethnic group, their findings could be true of this particular group, but may not be true for other ethnic groups. Additionally the sample included only those pupils who were entered for the Key Stage 2 tests, and did not include Year 5 or 6 EAL pupils who had arrived in a school directly from abroad, as they could be disapplied from Key Stage 2 tests. As this group of pupils would most likely have been placed at Stages 1 or 2 of the English fluency, their educational attainment and progress

over time would have been particularly interesting to investigate due to their recent arrival and lack of previous exposure to English.

The practices of schools over the years have been guided by various models and recommendations, many of which have been provided by the government. Governmental guidance focussing on supporting ELL pupils will now be reviewed.

2.7 Government Guidance for Schools Supporting ELL Pupils

Considerable government guidance has been published to assist schools and practitioners in supporting the diverse needs of EAL pupils. The Excellence and Enjoyment: Learning and teaching for bilingual pupils in primary years (DfES, 2006b) was published as part of the Primary National Strategy, and was one of the most substantial packages published by the government which offered advice, support and materials for schools with EAL pupils. It consisted of a total of nine separate units and eight professional development modules which were developed to support teachers and schools in promoting progress and achievement for all learners, with a particular focus on those who speak English as an additional language. In Unit 1, it is explained that EAL pedagogy has been influenced by social constructivist theories which highlight the importance of socio-cultural and emotional factors, and reference is made to the work of well known linguists and theorists. At the heart of the theoretical model upon which the entire publication is based is the 'EAL Learner'.

Whilst it is recognised that learning depends on affective dimensions such as self esteem and motivation, these aspects of school life experiences and learning are not incorporated into the EAL model used within the document (see Figure 1.1). Instead the focus is placed on cognitive, academic and language development. There is considerable research which suggests emotions play a critical role in all three of these areas of development, which has been discussed later in this chapter. However, it would seem that within this particular 'EAL model', the role of emotions, whilst recognised in the literature, is seen more as an aspect of learning which can act as a catalyst for learning, and not as an essential facet of learning.

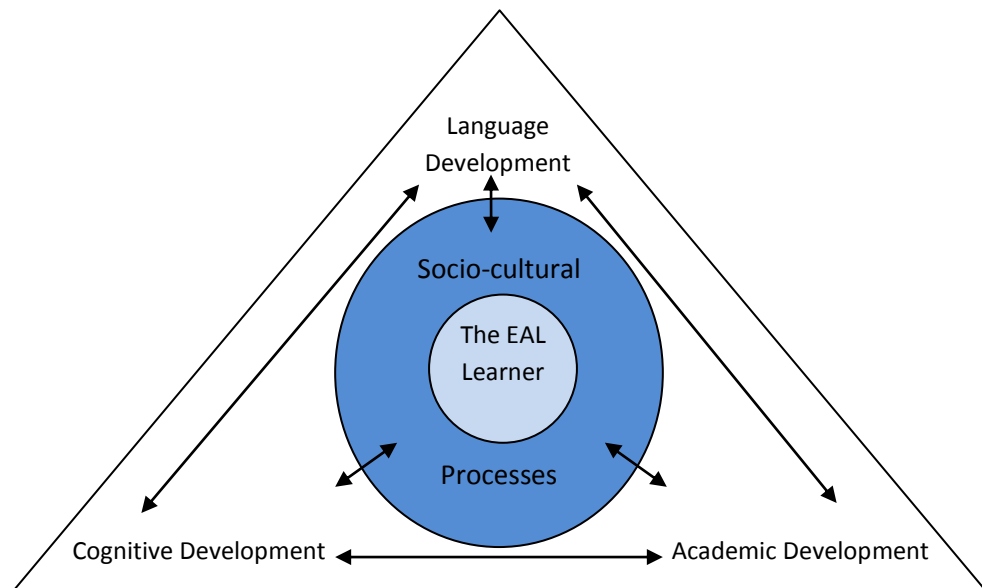


Figure 1.1: Acquiring EAL in the Primary school context (Excellence and Enjoyment: Learning and teaching for bilingual pupils in primary years, DfES, 2006b).

The document goes on to say that EAL Learners will be affected by attitudes taken to them, their culture, language, religion and ethnicity within the school, beyond the school and in the wider world, and that the EAL Learner's social and cultural experiences will impact on their progress in language acquisition as well as on their cognitive and academic development.

The remainder of the publication is dominated by suggestions of how to support an EAL learner's language needs and strategies that may support their learning needs. It is recognised that for optimal additional language development, anxiety levels must be kept low and that children need to feel accepted and have a 'sense of belonging'. The role of; school culture and ethos, relationships, and identity are highlighted as factors that need to be considered when developing an inclusive learning environment, and in doing so the document directs the reader to the 'Social and emotional aspects of learning' or SEAL (DfES, Excellence and Enjoyment: SEAL, 2005a) materials developed, which have also been discussed later in this chapter.

In an evaluation study of the pilot programme of the Excellence and Enjoyment (2006b) initiative, Benton and White (2007) found that in general, there were no

significant differences in the rates of improvement for EAL and non-EAL pupils, and suggested that this may have been due to the ability of the programme to reach a broad range of pupils and not just EAL pupils. No measures or investigations into how the programme impacted on the emotional experiences of EAL were included.

Other government lead guidance publications that have focussed on EAL pupils have included: *A Language in Common* (QCA, 2000); *Aiming High: Guidance on supporting the education of asylum seeker and refugee children* (DfES, 2004a); *Aiming High: Guidance on the assessment of pupils learning English as an additional language* (DfES, 2005c); and *Aiming High: Meeting the needs of newly arrived learners of English as an additional language* (DfES, 2005d). Some of these publications were purely developed to aid assessment of EAL pupil's language and learning needs. However *Aiming High* (2005d) offers some interesting insights into the needs of newly arrived, asylum seeker and refugee children, who are groups that make up a considerable proportion of ELL pupils.

They suggest a number of reasons as to why this group of children may be at risk of experiencing emotional adversity, and argue that asylum seekers and refugee children who arrive in the UK with an interrupted prior education are among the most educationally vulnerable, and that experiences of previous persecution may manifest in disturbed behaviour in which case professionals such as Educational Psychologists and Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS) workers may need to become involved.

Throughout most government publications mentioned here, reference has been made to the potential influence of emotional and affective factors on an ELL pupil's success in language acquisition, social adjustment and learning. Despite the recognition of emotional aspects of language learning and adjustment, there is a very apparent lack of information or guidance on the potential emotional needs of ELL pupils, and whether their needs are different from the needs of other groups of children, more specifically, from those who speak English fluently. When reflecting on guidance developed specifically for ELL pupils, and those developed for all children, such as the SEAL materials (DfES, 2005a) there appears to be

considerable overlap. This suggests that whilst the awareness and recognition of social and emotional aspects of learning has increased, less appears to be known about the social and emotional aspects of being an English language learner in an English speaking school, and so guidance offered tends to be applicable to all pupils, and not specifically to ELL.

It may be the case that ELL pupil's emotional needs are no different to those of English speaking pupils, however this is, as yet, unknown due to a lack of research, which is reflected in the guidance provided for schools by the government. This study has attempted to initiate research into this area by exploring the emotional needs and emotional well being of English language learner pupils, in order to gain insights into their emotional experiences at the time of starting school in the UK, and to gain insights into teachers observations, perceptions and experiences of working with ELL pupils. This will assist educationalists in understanding aspects of school life and school staff practice that may influence the emotional experiences of ELL pupils. A systematic review of literature was conducted, (see Chapter One for more details) when searching for literature specific to the focus of the current study. In addition to this wider searches were conducted, which generated literature from various fields of research, and which offered a backdrop to the aims and rationale for the research conducted. Those identified as most relevant have been reviewed in this chapter with the aim of highlighting to the reader that there is good reason to believe that English language learner pupils have emotional experiences that are specific to their circumstances when they begin attending school in the UK, and that their needs warrant research.

The process of acquiring language has interested linguists and psychologists for many years. Theories focussing on the acquisition of both a first language and a second language have defined our current thinking around the language learning process (Crawford, 2004). Some theories are more readily accepted than others and have been critically acclaimed, however it is the role of emotions within these theories and related research findings that the author is interested in. The most influential language acquisition theories have been discussed below, in addition to other areas of language learning and language use that offer insight into the role

of emotions when acquiring language. This language focussed section of the literature review, will be followed by a review of literature that focuses on emotional well being in school. After which, a review of previous literature that has made direct reference to the emotional experiences of English language learners will be presented.

Part 2 – The Language Learning Process

In order to develop an understanding of the role of emotions and the influence of emotions on the process of language learning, it is necessary to first become familiar with current thinking and theoretical perspectives within the language learning field. The acquisition of language, both as a first language (L1) and as a second language (L2) has interested linguists and psychologists for many years. This study is more concerned with second language acquisition (SLA), and so theories of SLA will dominate the discussions.

This section will begin by providing a brief review of influential theoretical and empirical based opinions and perspectives on the process of second language acquisition. Factors that may influence and/or be affected by language acquisition are discussed, the key area of focus for this research being the affective dimensions of language learning and language use. This section will also include a review of a body of literature that investigates the experience of 'language anxiety' known to be experienced by adults who seek to learn an additional language. Following this, a review of literature on additional aspects of the language learning process that are likely to influence the emotional well being of a language learner are briefly discussed. These include the process and experience of acculturation, the role of language in identity, and language preference for emotional expression.

2.8 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

Literature within the field of language acquisition and many of the theories and debates about first language acquisition and its relation to learning are considered by those who are interested in second language acquisition. For many years now the work of key theorists have spurred great debate, and inspired much research

into second language acquisition. The earlier work of key theorists such as Chomsky (1971) and Lenneberg (1976), which was followed by the highly influential work of Krashen (1993) and Cummins (1991) will be discussed further.

Current literature suggests Chomsky (1971) was the first theorist to overthrow the audiolingual method of language instruction or teaching. The audiolingual method emphasised the teaching of form over function of language, in which grammar, vocabulary and syntactic rules were the focus of teaching practices. Much of this practice was based on the view of Skinner, a behaviourist who argued that language was a just another branch of learning, that is, the mind grasps grammatical form in the same way it draws on generalisations from all experiences (Crawford, 2004). Therefore, like other behavioural patterns, the acquisition of language and correct speech habits must be developed through imitation and reinforcement. Chomsky (1971) however, refuted Skinner's theory and argued that language use is a creative, open-ended process, rather than a closed system within which a finite set of linguistic responses for all stimuli are internalised. Instead, Chomsky (1971) hypothesised all humans have a language acquiring device (LAD), an innate cognitive capacity for language which is more or less identical in all humans, and that linguistic universals exist within this LAD that enable humans to formulate rules from verbal sounds we hear.

Whilst Chomsky's theory seemed plausible it did not appear to provide an explanation for the large differences amongst people who acquire a second language after childhood. One possible explanation was provided by the 'critical period hypothesis' (Brown, 1994).

2.9 Critical Period Hypothesis

The critical period hypothesis (CPH) posits a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily. This period is generally agreed to fall between 1 years of age and the time of puberty. The hypothesis claims that language is increasingly difficult to acquire beyond this period, as the language making faculty is no longer available in the same way it was in earlier childhood (Brown, 1994). Crawford (2004) argues strong evidence for this hypothesis has

been drawn from case studies of language deprivation. For example studies of feral children, (those who are not exposed to language in infancy/childhood due to isolation or being brought up in the wild). Whilst they do offer evidence for the CPH, the majority of these studies focus on children and adults who have been exposed to neglectful and abusive circumstances, such as the study of Genie (Curtiss, Fromkin, Krashen, Rigler and Rigler, 1979) who was deprived of social interaction from birth until discovered at age thirteen i.e. post-pubescent. Even after seven years of rehabilitation, Genie still lacked linguistic competence. Despite the insight offered by studies of feral children, due to the unfortunate circumstances within which many of these studies were discovered, it is not possible to generalise findings to more nurturing environments. Loffstadt, Nichol and de Klerk (2006), who studied the members of a feral family discovered in South Africa, commented on the poor mastery of language, in addition to other cognitive functioning that is often seen in feral children, as a result of lack of neural stimulation during the critical phase of brain plasticity.

The CPH was first popularised by Lenneberg (1976), who suggested that lateralisation of the brain is a slow process that begins around 2 years of age and is completed around the age of puberty. According to Lenneberg (1976) during this time the brain is neurologically assigning functions to either hemispheres, including the function of language. Scovel (1988) extended this explanation by suggesting that the plasticity of the brain prior to puberty enables children to acquire not only first languages (L1) but also second languages (L2), and that it is the very accomplishment of lateralisation that makes it difficult to acquire fluent control of a second language in later life (Brown, 1994).

There is good evidence to support the CPH, in which the acquisition of a second language, beyond the optimal age range, will lead to substantial differences in the course of acquisition (Meisel, 2004; Butler and Hakuta, 2004; Brown, 1994). Butler and Hakuta (2004) report that there is some evidence supporting the existence of a critical period in L1 acquisition from data derived from children. However there is substantial disagreement over whether or not the ultimate attainment of L2 is constrained by a critical period. Whilst much of the supportive evidence can be

applied to the CPH for L1, its application to L2 acquisition is much more dubious due the lack of empirical evidence (Crawford, 2004).

One study challenging the CPH is provided by Reichle (2010) who investigated the effects of 'age of arrival' into the L2 environment, on the ability to judge the acceptability of ill-formed information structures presented in the L2, in this case French, to L2 speakers of French. In doing so adult participants who had lived in a Francophone (French speaking) country for four or more years were recruited from local and university communities. Age of arrival ranged from 1 to 34 years, and the length of residency ranged from 4 to 32 years, with a mean length of ten years. Participants were asked to make judgements on information structure anomalies in constructed exchanges between two French speakers, in an initial, and then a subsequent experiment. In the first experiment participants were asked to rate sixty exchanges as acceptable or unacceptable, with regards to language structure, via an online, untimed task. Due to the ease of task in the initial experiment a second experiment was conducted within the laboratory in which participants were presented with visual stimuli in the form of photographs and words on a monitor, for a set length of time.

Reichle (2010) claims his findings provided counter evidence for CPH for L2. He found only a marginal inverse relationship between L2 speaker ability in French and age of arrival, i.e. the ability declined marginally as the age of arrival increased. In addition to this he found there to be a high level of 'native-like' performance amongst the late arrivals in the L2 environment, which is contrary to one of the criteria for critical period. However, the conclusions presented were based on the findings of both experiments, despite the shortcomings of the first experiment. Stark differences could be noted between the two experiments with respect to the ages, the recruitment methods, and length of residence in a French speaking country of the participants, in addition to differences in data collection methods, such as location of task completion and time restrictions on responses. Furthermore, it is not clear as to whether participants of the first experiment, were also involved in the subsequent experiment. These are factors which in the author's opinion render the conclusions to be lacking in coherent and transparent empirical evidence.

Further evidence that challenges the critical period hypothesis can be found in studies that have used brain imaging and electrophysiological techniques. Friederici, Steinhauer and Pfeifer (2002) show that adults who learned a miniature artificial language, display a similar real-time pattern of brain activation when processing this language as native speakers do when processing first languages. However their stimuli involved a small system of grammatical rules, which cannot be generalised to an entire language system.

There appears to be a vast amount of difference in the way in which the critical period for language acquisition is understood. Singleton (2005) presents a review of CPH literature in which he highlights the impact of inconsistency as affecting all the parameters deemed to be theoretically significant. He argues the inconsistencies are related to the ways in which the claimed critical period is interpreted in terms of its implication for L2 instruction. He concludes by boldly stating that the diverse and competing versions of the CPH undermines its plausibility, and to talk of it is misleading.

Despite the availability of evidence against the CPH for both L1 and L2 acquisition, the debate is still very much ongoing. There is a need for more conclusive and reliable evidence before the CPH can be refuted. However, if the age of L2 acquisition is considered to be of importance, then this has significant implications on the experiences of ELL pupils. For many ELL pupils, in particular those who are newly arrived to the UK, the age at which they begin to acquire EAL is dependent on the age at which they arrive in the UK. According to the CPH, if a pupil begins to acquire EAL beyond this critical period, the acquisition process will be more challenging for them, which is likely to have implications on the support provided for them on their arrival, and on the expectations placed on them. There are, however alternative theories, which consider factors of the language learning process other than age of acquisition, and offer some alternative suggestions on how to improve language acquisition and proficiency. The influential work of two key theorists will be briefly discussed now, that of Krashen (1993), an American linguist, and the theoretical model proposed by Cummins (1991), an American educational psychologist.

2.10 The Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1993), a linguist from Southern California, argued that most ability to communicate in another language is acquired outside of the classroom. The key factor is the comprehensible input, that is, messages that make sense to the individual in the second language. The language learner should be able to access the message on some level, and it should be pitched so that they have to strain a little to understand it, much in the same way as the zone of proximal development suggests Crawford (2004). For Krashen, it was the quality of second language exposure that was most crucial, and not the quantity.

Krashen (1993) proposed an 'innate learning processors' theory, which can be likened to Chomsky's (1971) LAD theory. In doing so he suggests the language learning faculty, when it receives intelligible messages, has no choice but to acquire the language. Krashen (1993) goes on to suggest that by first presenting some information in a native language, English instruction becomes more intelligible and comprehensible. He also argued that English instruction in subjects other than language, e.g. in a geography lesson, can provide a rich source of comprehensible input for ELL pupils, particularly if they already know something about the topic being discussed. Crawford (2004) refers to this type of language learning as 'sheltered instruction'.

A particularly relevant aspect of Krashen's (1993) innate learning processors theory, is his reference to an 'affective filter'. Krashen (1993) suggested that for second language learners, a number of internal processes are taking place to enable them to use the target language. He suggested that the affective filter accounted for the emotional state of the learner and their motivation to learn. Gravelle (1996) related this back to English language learners in British schools, and felt that their reasons for learning English, and their perceptions of what it means to be 'British' and their place in society, will all affect their attitudes towards English. If ELL pupils perceive their language and culture as being replaced by British language and culture, or depending on how accepted and valued they feel, their motivation to learn English is likely to be influenced.

Krashen (1993) was the first linguist to draw attention to the affective dimensions of language learning, and he highlights the influential role emotions can play in the language learning process. Krashen's (1993) notion of the affective filter is discussed further below, along with other affective considerations of the language learning process found within language learning literature that are relevant to the experiences of English language learners.

2.11 Affective Considerations of Language Learning in Children

Human beings are emotional creatures, and our emotions highly influence our thoughts, meanings and actions, despite our efforts to rationalise and intellectualise (Brown, 1994). It is of no surprise then, that research into the affective dimension of second language acquisition has been mounting with an increasing rate.

As children grow older they become more aware of themselves and seek to both define and understand their self-identity. Brown (1994) describes inhibitions that develop about this self-identity in children and young people, which involves the development of a totally new physical, cognitive and emotional self, and which can be heightened during puberty. The identities of children and young people are affected not only by how they understand themselves, but also how they reach out beyond themselves (Brown, 1994). The role and use of language during this period of maturation is critical, and can allow children and young people to relate to others socially, and can be a critical aid in bringing about emotional equilibrium. When a young person's sense of identity is placed under threat, it has the potential to cause confusion and distress, particularly at difficult and traumatic periods of transition, such as puberty. For an ELL child or young person going through such a transition in the UK, it is reasonable to believe that the language barrier can only act as an additional challenge, placing greater strain on their emotional resources, and on their ability to cope and manage.

Whilst Krashen (1993) believed language acquisition occurs naturally, he felt the process could be far from easy. Negative influences such as anxiety, lack of self-

confidence and inadequate motivation to speak a second language can negatively impact language acquisition. In addition to this, children who come from poor economic status families, minority ethnic groups and who speak low-status English, are more vulnerable to experiencing low self-esteem, which often coincides with anxiety or hostility toward English language learning (Crawford 2004). As a result Crawford (2004, p192) argued that such attitudes in ELL pupils may 'raise the affective filter', or may reduce the amount of input that is comprehensible, which slows the acquisition of English, however he does not provide any evidence to substantiate his argument

Crawford (2004) also felt instructional techniques have a strong impact in the affective dimensions of language learning, by either reinforcing or reducing the obstacles to language acquisition. Paying attention to errors made, or failing to provide a child with time and space for their silent period, in which they begin acquiring language predominantly through listening, can be counterproductive. A bilingual-bicultural curriculum in which minority languages and cultures are valued can enhance an ELL pupils' self esteem and provide a more comfortable environment for English acquisition.

Despite suggesting the use of a second language learners' first language as means of providing some background information to the learning task, Krashen is reported to have had very little to say about the interaction between first and second languages, and considered them largely separate (Gravelle, 1994). He recognised code-switching, moving naturally from one language to another during discourse, did not interfere with second language acquisition, but he placed little importance on the development of the first language, until being converted by the work of Cummins.

2.12 Cummins' Dual Iceberg Model

Cummins advanced a, now well recognised, cognitive theory of language which involved a 'common underlying proficiency' (CUP). In his chapter, Cummins (1991) explained the foundation of his theory. He argued that concepts and ideas which bilingual children develop in one language could interact with those developed in

another. That is, skills in different languages inhabit the same part of the brain, reinforcing each other at the base whilst differing at the surface. His interdependence hypothesis predicts that a child who has mastered the basics of thinking in their L1, will perform well on entering a second-language environment. Because of a common underlying proficiency, pupils do not need to relearn these skills.

In his theoretical framework, Cummins (1991) identifies two aspects of language proficiency differentiated in terms of their functional relevance to the performance of cognitive and academic tasks. These are basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). His basic hypothesis was that those aspects of language which make up CALP are of crucial significance to a child's educational success, whereas those which comprise BICS are of relative importance in conversational and social interactions. Second language learners may acquire a good level fluency in conversational English (BICS) within two years of starting to learn the language, but it may take them between five and seven years to develop CALP to the same level. Cummins saw proficiency in L1 or L2 to rest on a common underlying proficiency, and argued that there was strong evidence for the interdependence of language skills (Gravelle, 1996).

As with most theoretical models, Cummins' theoretical perspective does not go without criticism, particularly in reference to his BICS/CALP proposal to language proficiency, which was criticised for being too crude (Gravelle, 1994). Later Cummins accepted the criticism and as a result developed his theory to consider second language learning as a continuum which was influenced by the level of cognitive demand and the context of learning tasks. Both models have been depicted in Figures 1.2 and 1.3 (Page 43).

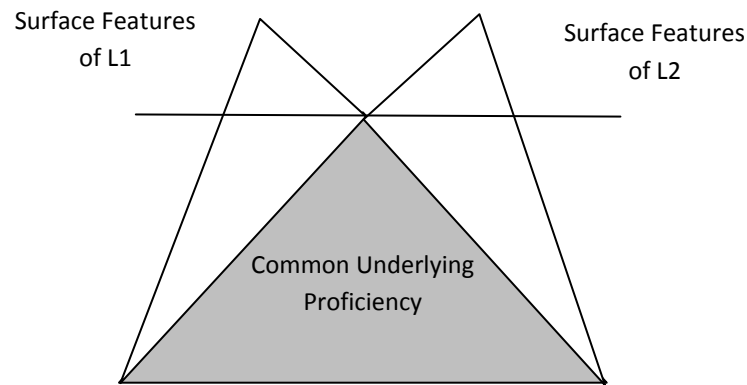


Figure 1.2 Dual Iceberg Model of Language Proficiency (Cummins, 1991).

Perhaps one of the most noted critical responses of Cummins' work came from MacSwann and Rolstad (2003) who argued the BICS/CALP distinction confounds language ability and academic achievement and does not take into account crucial differences between first and second language development. In addition to this, according to their interpretation, Cummins identifies schooling and literacy as the agency by which one can move from BICS to CALP. In their opinion, this implies language development at school is more superior to other methods of language learning employed by, for example, the unschooled. That is, school has a 'special effect' on language performance. Moreover, they argue that a consequence of the distinction between BICS and CALP is 'an ascription to the special status of the language of the middle class' (p 329), as it implies that language of the educated classes is in certain respects, intrinsically richer than the language of the unschooled or working class.

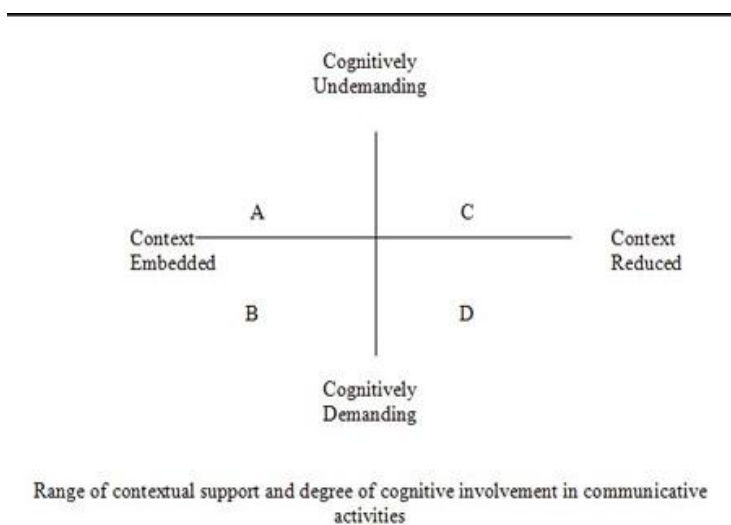


Figure 1.3 Conceptual foundation of the BICS/CALP Distinction (Cummins, 2003)

MacSwann and Rolstad (2003) offer an alternative to CALP, second language instruction competence (SLIC). Normally children have one objective to meet in school, mastery of academic content. ELL pupils have two, to learn the language of instruction, and master academic content. They argue that bilingual instruction allows them to keep up academically, while mastering English. Once an ELL pupil knows English sufficiently well so that they may understand content through English instruction, they have developed SLIC. They state they prefer this term as it does not make links to a pupils L1, unlike CALP.

Cline and Fredrickson (1996) argued that the concept of CALP suggested language skills required to achieve educational success are exclusively cognitive by nature. However in their opinion, CALP is also socially grounded and developed within a matrix of human interaction, and not exclusively cognitive.

In response to later criticisms Cummins (2003) claimed that the BICS/CALP distinction was not proposed as an overall theory of language, but as a very specific conceptual distinction that has important implications for policy and practice. By making the BICS/CALP distinction, Cummins asserts that this does not make them necessarily separate developmentally, nor does it mean they are identical to one another. He goes on to say that a theory represents only one of potentially many ways of organising or viewing empirical evidence, and that no theory is 'true' or 'valid' in any absolute sense (Cummins, 2003, p326).

Theories of second language acquisition presented here, have provided an insight into what the empirical evidence gathered over the last fifty years or so suggest with regards to the language learning process and factors that may influence it. However, as Cummins highlighted, a theory is just one possible explanation for the findings of research, and is highly vulnerable to subjective bias. In a similar vein, the analysis and interpretation of empirical data from language acquisition studies are likely to be influenced by the researcher's background, pre-existing hypotheses and a desire to prove these, along with the purposes which are fuelling the research. Convincing arguments both for and against the theories presented here, make it difficult to know which may be the most apposite when

considering the experiences of second language learners and bilingual pupils in schools. However, one point that the author feels should be raised at this point is with regards to empirical evidence and it's, until recently, heavy reliance on adult data.

Haznedar and Gavruseva (2008) note the scarcity of child L2 studies during the 1990's, and comment on the significant shifts in focus in child L2 research over the past two decades, due to an increasing availability of child focussed empirical data. Nonetheless, debates regarding for example, L1 transfer, or how L1 influence might relate to age of onset, continue to illuminate and excite the field of child second language acquisition research. Whilst factors such as age, gender, proficiency in L1, and so on, appear to be the focal points of research to date, there appears to be no literature which focuses on the emotional aspects of language learning in children specifically.

As highlighted in previous sections, some language theories, namely Krashen's (1993) reference to an affective filter, do recognise the role of emotions within the language learning process. Other theories offer some insight into factors that may influence the language learning process, which may in turn impact on the emotional well being of a second language learner. However, very little is known about the emotional experiences of English language learner pupils in the UK, who are faced with the challenge of learning English, through the medium of English.

There is literature available which looks into the experiences of adult second language learners, more specifically, their experience of anxiety during the language learning process. There is a significant body of research which reports on the experience of 'language anxiety' by adult L2 learners, a review of which has been provided below, however it is noted that this body of literature, whilst insightful, is based on data from adults who chose to acquire a second language, as opposed to acquiring one out of necessity.

2.13 'Language Anxiety'

The term 'language anxiety' was defined by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) as a separate and distinct phenomena particular to additional language learning. The possibility that anxiety interferes with language learning has long interested scholars, language teachers and language learners themselves. The concept of anxiety itself is multifaceted, and is categorised as a situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz, 2010). It is clear that anxiety does not work in isolation (Yan and Horwitz, 2008), and a number of studies have focussed specifically on the construct of language anxiety and have sought to identify factors associated with language anxiety which have provided consistent findings that suggest there to be an inverse relationship between anxiety and L2 achievement (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b; Horwitz, 2000; Yan and Horwitz, 2008; Imai, 2010).

Research into language anxiety is rooted in the research field of foreign language acquisition. Studies focussing on foreign language acquisition have had an overarching aim to identify factors that interfere with the process of language learning, such as anxiety. For this reason much of the research into language anxiety reports on how anxiety impacts on L2 success and proficiency, as opposed to the emotional experiences of language learners per se. Nonetheless, language anxiety literature provides interesting arguments that are relevant to the focus of this research.

The nature of the relationship between language learning and anxiety has caused some controversy. Sparks and Ganschow (1991) suggested that anxiety is a result, not a cause, of poor learning ability and that there might be a confounding interaction between anxiety and L1 skills that posit a subtle language learning disability in some learners. Horwitz (2000) however, presents a convincing counter argument in response to Sparks and Ganschow (1991) in which she draws the reader's attention to empirical findings which suggest that tasks reliant on language can be stressful for people in their native language, and even more stressful for some people in an L2. She feels the pervasiveness of anxiety, and its existence in successful language learners disproves the contention that all anxiety

stems from learning disabilities. In her opinion, to deny the reality of foreign language anxiety is illogical as well as insensitive to the experience and needs of many language learners and teachers, and is ultimately harmful.

Dewaele (2005), a key figure in the field of language anxiety, argued for the general broadening of the theoretical and methodological horizons in the field of instructed second language acquisition by including the psychological and emotional dimensions of L2 learning. He argues this on the basis that SLA research has been more concerned with groups of learners rather than individual learners. By broadening horizons it would provide a more complete picture of the language learner and user, as emotion is essential to human cognition. He...

‘...fervently believes that a stronger focus on physiological, psychological, affective and emotional issues in second language acquisition can provide crucial theoretical insights into L2 acquisition that are now missing’ (Dewaele, 2005, pp 377-378).

He strongly argues the need for more work to improve our knowledge of how to promote the acquisition of the expression of emotion and other essential parts of L2 sociocultural competence. Imai (2010) attempted to explore emotions between people in the context of SLA, by following two groups of Japanese university students in preparation for a presentation that was to be delivered in English, a potentially anxiety provoking task. Imai (2010) discusses the notion of *linguistic emotivity* in which the function of language is not limited to referencing and conveying facts, but also expresses and exposes human emotions. Imai (2010) argues that emotions are socially constructed and manifested in the space of social interactions, and so the place in which the emotions are experienced is important. He concludes by suggesting emotions can be considered not just reactions to cognitive demands of acquiring language but as mediators between such demands and subsequent learning behaviour, and calls for a more holistic approach to research which considers the whole range of emotions associated with L2 learning (Imai, 2010).

There would appear to be a considerable amount of research into experience of anxiety during language learning. Initial research and theory suggested language anxiety to be a result of negative language learning experiences, however more recent research suggests there to be a much more complex and intimate relationship between language and emotions that are influential on the language learning process. However, much of the language anxiety literature is purely based on adult language learning experiences, particularly those of university students, and so is not applicable to the experiences of children. Nonetheless this body of literature does provide support for a close relationship between language and emotions, in particular second language learning and emotions.

There is also strong link between language and self-concept, and self expression. Having to engage with a new language within a new society, is likely to have an impact on one's sense of self and sense of identity (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a). The relationship between language and identity, and the need for this relationship to be recognised amongst ELL pupils is discussed further below.

2.14 Language and Identity

It is not difficult to see that language and identity are intimately linked. Linguists have traditionally identified the primary purpose of language as communication with others, and/or a representation of the world to ourselves (Joseph, 2004). However Joseph (2004) argues that communication has largely been taken for granted, and that one's linguistic identity is a category that blurs the dichotomy between the two traditional functions of language. Another function of language is that of expression, where what is expressed are the feelings, emotions and passions of an individual. The emotions and passions are linked directly to the body. He goes on to say that the expression of emotion is conceived of as being 'on par with animal language' (Joseph, 2004, p16), and that expression is sometimes concerned with universal human emotions or particular cultural feelings, but their deepest connect is with the concept of the *individual self* and one's identity.

One's self identity is inextricably bound up with one's language and one's ego development. Brown (1994) describes a 'language ego' which accounts for the identity a person develops in reference to the language he or she speaks. A term first coined by Guiora (1972, cited in Brown 1994). When a child or young person has to adapt their ego during their pubescent years, the physiological, emotional and cognitive changes of puberty can give rise to defensive mechanisms as a result of a perceived threat to their self-identity. During this time the language ego clings to the security of the native language to protect the fragile ego of the young person (Brown, 1994). Joseph (2004) argues there to be good reason to consider identity as a third, distinct major function of language.

The notion that learning a new language allows individuals to access new aspects of themselves is not new. It dates back to the sixteenth century, to a phrase attributed to Charles V: 'to possess another language is to possess a second soul' (Wilson, 2008). Brown (1994) claims the acquisition of a new language leads to the acquisition of a new language ego, and a second identity, which can be a challenging endeavour for a person of any age. It can be successful only when one can muster the necessary ego strength to overcome inhibitions and bridge this affective gap. Children of various ages have considerable inhibitions to overcome in their native language, additional language related inhibitions have the potential to result in significant affective dissonance.

Linguistic identity is encompassed by linguistic interaction among people. Speaking a particular language means belonging to a particular speech community. This implies that part of the social context in which one's individual personality is embedded, the context which supplies the raw materials for that personality, will be linguistic (Edwards, 2004). In his review Edwards (2004) found literature suggests there to be a tightly intertwined link between language and identity, one that may be strengthened when threats are perceived. Linguistic continuity appears to be a powerful cultural support, an obvious and important pillar for its followers.

The availability of literature on language and identity is vast. The importance of language in developing one's sense of self is evident, and can be seen not only in

literature but in everyday interactions and communications. The challenges English Language Learners may face when immersed in a new language and culture are considerable. Along with language, culture plays an important role in the development of identity and in the integration of different cultures and languages to form a multicultural society. The process by which individuals adapt to the culture of the dominant society is known as acculturation, and is likely to be a process that ELL pupils go through when they begin school in the UK.

2.15 Acculturation

Acculturation is the extent to which immigrants maintain their culture of origin, or adapt to the larger society (Farver, Bhada and Narang, 2002), and is a stressful experience (Weisskirch and Alva, 2002). A literature review conducted by Farver et al (2002) provided evidence to suggest that acculturation may be more stressful for some cultures than for others. Generally the greater the difference between the native and the new culture, the higher the 'acculturative stress' and the greater difficulty experienced in their psychological functioning.

Language acquisition is embedded in societies and cultures, and language development can be considered as an acculturation process (Butler and Hakuta, 2004). Additive bilingualism (i.e. the acquisition of a language later on in life and not from birth) is possible, according to Butler and Hakuta (2004), if the learning environment values both the learners' L1 and L2 and allows them to develop a positive identity with both cultural and ethno-linguistic groups and values.

Integration of all children in schools is underpinned by the values and beliefs of the society in which the school is situated. Different forms of integration can shape different understandings of socialisation and ways of dealing with diversity. Welply (2010) believes identities are negotiated by individuals so that they may construct multiple identities which are fluid and variable. These are however, constrained by context and culture, and the perceptions of others. The role and identity taken on by a child is impressionable and can be influenced by expectations of others and of the wider culture. From her empirical findings Welply (2010) concluded that

classroom context and culture did play a role in the way children negotiated language difference as part of their identity.

By developing multiple identities, moving between these when in different contexts may be difficult. Spielmann and Radnofsky (2001) observed and interviewed thirty adult students attending a Summer French School, which involved full language immersion. Some of their participants reported that they felt unable to project their 'true' personalities because of their linguistic limitations, which became even more critical outside of the classroom, when actual socialisation was at stake. The authors report participants described the appearance of a separate personality or 'masks'. They theorise by suggesting 'authentic language learning can not consist of translating the L1 into the L2, but means experiencing the L2 from within. The constitution of an 'L2 self' can not result from a mere transposition of one's L1 self; it is in many ways a reinvention of one's self' (Spielman and Radnofsky, 2001, pp 267). In contrast to Spielman et al's (2001) findings, Wilson (2008) argues that from the testimonies of foreign language speakers, that is, those who chose to learn and speak a foreign language, using the foreign language makes some individuals less inhibited and provides an excuse for shy speakers to take part in a social activity. However, as the foreign language proficiency of the testifying individuals is not known, it is difficult to contextualise Wilson's claims.

Language and identity are undoubtedly intimately linked, and the role of language not only as a means of developing one's identity, but also as a means of expression and communication have been highlighted here. Difficulties in expressing one's true feelings or emotions may have an emotional domino effect resulting in the experience of further emotions due to inadequate means of emotional expression. Research into emotional expression, and language preferences when doing so suggest people tend to prefer to use their first language when describing or expressing emotion. Some literature from this body of research has been discussed briefly below.

2.16 First Language Preference for Emotional Speech

In his review of literature on language preference and perceived language dominance, Dewaele (2004) reported that the phenomenon that bilinguals prefer

to use L1 to express personal involvement while the L2 is the language of distance and detachment is well documented.

Harris, Avcicegi and Geason (2003) carried out an experiment which included the use of 'L1 attriters' i.e. people whose dominant language was L2. The research monitored autonomic arousal via fingertip electrodes while participants read or heard words and phrases in their L1 or L2. Three comparison groups included, Turkish-English bilinguals which were late learners of English, Spanish-English bilinguals who had acquired English at an early age (average age 3.7 years), and a group of Spanish L1 speakers who had learned English later (average age 7.9). Stimuli included taboo words, childhood reprimands (*Don't do that!*), insults (*you suck!*), terms of endearment (*I love you*) and single words varying in emotional valence (*cancer, joy, table*). Harris et al (2003) found that the emotional expressions heard in the L1 elicited larger skin conductance amplitudes than comparable expressions in the L2 for the Turkish bilinguals. For those who had learnt English in middle childhood, the electrodermal responses to English were smaller than in Spanish, while no such difference was obtained for those who learned English in early childhood.

Harris et al (2003) state that when two languages are learnt early, emotional expressions activate the autonomic system equally, which, they go on to say, is inconsistent with the hypothesis that 'L1 is more emotional'. However, they suggest the emotional resonance of the L1 is deeply anchored within the individual, but that it is mediated by language proficiency (Harris et al 2003).

Whilst Harris et al's (2003) study offers some interesting insights in L1 use, there is a lack of discussion with regards to the possible reasons for the differences in electrodermal responses. For example, the variation may have been a result of increased arousal due to stress associated with understanding a language that they are no longer confident in using, but is still one they consider to be their L1, and an important aspect of their identity and concept of 'self'.

Dewaele's review of literature (2004) highlights that the relationship between L1 use, and emotion is very complex. However, there does appear to be clear support

of the notion that the L1 retains very strong emotional connotations even if it is not the dominant language. This is supported by Matsumoto, Anguas-Wong and Martinez (2008). They examined the role language played when judging emotions amongst 274 Spanish-English bilingual college students. Based on responses to emotion judgement tasks and the Emotion Regulation scale in both Spanish and English, they claim their participants demonstrated greater accessibility of their own emotional processes in their native language, and found the reverse true for labelling other's emotions. However, only 28.5% of the sample were male, and the time gap between testing in different languages was only two weeks.

In summary, this author's rationale for carrying out a literature review focussing on theories of language acquisition, and research looking at language learning experiences, the use of language, and the role it plays in one's self-identity stemmed from the need to identify if, according to previous research and theory, being an English Language Learner in an English speaking school may in some way be linked to the experience of negative emotions. The literature reviewed here suggests there to be good reason to believe that learning English as a second language whilst attending an English speaking school may be linked to the experience of negative emotions in school. Research exploring the nature of the relationship between negative emotional experiences and language acquisition is ongoing. It is still unclear as to whether a pupil's acquisition of English may be hindered by the experience of negative emotions, or if the reverse is true, when a pupil's lack of English proficiency may have a negative impact on their emotional well being. Before this relationship can be further investigated there is a need to first identify what the emotional needs of ELL pupils are.

Language is the key communicative tool that allows an individual to express themselves, seek assistance, understand the events that are occurring around them and interact with significant others, such as their peers and teachers. Spending most of everyday in an environment in which a pupil does not have the skills or abilities to communicate in or understand the dominant language is likely to result in a pupil experiencing a whole host of emotions, particularly if no first language support is available. All children have emotional needs that need to be met within their two key developmental, learning and social contexts of home and

school. Being an English Language Learner in school creates an immediate barrier to accessing and appreciating the emotional support available within school. In addition to this, negative emotional experience which may co-exist with the language learning process may also impact on the emotional well being of ELL pupils. For some ELL pupils, as with any child, their journey and life experiences may mean that they require additional and possibly targeted emotional support and intervention. This could be particularly true of ELL pupils who are asylum seekers or refugees for example. ELL pupils are faced with massive language barriers to overcome, in addition to a variety of other obstacles, which may cause or heighten emotional distress. The literature reviewed here so far appears to offer support to this notion. It is necessary however, to now review literature that focuses on emotional well being of pupils, which can offer insights into how emotional well being in school may be achieved, and what role language may play in an ELL pupils endeavour to achieve it.

Part 3 – Emotional Well being in School

The most recent governmental publication on emotional health and well being reiterates previous guidance, which promote the notion that emotional health is critical to future success and well being.

‘The emotional health of children and young people is increasingly recognised as being fundamental to the well being and future prospects of individuals and communities.’ (DCSF, 2010a, p3)

‘Children and young people’s emotional health is a cornerstone of all five Every Child Matters (ECM) outcomes. Children and young people who are emotionally healthy, achieve more, participate more fully with their peers and their community, engage in less risky behaviour, and cope better with the adversities they may face from time to time. Emotional health in childhood has important implications for health and social outcomes in adult life.’

(DCSF, Promoting the emotional health of children and young people, 2010a, p7).

The importance of well being is mirrored by international bodies such as UNICEF, who have called for indicators of children's well being, where children feel loved, safe and respected. Well being is also enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). Although such ideas around children's rights have been around for a long time, their translation into political initiatives is relatively recent in the UK.

Every Child Matters (2004) places statutory demands on educational institutions and welfare services, together with priorities in the Children and Young People's Plan, to incorporate specialist interventions for children and young people diagnosed with, or presumed to have, emotional and behavioural problems, alongside generic interventions to develop all children's emotional well being (Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). The Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programme is a key government initiative that has made emotional well being and associated notions such as emotional competence, self-esteem and emotional literacy, integral to the approach taken by schools to support the social and emotional development of children and young people.

Despite the focus on emotional well being in school, there is a very apparent lack of consistency across literature with regards to the use and definition of terms such as emotional competence, emotional literacy, emotional intelligence and emotional well being. Definitions that will be used in this research will be provided later in this section. The author will first briefly discuss the recent focus on the teaching of social and emotional skills in school.

2.17 What has Changed?

The government argue that children with emotional problems will be prone to mental illness, marital breakdown, low educational achievement, poor work, personal and social relationships, offending and anti-social behaviour, and that the scale of emotional deprivation may be so great that schools can no longer leave children's emotional well being to parents (DfES, 2005b). This claim suggests that in the past, children and young people received the necessary emotional support

from their parents, but that this is no longer the case, and that schools now have a role to play in supporting the emotional needs and development on their pupils. But what has changed? Concerns over increased emotional distress experienced by children have been reported more recently. Changes to the environment in which children grow and develop were noted up to fifteen years ago by Goleman (1995), who claimed that:

‘These are times of financially besieged families in which both parents work long hours, so that children are left to their own devices or the TV baby-sits; when more children than ever grow up in poverty; when the one-parent family is becoming ever more commonplace; when more infants and toddlers are left in day care so poorly run that it amounts to neglect. All this means, even for well-intentioned parents, the erosion of the countless small, nourishing exchanges between parent and child that build emotional competence.’ (Goleman, 1995, p234).

Based on an independent, large scale national inquiry into what makes a good childhood, a landmark report written for The Children’s Society (Layard and Dunn, 2009), claims to provide a significant contribution to the thinking and discussion about childhood and its status in current society. The authors discuss a widespread unease about today’s children’s experiences. They raise factors such as commercial pressures faced by children, exposure to violence, stresses at school, and increased emotional distress that warrant further attention and recognition. Evidence from their survey indicate more young people are anxious and troubled than previously reported, and that greater numbers of children and young people are experiencing emotional difficulties. Layard and Dunn (2009) argue that these problems are connected to the changing world within which children are growing and developing. There is more familial breakdown, and greater unemployment amongst mothers. Technological advances have influenced current lifestyle in a way that has not been seen before. Pressures of school exams and relative poverty affect more children now than in the last fifty years.

Whilst they acknowledge that every decade brings new developments and changes to society, the pace of change today is, they claim, unprecedented. Some

of the most visible examples of change are the aforementioned information technology advances, and the increased diversity within Britain's population. As part of their recommendations, which were based on collated responses provided by members of the inquiry panel, Layard and Dunn (2009) suggest social and emotional learning should take place in schools, that social and emotional learning should be incorporated into teacher training courses, and that standard assessments of emotional development at ages five, eleven and fourteen, would be helpful in the early identification of emotional needs and difficulties being experienced by individual children or groups of children.

In addition to this, data derived from pupils directly can provide further insight into the experiences of children today. Recent Tellus4 national pupil survey results (DCSF, 2010b), provide information on various aspects of children and young people's lives, as a means of measuring national indicators as part of Public Service Agreements (PSA). Of the current thirty cross departmental PSA's, PSA 12 sets out the government's vision of improving the physical, mental and emotional health of children, with a focus on prevention, early intervention and enabling children, young people and their families to make healthy choices. PSA's set objectives for the priority areas of government's work and are at the centre of the government's performance measurement system. One of the priorities within PSA 12 is the strand of emotional health and well being of children and is contributed to by three national indicators (NI), the most relevant of which is NI 50 (Department for Communities and Local Government, 2009).

National indicator 50 focuses on the emotional health and well being of children, and is primarily concerned with the quality of relationships with significant others, including parents, friends and other trusted adults. The measure, according to its definition (Department for Communities and Local Government, 2009), reflects that children's emotional health and resilience is improved by the quality of relationships, and thus being able to access the widest range of possible sources of support. Most recent data for measuring this indicator was collected from Tellus4 surveys (DCSF, 2010b) completed by school age pupils nationally in 2009, in which additional questions referring to how happy the respondent feels about life at the time of completing the survey, and asking them what it is they worry

about were reported on. The results of the survey indicate that 67% of children and young people who completed the survey (253,755 respondents in total) felt happy about life. Overall, over 85% of children and young people said they had at least one person they could talk to if they were worried, and 3% said they could not talk to anyone if they were worried. It is reported that most children and young people have relationships in their lives which support them. However, when compared to the previous year's results, it was evident that across each aspect of emotional health covered, fewer children and young people's responses indicated the statements, including 'I have one or more good friends', and 'When I'm worried I can talk to my mum or dad/friends/an adult who isn't my mum or dad', were true for them. Unfortunately breakdown of factors such as ethnicity or language have not been provided by the Tellus4 survey results (DCSF, 2010b), however they do suggest there to be an increase in the experience of emotional distress amongst school age pupils, and an increased lack of support available for children and young people. In addition to this, one fifth of children and young people indicated they could not discuss their worries with their parent or carer. This information could provide support for the role of schools in ensuring the emotional well being of their pupils. Much of the data gathered in regard to emotional health however, did tend to focus only on relationships, and failed to investigate other sources of emotional support or distress.

However, not all are in agreement with the focus of emotional well being within educational practices. Some argue that the pedagogical initiatives that aim to 'teach' emotional skills or emotional competence, resonate with images of the 'diminished self' (Ecclestone, 2007; Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). Additional arguments discuss the dangers of labelling people 'emotionally intelligent' as potentially damaging to those seen to be deficient (Craig, 2007). These will be discussed in greater detail later in this section.

When reviewing literature focussing on emotional well being however, the use of various terms and definitions became very apparent. As a result, there is considerable disparity amongst research and guidance literature with regards to the constructs and concepts being investigated or promoted, which in turn makes it difficult to compare and contrast claims and recommendations made and

findings obtained. For this reason the author has provided definitions of key terms such as 'emotional well being' and 'emotional literacy' that have been adopted in this research paper.

The aim of this section of the literature review is to provide for the reader, current thoughts and discussions around emotional well being in school before providing the definition used in this research. In doing so the author will discuss the role of emotions in learning, the construct of emotional literacy and its role in learning and in achieving emotional well being, and the idea that by measuring emotional literacy skills, it is possible to identify areas of possible emotional strength and need, which may be useful in informing practice in schools.

2.18 Emotional Well being in School

Providing children with an environment that is supportive to their emotional health and wellbeing is not a new role for schools. For years teachers have offered their pupils pastoral support and have done so as an inherent part of their role. More recently however, greater attention and emphasis has been placed on the potential of schools and their staff to offer children and young people more targeted emotional support. The need for such support appears to have emerged from two key fields, information on national trends and reports, some of which have been discussed above, and from research findings and theories reporting on the role of emotions in learning.

Over recent years focus has been placed on the role of emotions in learning, and arguments for the development of emotional skills in school have been put forward, and have been received with some enthusiasm. Within the literature review presented below, arguments that suggest that, for a child to be ready to learn, their emotional needs must be considered, have been provided. Related to this body of literature are arguments for the development of children's emotional literacy and emotional skills as a means of better equipping them for events that may require them to draw on their emotional resources, which in turn may have a positive impact on their emotional well being. As mentioned earlier however, there are arguments against the explicit teaching of such skills amongst children, which

also suggest additional negative consequences to interventions with these intentions, including dangers of labelling and projected images of a 'diminished self'.

The school environment has been suggested as the most appropriate context outside of the home, in which children's emotional well being can be addressed. In their literature review into child and adolescent social and emotional development, Aviles, Anderson and Davila (2006) argue that schools can play a consistent role in children's lives and have the potential meet their social and emotional needs through professional cooperation between educators and specialists. Children's environments are complex and consist of many contexts including, home, school and community. All of these contexts have an impact on development and must be taken into consideration when identifying factors that inhibit and/or support social and emotional development.

Governmental publications (National Healthy School Standard, NHSS, 2004; DfES: SEAL, 2005a) argue that by promoting emotional health and well being, and by developing social and emotional skills in school, they can ensure pupils are happier and more motivated, which can lead to improved learning and greater social cohesion. The DCSF (2010a) claim that improvements in emotional health and well being in the short term are likely to be driven by whole school approaches to promoting emotional health, which is linked to the duty placed on schools to promote the well being of their pupils. Other drivers identified included activities outside of school, and support for parents.

Despite the clear reliance on schools as playing a key figures in supporting the emotional health and well being of children and young people, evidence to support the effectiveness of school based initiatives or interventions is somewhat lacking. Kidger, Donovan, Biddle, Campbell and Gunnell (2009) argue that alongside stronger evidence regarding what works in school-based emotional health initiatives, there is also a need to establish how far the range of potential interventions match what young people themselves say they want or need.

The SEAL materials developed as part of the Primary National Strategy (DfES, 2005a), have been used extensively in schools across the UK. It aimed to provide schools and settings with an explicit, structured whole-school framework for developing all children's social, emotional and behavioural skills, and was part of a wave model of provision placing emphasis on all children at a whole school level. However, recently the evidence base upon which the SEAL programme is based, primarily the work of Goleman (1995), has been strongly critiqued (Craig, 2009). Critics argue that most of Goleman's (1995) claims are not substantiated with empirical evidence. Despite these criticisms, which began to emerge some years after his book release, Goleman's claims have been drawn upon extensively in the development of the SEAL initiative, and only recently have investigations into the effectiveness of the SEAL programme been reported on.

In a recent evaluation of the small group work intervention of Primary SEAL programme (Humphrey, Kalambouka, Bolton, Lendrum, Wigglesworth, Lennie and Farrell, 2008), findings provided evidence to suggest the Primary SEAL small group work had a positive impact, based on quantitative data obtained from pupils, however the effect size was small. In addition to this qualitative data from local authority staff indicated that success of the intervention was strongly influenced by existing work and the skills of the facilitator.

In addition to arguments for more investigation into the effectiveness of interventions focussing on emotional well being in schools, the author calls for evaluation of effectiveness of interventions for different groups of children. The SEAL programme claims to develop *all* children's social and emotional skills, however during the section providing guidance on implementing the SEAL programme, reference is made to the influence of culture, gender and individual differences on the potential impact of the programme. Strategies for EAL pupils, such as the use of visual cues, and repeated patterns of language are offered. However, it is also stated that if an EAL pupil is not able to participate due to success being dependent on English fluency, then SEAL activities may have a confounding impact on their confidence and may be damaging to the development of social and emotional skills (DfES: SEAL, 2005a, p34). That is, by attempting to include an EAL pupil who is not fluent in English, and thus will not be able to

access the learning experiences or resources, it may actually damage the very skills that the programme is attempting to promote.

Literature with regards to the effectiveness of interventions such as SEAL in supporting the emotional needs and development of specific groups, such as English language learners, is nonexistent. Whilst recognition is given to the language needs of EAL pupils, no reference is made to their potential emotional needs, due to a lack of research or awareness of the potential emotional needs of ELL pupils. Before discussing the role of emotions in learning, the definition of emotional well being adopted in this research is clarified.

2.19 Definition of Emotional Well being

Various terms and phrases have been used within literature when attempted to discuss emotional well being and related concepts. In the past greater reference has been made to the 'social and emotional' skills (DfES: SEAL, 2005a), which are defined by the SEAL programme in terms of five social and emotional aspects of learning: self-awareness; managing feelings; motivation; empathy; and social skills. Although DCSF (2010a) have more recently used the term 'emotional health', which they view as being synonymous with the term 'psychological well being' used by the Child and Mental Health Service (CAMHS, 2009), they note that there is no single agreed term or definition. CAMHS (2009) describes psychological well being to include emotional, behavioural, social and cognitive attributes to well being. As the current research is focussing only on emotional well being, the author felt the use of the term psychological well being was not specific enough, and may be more inclined to be considered in relation to mental health, which again is not the focus of this research. Whilst the emotional health did seem more fitting, the author was unable to find a clear definition, other than it being synonymous with psychological well being, and the author was concerned that 'emotional health' may be linked to 'mental health'.

The author chose to adopt the term and definition provided by the Healthy Schools initiative in its recent publication on promoting emotional health and well being (National Healthy School Standard, 2004), as it takes an all encompassing

approach to emotional well being, which best represents the views of the author, and was the most fitting for the purpose of this report:

‘Emotional well being is a holistic subjective state which is present when a range of feelings, (among them energy, confidence, openness, enjoyment, happiness, calm, and caring) are combined and balanced.’

(National Healthy School Standard, 2004, p7, brackets added by author)

The above definition is recorded as being first developed by Stewart-Brown in 2000 (cited in Weare and Gray, 2003), and its advantages include its broad and positive stance, its acceptance in a wide range of professions, and its ability to bring disparate groups together (Weare and Gray, 2003). In their report examining how children’s emotional and social competence and well being could be most effectively developed at national and local levels, Weare and Gray (2003) prefer and recommend the term ‘emotional well being’ and argue it to be the most appropriate, as it is viewed as straight forward and non specialist.

2.20 Role of Emotions in Learning

Having discussed the current governmental position on emotional well being in school, the author felt it was necessary to briefly examine the research focussed literature that examines the role of emotions in learning. Aviles et al (2006) argue that social and emotional development is not separate from academic achievement; instead they are dynamic, interrelated areas that are necessary for children to develop and be successful in many contexts, particularly in school.

Historically emotion and cognition have been investigated as separate processes. With the onset of sophisticated neuropsychological studies of emotion and emotional regulation, there has been a growing interest in the interconnections rather than the distinctions of emotion and cognition (Dennis, 2010). The arguments put forward suggest emotion plays a critical role in performance and behaviour. Emotions can facilitate or hamper learning (Zins, Bloodworth, Weissber and Walberg, 2002). When theory is considered in relation to the educational approaches taken by schools, it is encouraging to see that most schools now

incorporate social and emotional aspects of learning into their practice, ethos and curriculum.

Over the last two decades, neuro-functional literature has shown that the control of one of the main neurochemicals known to facilitate cognition, dopamine, is predominantly under the auspices of the limbic system, the emotional system of the brain. Humphrey, Curran, Morris, Farrell and Woods (2007) describe how emotions act as a filter to incoming information. In doing so they limit the amount of information received, and then focus attention to the salient features of the information that are necessary for making decisions. They go on to explain that dopamine is centrally involved in our cognitive and attentional systems. Initially its release shifts one's attentional system to a particular stimulus. It is then released in the frontal brain which facilitates cognitive activation, before finally facilitating the passage of relevant information throughout the brain to establish learning. McPhail (2004) concurs this understanding of the brain's functioning, as he concludes the exclusion of emotion from rational decision making is 'quite literally impossible' (McPhail, 2004, p635). When thinking about emotions in a state of arousal, at high levels of excitation, the amygdala, humans' most primitive emotional structure, concerned predominantly with the 'fight or flight' situations, is capable of short circuiting the higher brain centres, removing cognition from behaviour (LeDoux, 1998). In stressful situations, therefore, high levels of emotional activation can interfere with intellectual performance (Humphrey et al, 2007).

Building on recent re-theorisation of the role of emotions in learning, literature on social and emotional learning has emerged. Arguments put forward suggest that the development of social and emotional skills, in order to develop 'emotional intelligence' or 'emotional literacy', can be beneficial to the educational achievements and emotional well being of pupils in schools. The ECM framework exemplifies the recognition of a need to develop social and emotional skills, and the development of these skills is inherent in the national targets, (Qualter, Gardener, Whiteley, 2007a) as discussed earlier in this chapter.

Ideas of emotional intelligence (EI), emotional literacy (EL) and emotional competence are relatively new to debate in educational policy, however considerable debate has gone on within the academic and research fields of education. There is a fair degree of ambiguity and conceptual confusion with regards to terms and definitions adopted in research (Hoffman, 2009). As part of the current research, measures of emotional literacy were taken as a means to identifying emotional needs of ELL pupils. It was therefore necessary for the author to review current EI/EL debates, and to provide for the reader a rationale for the use of an EL tool to identify emotional need. The author would like to highlight at this point that the focus of the present research was focussed on the emotional needs of ELL pupils, not their emotional literacy needs. For this reason the review presented will be limited to providing preferred use of terminology and definitions, with referencing to available literature which provide support for claims made with regards to the benefits of emotional literacy and emotional intelligence

2.21 Emotional Literacy

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a popular psychological concept that has captured the imaginations of educationalists. Its attraction lies perhaps in an implicit recognition of the limitations of current social and behavioural perspectives within school contexts, and appears to reflect a new readiness on the part of educators to acknowledge the centrality of feeling and emotion in many aspects of the educational process (Kelly, Longbottom, Potts and Williamson, 2004).

During the past 15 years there has been increasing interest in how children come to understand, describe and regulate their emotions. A significant problem in the development of research into emotional intelligence and emotional literacy, has been the lack of clarity around the definition of constructs used and investigated. The term 'EI' is arguably more widely used worldwide, particularly in the USA, however, it can be seen to imply an innate and fixed capacity (Humphrey et al, 2007). The term emotional literacy (EL) is preferred in the UK as it is more meaningful within an educational context, and is now a widely used term (Weare and Gray, 2003).

Despite the steady increase in interest, particularly within the educational policy arena, research supporting underlying psychological frameworks has not kept up. This has created a situation whereby the definition, measurement and utility of social and emotional skills is fraught with controversy and inconsistency (Wigelsworth, Humphrey, Kalambouka and Lendrum, 2010). Three key questions have guided much of the debates which have sought to establish; a common language within the field, the claimed benefits of improved emotional intelligence, and if emotional intelligence can be taught.

Despite previous debates with regards to EI and EL referring to different constructs, in recent comparisons of definitions, arguments for overlap have been made. For example Wigelsworth et al (2010) claim that differences between terms are not necessarily significant when compared to the similarity of features, and that these terms are in fact largely interchangeable. Whilst there are salient arguments for the differentiation of these terms presented by Weare and Gray (2003), Perry, Lennie and Humphrey (2008) argue that there is not enough clear evidence to suggest that they describe qualitatively different ideas, and so do not distinguish between the two terms, but declare a preference for the term EL.

On comparing the first definition of EI offered by Mayer and Salovey (1990) to an EL definition offered by an EL assessment tool, it is possible to see considerable overlap.

‘The term emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding, and management of one’s own and others emotional states, to solve emotion-laden problems and to regulate behaviour.’ (Salovey, Brackett and Mayer, 2004, p1949)

‘Emotional Literacy is the ability of people to recognise, understand, handle and appropriately express their own emotions and to recognise, understand and respond appropriately to the expressed emotions of others.’
(Southampton Psychology Service, 2003).

When available EI and EL measures are scrutinised, Wigelsworth et al (2010) claim that items within the Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention measuring tool (Southampton Psychology Service, (SPS), 2003), for example, share similar domains and items to the adolescent version of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.

The term EL is the preferred term amongst educationalists in the UK (Qualter et al, 2007a) and is used in UK educational policy documentation. The author felt the term EI implied a fixed innate capacity, and due to the term EL having more meaning amongst UK educationalists, and due to overlap of definitions, and a lack of evidence to suggest significant differences between the two terms, the author has chosen EL as the preferred term. The definition provided by the Southampton Psychology Service (2003) was adopted.

Hoffman (2009) provides a critical perspective of current views of social and emotional learning. On defining the term 'social and emotional learning' he explains this term is often used as an umbrella for many kinds of programs which attempt to enhance EI *and* emotional literacy, thus considering these programs as addressing similar aspects of social and emotional learning. Whilst the current author prefers the term EL, literature referring to EI, emotional and social skills and emotional competence will be regarded as relevant, and these terms will be used interchangeably.

The term EI was popularised by Goleman (1995) with the publication of his book *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Since the release of this text Goleman's claims have been used extensively as support for government guidance publications such as Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL, DfES, 2005a). However, the work of Goleman (1995) has since been largely critiqued for a number of reasons. Primary criticisms argue that Goleman's claims are not substantiated with evidence. In addition to this his critics argue that his journalistic background is likely to have influenced his views. Nonetheless, the notion of the development of social and emotional skills, and emotional literacy has received much attention in the development of recent national education policy development.

Arguably the most contentious claims are made by Goleman (1995) who suggested that EI can predict academic achievement as well as, or better than IQ.

More recently empirical studies have been conducted in an attempt to investigate the benefits of improved social and emotional skills, and put Goleman's claims to the test. There is some support for claims that improved emotional intelligence can improve academic outcomes, however the evidence is uneven and inconsistent. For example Petrides, Fredrickson, and Furnham (2004) investigated the potential role of trait EI in academic performance and deviant behaviour at school. Trait EI (or emotional self efficacy) refers to a constellation of behavioural dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognise, process and utilize emotion-laden information. Ability EI (or cognitive-emotional ability) refers to one's actual ability to recognise, process and utilize emotion-laden information in real situations. Trait EI is measured through self report questionnaires, whereas ability EI requires the use of such skills in performance tests. Questionnaire data was collected from 901 Year 11 (mean age 16.5 years) pupils in British secondary education, which included data from the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, Eysenk Personality Questionnaire, Verbal Reasoning Test, in addition to Key Stage 3 assessment results and GCSE grades. Trait EI was reported to be significantly related to scholastic achievement, with its effects having noteworthy implications for low IQ pupils. In their concluding remarks they suggest trait EI is especially relevant to the scholastic achievements of disadvantaged or vulnerable adolescents. However, they do note that their conclusion may be somewhat misleading as the high EI/high IQ group only narrowly outperformed the low IE/high IQ group. In addition to this, group sizes for the four 'extreme groups' (low IQ/low EI; high IQ/low EI; low IQ/high EI; high IQ/high EI) were unbalanced (varied between $n=28$ and $n=53$), which may have influenced the analysis conducted, thus making their comparison less credible. Nevertheless, Petrides et al (2004) suggest that when the demands of a learning situation outweigh a pupil's intellectual resources, trait EI becomes prominent and acts as a moderator, and that for a pupil whose intellectual resources can meet the demands of the situation, trait EI is less important.

However, there is counter evidence to the findings of Petrides et al (2004). Bachard (2003) investigated the claim that emotional intelligence predicts success at work, at school and in relationships, as well as or better than IQ. As part of an extensive methodological design, a large variety of measures were taken from 150 undergraduate students, including 12 cognitive ability measures, 31 EI measures, and 23 personality scales, over a period of two months. When examining the EI domain as a whole, Bachard (2003) reports that whilst cognitive and personality domains were clearly able to predict academic achievement, the collection of unselected EI measures was not. He goes on to suggest that if EI measures can predict academic achievement at all, then only some do. Bachard (2003) concludes that, when the EI measures were looked at individually, only some measures of EI, particularly those that measure emotional understanding, can be used to predict academic success, and that these findings show support for claims that EI is not necessarily more important in predicting academic success.

In addition to studies looking at the potential role of EI in academic outcomes, the relationship between EI and prevention, health, and well being have been investigated. The studies looking at emotional well being are of particular interest here. Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, and Hollander (2002) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional well being. They defined emotional well being as being concerned with positive mood and high self esteem. In their literature review they claim that previous theory and research suggests a link between emotional intelligence and emotional well being, and that those who are able to regulate and understand their emotions should be able to generally maintain a better outlook on life and experience better emotional health. In their study Schutte et al (2002) conducted three studies which involved collecting various measures of EI, self esteem, affect and mood. Participants in each study varied considerably as they ranged from, retail store and nursing home employees, to university students and employees, none of which were paid to participate and the majority of which were female. Their findings showed a strong association between EI and characteristic mood and characteristic self-esteem (which they consider to be two important aspects of emotional well being). However, their findings should be considered with caution as they have used mood and self esteem measures as a means of measuring emotional well being,

in addition to the use of an EI measure designed by one of the authors. In addition to this the sample used were not selected randomly and factors associated to certain career choices may have influenced responses given.

With a similar focus to that of Schutte et al (2002), Ciarrochi and Scott (2006) report on findings from their longitudinal study which focuses on emotional well being by way of positive and negative emotional states, and emotional competence. They measured problem orientation, difficulty in describing emotions and rumination via separate established measures, as these are dimensions that appear on almost all emotional competence measures, and have been associated with various aspects of emotional processing. Emotional well being was measured by a positive affect scale, and the depression, anxiety and stress scale. Measures were taken at one year intervals, from psychology university students, over a period of three years, however, only a quarter of students who provided Time 1 measures, could be identified in Time 2 measures. As predicted, ineffective problem orientation, difficulty in describing emotions and rumination (as measures of emotional competence) at Time 1 predicted variance in well being one year later at Time 2, after controlling for baseline measures of well being. They report, that some aspects of emotional competence are more unique predictors of one aspect of emotional well being than another. As the sample size was small (n=56) and participants were all university students and predominantly female, the findings are limited in generalisability.

Montes-Burges and Augusto (2007) examined the role of perceived or trait EI in the use of stress-coping strategies amongst mental health nurses and nursing students by using the trait meta-mood scale. The studies conducted are claimed to show that EI is a skill that minimizes the negative stress consequence.

Qualter, Whiteley, Hutchinson and Pope (2007b) explored the role of EI in helping pupils cope with their secondary school transfer, and whether the introduction of an intervention to support the development of EI competencies could ease the negative effects of transition. They report that most pupils experience a degree of anxiety and/or depression during transition. Such experiences could be likened to the negative effects of transition of ELL pupils into UK schools. Their findings

suggest that high/average EI pupils cope better with the transition, and that low EI can in part, be addressed by the introduction of an intervention that supports the development of EI skills. However, limitations in terms of the design of the study, such as the testing of the experimental group and control group at different times, increase the chances of confounds impacting on their findings.

Due to large differences in the constructs investigated, the measuring tools used, the participants and methodological designs, it is very difficult to develop a consistent view of the relationships being investigated, however the lack of agreement with regards to construct terminology and definition is likely to be at least partly responsible for such discrepancies. Whilst research focussing on the possible benefits of improved EL has increased, arguments both for and against the teaching of social and emotional skills have too begun to emerge.

Goleman (1995) refers to 'emotional illiteracy' which he argues can lead to emotional deficiencies and can result in 'emotional malaise' (pp 232). In doing so he refers to the worsening of children's emotional condition, which can be seen through, for example, increased feelings of unhappiness, anxiety, loneliness, fear, worry, sadness, depression and nervousness. Goleman's (1995) reference to emotional condition, in which he refers to a range of negative feelings, could be seen as making direct reference to the worsening of children's emotional well being. He argues that by 'schooling the emotions' through targeted programs aiming to raise the level of social and emotional competence in children, can help them to develop a set of skills and understandings that are essential for every child.

As with many of Goleman's claims, his claims of 'schooling emotions' received criticism. Some argue that the pedagogical initiatives that aim to 'teach' emotional skills or emotional competence, resonate with images of the 'diminished self' (Ecclestone, 2007; Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). This refers to interpretations that emotional vulnerabilities are a new deficiency that arises from either innate dispositions or from environmentally induced feelings, and sometimes from both. Ecclestone (2007) claims there to be a body of work in cultural and political studies, and sociology that explores the deep cultural shift from belief in human

potential, to one which encourages a sense of self which characteristically suffers from an emotional deficit, and that to a greater or lesser extent we are all emotionally vulnerable, but that some groups and individuals are especially vulnerable.

Craig (2007), in a similar vein discusses the dangers of labelling in her extensive paper on the potential dangers of a systematic, explicit approach to teaching social and emotional skills. By labelling people as 'emotionally intelligent', this process can become judgemental, and potentially damaging to those deemed as deficient.

Despite their valiant attempts to argue for the counterproductive impact of the explicit teaching of emotional skills on children, the integration of emotional well being into educational and pedagogical approaches taken by schools, and the teaching of emotional skills and emotional literacy, are still key drivers for improving emotional outcomes for children and young people. The literature in which such approaches claim to be grounded in, and which supposedly focus on the construct of EI and EL, have a weak evidence base according to critics such as Ecclestone et al (2009) and Craig (2007).

Hoffman (2009) points out that there is a small but growing body of evaluation literature that shows links between social and emotional learning (SEL) programs and improved outcomes in a variety of areas, particularly pupil behaviour as measured by teachers, drops in discipline referrals and increases in pupil academic achievement. Hoffman (2009) reports on programs delivered in the USA however. There would appear to be a much smaller body of evaluation literature available in the UK, some of which was described earlier (Humphrey et al's (2008) SEAL evaluation). Whilst benefits of SEL programs may include changes in behaviour Hoffman (2009) argues that the effects of these programs on promoting emotional skills and competencies are unclear.

From a cultural perspective, Hoffman (2009) argues that SEL programming must be culturally relevant, empowering children within their unique cultural environments, and that the influence of culture on the link between emotion and language must be considered.

There are numerous measuring tools available for use in EL and EI research, however again due to the lack of a consistent definition, no tools are used consistently amongst researchers. In their extensive literature review, Qualter et al (2007a) state that two predominant perspectives to measuring EI are those adopting the trait EI and the ability EI approach, the other is the use of ability-type tests. EI is often characterised as a cognitive ability involving the cognitive processing of emotional information, and is thus measured using ability-type tests. However due the lack of availability of measures, most of which were developed for adults and adolescents, and a lack of evidence supporting their construct validity, their use must be viewed with caution. Similarly ability EI measures are scarce and relatively less is known about their reliability or validity, in comparison to trait EI measures. Wigelsworth et al (2010) developed a glossary of 23 measures of social and emotional skills used in the UK, which were identified during a recent systematic review. They make a distinction between measures of typical (trait) and maximal (ability) behaviour through self/informant report, and task completion respectively. Whilst maximal measures are considered to be a more direct measure of skills, they are much more time consuming and more difficult to score. Some typical measures however, whilst less reliable, do allow for triangulation from teachers and parents. Wigelsworth et al (2010), having scrutinised an array of available measures, argued that social and emotional skill measures varied in breadth and specificity. Some measures are broad and provide a single, uni-dimensional indicator of social and emotional skills, others are more specific and provide multi-dimensional measures. In addition to this they state that broad, uni-dimensional measures of social and emotional skills may be used within the context of a generic screening tool or 'barometer' for a population or group, and that they may be useful in identifying pupils who may require additional support. In support of Wigelsworth et al's (2010) claims, Ciarrochi and Scott (2006) argue that emotional competence measures may be useful in identifying an individual's emotional strengths and weaknesses.

When investigating emotional *needs*, there is scope for a variety of tools to be used and constructs to be measured which may elude the researcher as to what participant needs are. A lack of an accepted definition of 'emotional needs' meant

the author was required to develop her own understanding of emotional needs for the purpose of the current research. A 'need' is defined as:

need - a condition or situation in which something necessary or desirable is required or wanted (Readers Digest Dictionary, 1984)

need - the condition of lacking something
(Collins Concise Dictionary, 2003)

We all have emotional needs, but an additional need can develop when changes occur to one's circumstances. The emotional skills one possesses at the time of change will influence how one will cope. If one is lacking in skills that may be required in a certain situation, it can provide an indication of possible needs. Discovering what is lacking can often be the focal point of research. However before one can begin this discovery, one must first establish *if* there is a need in the first place. Experiences of the author have lead her to believe there is a need, however due to a lack of available literature, evidence for such a need was lacking.

Current educational policy places considerable emphasis on the emotional well being of pupils, which is reflected in statutory duties placed on schools. Within this emphasis is the push for the development of social and emotional skills of pupils, so that they are better prepared and better equipped to cope with emotional demands that may be placed on them. Emotional well being and emotional literacy go hand in hand according to the governmental approach.

'Other words are used to describe emotional health and well being, for example, emotional literacy, emotional intelligence, and social and emotional competence.' (NHSS, 2004, p7)

In order to measure the emotional needs of English language learners in English speaking UK based schools, the author decided to use an emotional literacy measuring tool as a screening tool to identify if ELL pupils have emotional needs that may be different to English speaking pupils, as recommended by Wigelsworth et al (2010). Based on their glossary of social and emotional skills measures, the Southampton Psychology Service's (SPS, 2003) Emotional Literacy Assessment

and Intervention measure (ELAI), was not only a broad uni-dimensional tool, but was also the only measure within their glossary that was a purely emotional literacy/skills measure which allowed the author to obtain pupil and teacher data for the target age group. The SPS (2003) definition of EL has been adopted by this research, and the SPS (2003) was considered suitable as its technical manual claims the ELAI can be used to discover where pupil's strengths and weaknesses are in the area of emotional literacy to highlight areas for intervention (p1).

2.22 Why Explore the Emotional Needs of ELL Pupils?

It has been the aim of this review to try to draw together aspects of two very different fields of interest that are relevant to the emotional needs of English language learner pupils who attend an English speaking school. Recent investigations into the experiences of children and the environments in which they are living and growing have changed significantly over recent years. Not only have changes occurred to the demographics of UK society as a result of migration, but the demands placed on children have also begun to change due to factors such as family breakdown, economic status and exposure to greater numbers of potentially harmful stimuli (Layard and Dunn, 2009). Greater linguistic diversity is a factor that schools are having to routinely address, and has implications on their practices and resources. The government initiatives introduced have been done in waves of provision that aim to support *all* children, and do not always appear to be appropriate for certain groups of pupils.

Guidance offered to schools by the government when working with a pupil who is an English language learner is limited, and only offers support in the way of advice on how to meet the language needs of ELL pupils. Literature on the language learning process, suggests there to be an affective aspect to language acquisition (Krashen, 1993). Furthermore, certain groups of children may be more vulnerable to negative affect due to factors such as ethnicity and interrupted education (Crawford, 2004). Factors thought to influence the language acquisition process, such as age of arrival, and proficiency in L1, can act as added variables that need to be considered. Adult research into the experience of language anxiety, offers an insight into the experiences of second language learners, however due to differences in motivation to learn, and a lack of child focussed data it is not clearly

established as to whether it is also experienced by children. For an ELL pupil, beyond the use of language as a means of communicating, language plays a key role in identity development and acculturation, amongst other things. Language is intimately related to emotions, and can act as a mediator between language and learning (Imai, 2010). In addition to this there is reason to believe that one's first language is used in preference to other languages when expressing emotion (Deawale, 2004), which has added implications on opportunities for ELL pupils to express their emotions in school.

Emotional well being in school is recognised as having implications on a pupil's performance, well being and future outcomes (DCSF, 2010a). The role of emotions in learning has attracted considerable interest over recent years, and there is now neuropsychological evidence that confirms previous claims of their key role in cognition (Humphrey et al, 2007). Advances in research and theory have prompted the government to acknowledge the need to address the emotional aspects of learning of pupils in schools, so that they may be ready to learn (DfES, 2005a). By teaching and developing emotional literacy, schools hope to better equip their pupils with skills to help them cope with emotional demands placed on them, which according to recent surveys, have gradually increased over recent years and now require their school to provide support in addition to that provided by parents (DfES, 2005b). Despite this realisation, which is reflected in the government's focus on such matters, the guidance provided, namely in the SEAL programme (DfES, 2005a), has not been designed to support certain groups of pupils in particular. With respect to ELL pupils, the SEAL document actually alerts the reader to the danger of lowering an ELL pupil's confidence and damaging their social and emotional skill development, if the activity is dependent on English fluency.

Whilst a school is under no statutory obligation to implement the SEAL programme, Every Child Matters (2004) places statutory demands on educational institutions and welfare services, to incorporate specialist interventions for children and young people diagnosed with, or presumed to have, emotional and behavioural problems, alongside generic interventions to develop all children's emotional well being (Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). However, not all children's emotional well being can be achieved through the use of generic interventions,

and until more is known about the emotional needs of different groups, time, money and effort may be wasted on initiatives and interventions which may be of no use to the pupils in receipt of them. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the emotional needs of different groups, and this study aims to focus on those of English Language Learner pupils.

Part 4 – Emotional Needs of English Language Learners

The author identified a gap in current research when searching for literature that explored the emotional needs of ELL pupils. A small body of literature which offered discussions around this topic, and closely related topics has been reviewed in this section. The section will begin by reviewing literature on associated risk factors, before presenting the most salient and relevant literature for the research.

2.23 Risk Factors

In their service model for promoting emotional health, the DCSF (2010a) provides an extensive model of potential protective factors and risk factors for emotional health and well being, organised according to factors associated with the individual, the family and the community. Amongst the individual risk factors are problems with communication. It is unclear as to whether this is referring to speech and language difficulties or if it could refer to ELL pupils, nonetheless, difficulties associated with communication is recognised as being a key risk factor. Similarly, one of the protective factors suggested is good communication skills. In addition to this, in their list of ‘vulnerable groups’, children and young people with other communication difficulties, and those who are from ethnic minority groups are considered as vulnerable, as are those experiencing housing difficulties.

CAMHS (2009) identify asylum seekers as a vulnerable group because their problems are hidden from the system, presumably due to language barriers preventing them from expressing themselves, and from seeking support. De Anstiss, Ziaian, Procter, Warland (2009) report that whilst services are underutilised by all children, children from refugee backgrounds have greater difficulty accessing mental healthcare, due to a failure to accommodate needs of ethnically diverse populations in general, and refugee populations specifically.

The CAMHS (2009) report also claims that children who face three or more stressful life events are more likely than other children to develop emotional and behavioural disorders. Asylum seeker pupils may have a wide range of educational and social needs as some of them have had an interrupted education, horrific experiences in their home countries, some have experienced a drop in living standards, some may not be cared for by their parents, some may be unaccompanied, and some may speak little English (DfES, 2004a). Groups of pupils who are at particular risk of underachievement, according to Aiming High (DfES, 2005c), are new arrivals, with little or no previous education experience; those who are acquiring English with limited exposure to their first language; and more advanced bilingual learners whose specific needs and special educational needs have been over looked.

Asylum seeker and refugee children are likely to make considerable proportion of those who are considered to be ELL. Many of these young migrants have significant health needs, medical conditions and mental health problems due to previous stressful situations, and the difficulties they often experience whilst settling (Gracey, 2004). In a recent report for the Immigration Law Practitioner's Association, Crawley (2006) examined the impact of recent changes in asylum and immigration law and practice on children subject to immigration control within the context of the ECM framework. She argued that because asylum seekers and refugees are treated as migrants first and foremost and children second, they may fall through the very gaps in protection and support that the ECM framework was intended to prevent. Raval (2005) highlights some of the challenges faced by asylum seekers and refugees that may place them at greater risk of exclusion including, isolation, poverty, hostility, racism, prejudice and negative attitudes towards them. He argues that these types of difficulties are compounded by virtue of not being able to communicate in the main language of the host country. Raval (2005) continues by claiming that the available literature suggests that children and young people who have been exposed to human rights violations, directly, or indirectly, over a prolonged period of time are at greater risk of experiencing elevated levels of distress and psychological trauma. He concludes by arguing that practitioners need to work collaboratively with bilingual co workers, who are not necessarily mental health practitioners, but who can bring a range of experience,

skill, expertise and cross-cultural understanding to facilitate a process of communication through a variety of roles, including translation. In their review of literature, Ehntholt, and Yule (2006) identify individual characteristics, such as pre-existing individual vulnerability, or physical illness places refugee children at greater risk of developing mental health difficulties, and argue that an awareness of relevant risk factors and protective factors is important.

When considering the emotional needs of ELL pupils it is important to consider the sub groups that may lie within this larger group. Asylum seekers and refugees, and children of immigrants are groups which fall under the ELL banner. Abouguendia and Noels (2001) investigated the general and acculturation related daily hassles and psychological assessment university students who were first generation (G1) and second generation (G2) South Asian immigrants to Canada. Seventy four participants completed relevant questionnaires, and comparison were made between generation groups and between ethnic in-group and out-group experiences. They found that in-group hassles predicted adjustment in both groups, and out-group hassles were linked to depression in G2. They argue that G2 immigrants do encounter acculturation related stressors, linked to being a child of an immigrant, despite having socialised and been educated in the mainstream society. These can result in low self-esteem and low self-concept. They comment that at times their participants felt they belonged to both cultures, but at other times they did not belong to either.

Risk factors associated with these sub groups, may place them at greater risk of experiencing emotional difficulties, further warranting an exploration of the needs of ELL pupils. At the same time, however the presence of protective factors may reduce the impact of risk factors discussed above. Literature on the family and community support systems as a protective have been briefly discussed below, before the review of the small body of literature that offers some insights into the emotional needs of ELL pupils is presented.

2.24 Family and Community Support Systems

Many initiatives have been introduced by central government in an attempt to provide support for families and communities, such as Sure Start programmes and

the Community Champions Fund. The Extended Schools programme places schools as the focal point for a range of family and community services including child care, health and social services, adult education and family learning amongst others.

There is literature to support the notion that families and communities have a direct impact on the lives of all children and young people. In their literature review Walcow and Ferguson (2001) found evidence to suggest that regardless of the nature or extent of hardship to which a person is exposed, the presence of a warm and caring adult inevitably serves a protective function. They go on to say that the evidence linking social support and resiliency is substantial enough to warrant further investigation of the relevant issues and the eventual development of wide scale community based strategies to assist vulnerable youth. Tak and McCubbin (2002) suggest there are three potential sources of resources at times of stress, individual family members, the family unit and the community. Children who may be learning English as an additional language may rely on family members, and the local community to provide them with support and a sense of belonging and comradeship. The author recognises that these networks are a source of support for ELL pupils, and may enhance factors such as resiliency. However this research focuses specifically on aspects of school life and how they may be impacting on the emotional needs of ELL pupils.

Both risk factors and protective factors can mean that different children within a certain 'group' may be impacted by their circumstances in different ways. Having an awareness of such factors helps those who work with these pupils to have a better understanding of how they may be able to manage different demands placed on them, whether they be educational, social, language or emotional demands. As discussed earlier in this chapter, emotions play a key role in different aspects of school life, and we all have emotional needs. Developing an awareness of the emotional needs of different groups of children in schools, will be helpful in knowing how to support those needs. The author will now review literature that has provided some insights into the emotional needs of ELL pupils.

2.25 Emotional Needs of ELL Pupils

Literature into the psychological assessment of ELL pupils has provided some interesting insights into some of the challenges faced by them. Ochoa et al (2004) examined critical components of the assessment procedures school psychologists in the USA use when conducting evaluations for emotional disturbance with students who are English language learners. They report that among many of the factors that impact on the mental health and behavioural functioning of ELL pupils is the stress that results from differences encountered between home and school. ELL pupils tend to maintain their cultural values and behaviours, increasing the probability of home school differences occurring. Moreover, parents from different ethnic groups may use different criteria to measure independence, competence and interpersonal skills, or they may differentially value these behaviours as either relevant or irrelevant to the successful adaption to the social environment. Home versus school differences can also occur with respect to discipline practices and the expression of emotion. Children who are ELL have to deal with many other issues associated with immigration and language differences that can result in significant psychological stress (Ochoa et al, 2004). They go on to say that ELL children often encounter an educational environment that is unable to address their linguistic diversity, which can have negative consequences on their academic, behavioural and emotional functioning. In English-only instructional settings, ELL pupils can experience frustration, anxiety, depression, lower self-esteem and stress, and may withdraw from social interactions. Given the multiple factors that suggest a high risk of emotional or behavioural difficulties among ELL pupils, the provision of adequate prevention and intervention services becomes critical (Ochoa et al, 2004).

When examining factors that influence the lack of adequate services for culturally and linguistically diverse pupils, Ochoa et al (2004) identify five factors: lack of access (mainly related to health insurance, which is not applicable to the UK); lack of bilingual psychologists; lack of training amongst service personnel; lack of validated measures to assess emotional and behavioural concerns of ELL pupils; and lack of research into the assessment of psychological functioning of culturally and linguistically diverse children. Although there has been substantial research examining the methods to promote language and academic development of ELL

pupils, the empirical literature pertaining to the delivery of psychological services via assessment practices with this pupil population is limited (Ochoa et al, 2004).

To address the current gaps in provision and measures available, it is necessary to first develop a better understanding of the emotional demands and needs of ELL pupils, through their eyes. Whilst the accounts of immigrant pupils have been sought (see works of Portes and colleagues), these have been done so in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the sociology of immigration, and do not delve into the emotional experiences of ELL pupils in relation to school. In his investigation into the process of second generation adaptation of immigrant families, Portes and Hao (2002) described a process in which the transition from bilingualism to mono-lingualism (i.e. English only), gradually occurs over three generations, despite benefits of bilingualism, such as on cognitive performance. In a later paper, Portes and Hao (2004) examine data obtained from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study, and report that family and community effects, such as living with both biological parents, and high educational aspirations were key to the success of bilingual second generation immigrant children.

Han and Huang (2010) argue that although it is understandable that policies on ELL pupils have focussed on academic achievement, children's emotional and behavioural well being can not be overlooked, because children who are suffering in these areas, are more likely to suffer academically. Children may receive 'failure feedback' during their school years, which can decrease confidence in their abilities or future success. These patterns may be felt more acutely by ELL children, who are often experiencing not only their first non familial social environment, but also their first new cultural environment. Han and Huang (2010) describe an 'immigrant paradox' in which immigrants adjust well in the new culture, but as a result of becoming increasingly acculturated, they lose the protective features of their home culture. Moreover, they become increasingly reluctant to speak their home language, which Han and Huang (2010) claim to be detrimental because of a growing body of research which suggests the benefits of bilingualism include various academic outcomes, higher self esteem and stronger family cohesion. In their study, Han and Huang (2010) were interested in examining how being a bilingual may shape a child's long term emotional well being. Their analysis was based on the kindergarten (i.e. preschool) cohort of the Early

Childhood Longitudinal Study, of school year 1998-1999, who were followed through to grade eight (i.e. aged 13-14 years). Their focus was on Asian children. They analysed teacher reports of internalising behaviours (e.g. presence of anxiety, loneliness, low self-esteem and sadness) and externalising behaviours (e.g. arguing, fighting, getting angry, and impulsivity) of 1032 children who were identified as first or second generation children of immigrants. English proficiency was measured at school entry, and language interactions between parents and child, i.e. mother's language spoken to child, father's language spoken to child and vice versa, and also by their success on the Oral Language Developmental Scale (OLDS) test whilst at school. Five participant groups were developed depending on the frequency of use of a non-English language when speaking to their parents and the time at which the OLDS test (if taken) was passed. Their results indicated that the non-English monolingual group of children, who did not pass the OLDS test by age 7, had the most disadvantageous family and school characteristics. About 34% of the variation in the levels of internalising behaviour problems was attributable to differences among children, and 9% to differences between schools, whereas 60% and 6% respectively corresponded to externalizing behaviours. Even after controlling for many of the disadvantageous school and family characteristics, non-English monolingual children had the highest levels of both emotional and behaviour (Internalised and externalised behaviour) problems by age 11, despite having similar levels to other groups at entry to kindergarten. The authors suggest that the lack of bilingual ability, i.e. lack of proficiency in English, might be responsible for some of the negative outcomes. They argue that the school environment is clearly important for ELL pupils, whose feelings and actions are affected by the language feedback they receive from teachers and their peers. Whilst Han and Huang's (2010) findings offer some interesting insights, several limitations of the study can be identified, the most salient of which include the fact that all behaviour measures were obtained from teachers, and are likely to have been influenced by teacher bias. In addition to this, a lack of information regarding the tools used to obtain the teacher reports, and a lack of clear definitions of internalised and externalised behaviours makes it difficult to fully interpret the findings obtained.

Social skills are often closely associated to emotional skills and well being, due to their dynamic relationship. In a similar study to the that mentioned above, Han (2010) used the Social Rating Scale scores of nearly fifteen thousand non-Hispanic White and Latin-American background pupils to investigate socio-emotional trajectories. Using the same groups of bilinguals as in their previous study, the findings again indicated non-English monolingual (in this case Latino) children had the lowest self-control and interpersonal skills, and the highest level of internalising problems by age 11, as reported by teachers. However, limitations of the previous study can also be applied this study.

In a study looking at language and peer culture amongst Mandarin-speaking preschoolers (five years old), it was reported that the consistent use of the first language in all interactions amongst the five children observed made language not only a communicating tool but also an identity marker (Feng, Foo, Kretschmer, Prendeville and Elgas, 2004). The authors, after analysing six segments of video recorded interactions lasting 50 minutes in total, through the use of a micro-ethnographic approach, speculated that each of the children found some emotional security in the exchanges. They argue that it is well documented that learners of a second language feel silly, humiliated and helpless when they first come to a new linguistic environment, and that the interactions of the mandarin speaking children with one another may have served as an emotional respite for these children, who are under stress to develop their social and communicative skills in their second language, English. Feng et al's (2004) study is based on their subjective observations of a very small sample of children, who attended a preschool centre based at a university in which many of the children came from middle class families. In addition to this, the study was facilitated by the lead teacher at the centre, who was an early childhood specialist, and an adjunct faculty member. Therefore their findings can not be generalised to larger samples or other pre school settings necessarily. Nonetheless they suggest that preschool programmes, and perhaps all programmes need to address two issues; how to maintain the emotional well being of a child when he or she is the only child in the class who speaks that particular language, and how to organise a classroom so that it encourages interactions in language other than English, along with including the child in English speaking exchanges as well. They also note that in all the

literature they read and cited, none of them addressed the emotional well being of young children that were placed in a new linguistic environment (Feng et al, 2004).

In an investigation into how beneficial it is for emergent bilingual children, children who may have access to two languages, but still require language support, to be plunged into mainstream English schools during their first days at school, Chen (2007) attempts to understand what 'equality of opportunity' really means for them. He followed three Chinese, 8 to 11 year old children of two newly arrived families, with the use of various ethnographic methods. These pupils were physically included in their form class, however they were often sent to younger classes for literacy and numeracy, and reported experiencing deep feeling of isolation, misunderstanding and frustration. Chen (2007) reports on the neglect of these pupils urgent need for English support and the strikingly different expectations of teachers and their lack of awareness of the children's feelings of exclusion and disadvantage, amongst other things. He concludes by arguing that children unable to communicate in English are treated in the same way as monolinguals, but their special linguistic needs are ignored. In addition he argues that if 'equality' means only physical 'inclusion', then it is problematic due to a lack of proper language support in class, which actually causes severe exclusion in the sense that these children were very withdrawn in the lesson and their confidence was dampened. Whilst Chen's (2007) claims are based on a very small scale study and a subjective interpretation of the experiences of the three Chinese children, it does provide an account of the experiences of not only ELL pupils, but their teachers and their parents, with regards to the opportunities made available to them whilst attending a UK based English speaking school. In doing so, emotional aspects of their experiences do emerge, which indicate these ELL children were faced with significant challenges to overcome, and that these challenges were not always recognised by teachers, often resulting in inappropriate education practices.

The literature reviewed here offers some insights into how language and emotional well being may interact with one another for a pupil who is an English language learner. In some studies, ELL data has been compared to data of English speaking pupils, however this has been done with only quantitative data analysis. Whilst associations between these two aspects of learning and development have been reported on, the means by which they have been observed, and the

measures used to illustrate such associations are varied and are at times unclear. The research findings described here are predominantly based on purely quantitative teacher reports, or researcher observations, there appears to be a lack of reporting on the first hand experiences of ELL pupils, with the use of qualitative methods. In addition to this no investigation into school practice with reference to ELL pupils was available. It is the aim of this research to address these gaps in ELL research by conducting mixed methods research, in which the reports and experiences of both ELL pupils, and their teacher's are explored and presented through the use of quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. Definitions of the terms used within the research questions have been provided within this chapter. The quantitative data collected with regards to the measurement of 'emotional needs' was based on scores obtained on an emotional literacy checklist, for reasons presented earlier in this chapter. The research questions that the research has attempted to answer have been present below.

2.26 Research Questions

RQ1: To what extent are the emotional needs of English language learner pupils attending an English speaking school, as measured by the emotional literacy assessment and intervention measure, different to those of English speaking pupils?

RQ2: How do the perceived emotional experiences of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school differ from those of English speaking pupils, and what factors are identified as influential for ELL pupils' emotional well-being?

RQ3: What aspects of school staff practice and ELL pupil school experiences, support the emotional well-being of ELL pupils who attend an English speaking school?

A detailed description of the methodology and measures used to answer these questions is presented in the next chapter.

Chapter Three: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section aims to give a detailed account of the methods, participants and measures used when conducting the research, and the rationale for doing so. The research paradigm and the use of mixed methods research is considered first, along with factors such as the context of the study and the role of the researcher. Ethical issues are discussed.

3.2 Real World Research

The 'real life' situation, as described by Robson (2002, p3), refers to the actual context in which the focus of one's inquiry occurs. This may be in for example an office, school, hospital, home or street. The control over conditions that may be achievable in a laboratory is not feasible in the 'real world', and is often considered to be ethically unjustifiable if attempted. Conducting research in the real world brings with it considerable challenges, one of which is attempting to make sense of complex, relatively poorly controlled and somewhat 'messy' situations. How research is conducted, and the methodologies chosen are closely related to the philosophy underpinning the researcher's aims.

As declared by the title, the nature of the research is one of exploration within the field of emotional needs of English Language Learners. The aim of the research was to attempt to provide insight into the experiences of this particular group of children and young people, so as to develop a deeper understanding and inform practice. When deciding on methodology it is necessary to reflect on the type of research questions being answered. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) found that some authors have suggested that quantitative research questions are confirmatory, and qualitative research questions are exploratory, however they themselves do not agree with this extreme dichotomisation. They believe that most quantitative research is confirmatory and involves theory verification, whilst much of qualitative research is exploratory and involves theory generation. What

happens when one wants to do both? Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) claim that a major advantage of mixed methods research is that it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions and therefore verify and generate theory in the same study. They feel many research projects try to accomplish two goals: demonstrate that a particular variable will have a predicted relationship with another variable, the prediction made possible by previous research findings, and answer exploratory questions about how that predicted relationship actually presents itself.

Mixed Methods designs are discussed later in this chapter. Before considering methodology however, it is useful to reflect on the philosophical stance within which the research is rooted.

3.3 Paradigm Wars

The so called 'paradigm wars' in the social sciences over recent decades have given rise to a reappraisal of the quantitative/qualitative debate. Traditional positivists maintain that one reality exists and that it is the researcher's job to discover what that reality is. From this philosophical approach evolved a 'standard view' of science that upholds the view that the world works according to fixed laws of cause and effect, and objective scientific thinking is used to test theories about these laws through the use of quantitative research methods (Muijs, 2004). Positivism has come under severe criticism from researchers who take a qualitative stance in social research (Robson, 2002). As a result Post-positivist researchers accept that the theories, hypotheses, background knowledge and values of the researcher can influence what is observed.

Constructivism is one of the many labels used to denote the current position of qualitative researchers. Constructivists believe reality is socially constructed, and that the research participants help to construct the reality with the researchers. Constructivists are heirs to the relativist tradition which in its extreme form maintains that there is no external reality independent of human consciousness, and that there are only different sets of meanings and classifications which people attach to the world. The mere process of our observing reality changes and

transforms it; there can be no objective reality (Muijs, 2004). Constructivist researchers consider the task of the researcher to be to understand the multiple perspectives.

The author, having considered both perspectives, does not believe either can provide a complete account for reality as she knows it and believes it to be. Human beings are very complex and highly volatile creatures. Whilst some of our actions and reactions may be attributable to human laws of cause and effect, others may be due to a very sophisticated combination of a number of environmental variables that we have been exposed to since we were born and perhaps even pre-birth. In the opinion of the author, as researchers it is not possible to make time and context-free generalisations, nor is it possible for researchers to entirely eliminate their biases and remain emotionally detached.

The author believes that the reality that exists does so through a highly intricate interplay between one's internal reality and one's external reality. In addition to this, the author believes that not only is there intricate interplay, but that they also exert influence on one another. One's subjectivity, or internal reality, influences how one perceives their external reality and their ability to be objective, and vice versa. Due to the nature of the relationship the author believes it impossible to separate the two realities, however when combined they encompass an individual's entire reality. Neither positivism, nor constructivism represents the views of the author, and so when attempting to research such a reality there is a need to consider carefully the methodology employed, as an 'either or' approach to methodology may result in biased or unrepresentative data which lacks richness and breadth.

3.4 Critical Realism

Robson (2002) argues the view that the philosophical paradigm known as 'Realism' can provide a model of scientific explanation which avoids both positivism and constructivism. In realist terms, the outcome of an action follows from the mechanisms acting in particular contexts. Through theory and observation, and as a result of previous experiments, researchers develop

knowledge and understanding about the mechanism through which an action causes an outcome, and about the context which provides the ideal conditions to trigger the mechanism. Theory is gradually and hesitantly developed so that eventually experiments can be done which make clear the mechanisms in operation (Robson, 2002).

A core assumption of Realism is that there is a reality which exists, and because there is a reality to which reference can be made, there is the option to choose from different theories that try to explain it, or the option to reject them. It is the task of science to invent theories that aim to represent the world, and test these theories by rational criteria (Robson, 2002).

Critical Realism is a branch of Realism which Robson (2002) proposes as a solution to the so-called 'paradigm wars'. Bhaskar (1989, in Bhaskar, 2008) developed this influential realist philosophy of social science, which accepts neither a constructionist nor a positivist ontology. It instead takes the view that the 'social world is reproduced and transformed in daily life'. Adopting a critical realist stance not only provides a third way between positivism and constructivism, but might also help fulfil the emancipatory potential of social research (Robson, 2002).

In his discussion on Critical Realism, Bryman (2004) suggests that according to its philosophical stance, social phenomena are produced by mechanisms that are real, but that are not directly accessible to observation, and are discernible only through their effects. The task of social research, for the critical realist, is to construct hypotheses about such mechanisms and to seek out their effects. He also notes that critical realists recognise that there is a distinction between the objects that are the focus of their enquiry and the terms they use to describe, account for and understand them. What makes Critical Realism *critical* is that the identification of mechanisms offers the prospect of introducing changes that can transform the status quo (Bryman, 2004). He goes on to draw the reader's attention to literature which advocate the principles of critical realism and which are supportive of the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. However, the studies reviewed were predominantly experimental in design.

Robson (2002) also discusses the Pragmatist Approach, which is a paradigm that advocates the use of the methodological approach which works best for a particular research problem, and can lead to the use of mixed method studies. Robson (2002), notes the remarkable similarities between Pragmatism and the underlying assumptions of the realist position.

Carrying out studies in the real world involves fluid and unpredictable settings. There is a need to move from a closed, controlled situation to an open, more fluid one. Doing so may not invalidate realist research but may cause difficulties when carrying out research. Realists accept that there are fundamental differences between natural and social phenomena, and accept that different methods have to be used for different subject matters. Social objects can be studied scientifically and the methods used must fit the subject matter (Robson, 2002).

Despite the similarities between the Pragmatic approach and Critical Realism, the potential to critically research a reality and the potential to change that reality that is offered by the critical realist approach best represents the authors views and intentions at the time of conducting the research. As highlighted above the paradigmatic opinion of a researcher can have implications in relation to the methodology employed when carrying the research. The subject matter and the aims of the research should be considered when developing methodological design, as well as the philosophy within which the research is embedded. However, due to constraints within the real world within which research is conducted it is sometimes necessary to find a 'best fit' model with regards to methodology, particularly when there is little availability of previous research methods to be guided by.

3.5 Real World Research Designs

As discussed earlier in this chapter, quantitative research has historically been more directed at theory verification, while qualitative research has been more concerned with theory generation (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Fixed research designs, typically used in quantitative research methods, when carried out in real world contexts usually require a developed conceptual framework or theory, so

that one may know in advance what they may be looking for, and have clear specifications about what is needed in order to carry them out. However there has been increasing recognition of the value of different approaches to social research (Robson, 2002). The use of flexible designs in research refer to research designs in which much less pre-specification takes place, and which typically make substantial use of qualitative data, as well as making use of methods which result in data in the form of numbers, i.e. quantitative. Robson (2002) argues that there is considerable advantage in using mixed-method designs in real world research.

As with most approaches there are advantages and disadvantages. Whilst a flexible research design may offer more flexibility, it may mean that factors such as credibility and replicability need to be more closely considered. Fixed designs, with their reliance on quantitative data and statistical generalisation, are considered, by their advocates, to be 'scientific'. The scientific status of flexible designs is more disputed. Robson (2002) asserts that for much real world research it is valuable to have what he calls a 'scientific attitude' towards research ensuring it is carried out 'systematically, sceptically and ethically' (2002, p18).

3.6 Mixed Methods Research

Whilst arguments both for and against the key paradigms have been well documented over the years, so too have the changes in the methodological 'waves' within social and behavioural sciences that have evolved alongside the shifts in paradigmatic opinion and research. Powell, Mihalas, Onwuegbuzie, Suldo and Daley (2008) investigated the trends in the literature of mixed methods, describing three methodological waves characterised by the traditional science period, the crisis period and the current synthesis period.

In tandem with the paradigmatic era in which the 'standard view' of science was popular, in the traditional science period of methodological evolution researchers subscribed to positivistic approaches to methodology, i.e. the use of quantitative methods of data collection. The second wave named the 'crisis period' by Powell et al (2008) refers to the era in which the traditional science approach received great criticism in its use of scientific methods, and called for a more appropriate

paradigm, leading to the birth of the qualitative era. Whilst quantitative and qualitative research co-existed, they did so in parallel. In the current synthesis stage the use of quantitative *and* qualitative approaches was advocated by researchers in various fields of research, with the key supporting feature of this wave being the idea of triangulation.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methods as:

‘the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques into a single study.’
(Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p17).

There has been great support for the use of mixed methods research over recent years. For example Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) strongly argue that the use of mixed methods research designs often create a multifaceted view of the research questions, allowing the triangulation of the data sources and providing the potential to facilitate the creation of stronger inferences in comparison to single method research studies. They go on to say that mixed methods studies are becoming increasingly popular, especially because they are often more efficient in answering research questions than either the qualitative or quantitative approach alone.

There have been arguments against mixed methods research. Bryman (2004) reports two key arguments, both of which rest on contentions about the interconnectedness of methodology and epistemology. The embedded methods argument implies that research methods carry with them fixed epistemological and ontological implications, and that a method employed should be consistent with the paradigmatic position of the research e.g. the use of quantitative methods by a Postivist. The paradigm argument views quantitative and qualitative research as paradigms in their own right with epistemological assumptions, values and methods intimately intertwined in such a way that different methods are incompatible between paradigms.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) refer to this as the 'incompatibility thesis' and argue that it has largely been discredited, partly because mixed methods research has been successfully demonstrated. They go on to say that some researchers believe that mixed methods are possible but that they must be kept as separate as possible so that the strengths of each paradigm can be realised; referred to as the 'complementary strengths thesis'. The 'multiple paradigm' thesis argues that multiple paradigms may be applied to diverse mixed methods designs. They conclude by stating that in theory it is possible to mix methods along with different philosophical assumptions which can lead to more generative and insightful understandings, and doing so can be a means of exploring differences.

Based on the research reviewed by them, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) found the majority of inquiry decisions made to be grounded in the nature of the phenomenon being investigated and the contexts in which the studies are conducted. Rarely are they based in the philosophical assumptions. Methods and techniques, according to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), can be crafted and used within multiple diverse paradigmatic positions. They themselves do advocate the importance of philosophical beliefs in inquiry but equally acknowledge the importance of practical decisions with regards to for example context and practical resource constraints. They feel it is time to reframe the key issue from deliberations about the nature and role of inquiry paradigms in mixed methods practice to questions about the legitimate bases for inquiry practice decisions. Bryman (2004) highlights a growing preparedness amongst researchers to think of research methods as techniques of data collection or analysis that are not constrained by epistemological and ontological commitments.

For the author, and as highlighted by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), decisions made in relation to the methods employed were grounded in the purpose of the research and the nature of phenomenon being investigated, in addition to the context in which the study was being conducted. There are likely to be obvious and not so obvious reasons to believe the notion that the emotional needs of English language learners may be different to those of fluent English speaking children in the United Kingdom. These reasons may be observable or they may be appreciable only through their effects. In the research the author took on the role

of a critical realist by attempting to construct hypotheses about the social phenomena being researched and to explore their effects (Bryman, 2004). In realist terms, an outcome follows from the mechanisms acting in particular contexts (Robson, 2002). Through theory and observation researchers can develop knowledge and understanding about the mechanisms through which an action, or in this case a level of language proficiency may or may not have on an outcome, in this case an emotional state. In line with the Critical Realism framework the author intended to share the findings of the research so as to inform practice in (at least) the schools who participated in the research, with the potential of introducing changes which may contribute to the development of conditions more supportive of the emotional needs of pupils who are English Language Learners, if not all pupils. However, before being in a position to do so there was a need to first explore the prospect of a difference in need between English speakers and English Language Learners, and then to gain a deeper insight into the experiences of English Language Learners and the mechanisms that may be involved in and contributing to the difference in need or the lack of difference, as the case may be.

As mentioned throughout this chapter thus far, conducting research in the real world has its implications on practical issues as well as on factors such as sampling and methods used. Whilst the author did believe the Critical Realism paradigm best represented her philosophical views, there appeared to be relatively little literature discussing a commitment to a particular methodological approach when conducting research within this conceptual framework.

Robson (2002) describes Critical Realism as a third way between positivism and constructivism. If this stance is applied to the methodological approaches of the two paradigms, then one could be lead to believe that Critical Realism is somewhere in between the two. That is, it has the emancipatory potential to draw on both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Before embarking on the description and rationale for the methodological design employed in the research, the author will provide some basic demographical

information for the reader with regards to the city within which the data was collected, and the local authority priorities.

3.7 Local Contextual Information

This study was completed in a local authority located within the West Midlands. The most recent census data available (2001, Office for National Statistics, 2003a), for the local authority (LA) indicates that the city's population had decreased by 5% over the 10 years prior to data collection. The proportion of people who classed themselves as being of non-white origin was 22.2%, the largest non-white category was 'Indian' at 12.3%. Two thirds of the population stated their religion was Christian. The second largest religious group was Sikh. The local Sikh community was reported to be the fourth largest amongst 376 council areas in England and Wales. Two-thirds of the population aged 16-74 years were economically active. Over two in every five adults did not have formal educational qualifications, the eleventh highest nationally. Migration data indicates that 9.9% of the city's population were considered to be migrants (a person with a different address one year before the census). Of this population 0.5% had moved to the area from outside the UK.

Basic demographical information was also available for the suburban area within which the two schools involved in the research were based. Within the area, similar to the breakdown of ethnicities across the city, the White British group were the largest ethnic group, with Asian Indian following them as the second largest group, and Black Caribbean as the third. White and Black Caribbean mixed heritage, White-Other and Pakistani ethnic groups followed these (in descending order of size). Only 20% of the households within the area are recorded as not being deprived, with 37.5% of the population in full time employment, and 62.2% recorded as economically active (Local Area and Neighbourhood Arrangement Profile, Office of National Statistics, 2003b). Information regarding languages spoken was not available.

The two schools involved in this study were geographically close, and of similar size and structure. They were recruited because they both served the local area,

within which there was a high percentage of ethnic minorities, immigrants and some new arrivals. It was not possible to obtain a breakdown of the key statistics for each school at the time of writing this report.

3.8 Methodological Design

There was a small body of literature which focussed on topics closely related to the emotional needs of English Language Learners. However through her own experiences and through the availability of related literature with regards to for example, certain aspects of language development and acquisition, emotional development or school experiences of children who speak English as an additional language, the author was able to develop her own ideas and hypotheses around what the emotional needs of English Language Learners might be. Whilst the author may have embarked on the research with some pre-conceived ideas of the relationship between being an English Language Learner and the level of emotional need, the nature of the research was still very much exploratory.

Whilst the author may have been convinced of the advantages of using mixed methods research as a means of effectively answering research questions, it was still necessary to investigate whether a mixed methods design was the most appropriate approach to take for the research problems being addressed by this study. In order to be in a position to do this, the author reviewed the elements of the quantitative and qualitative methods and then decided on the most appropriate 'mixing' of these methods in light of these discussions.

3.9 Quantitative versus Qualitative.

Quantitative research, as discussed by Bryman (2004) is typically associated with the collection of numerical data and as exhibiting a view of the relationship between theory and research as deductive. The researcher, on the basis of what is known about the domain, deduces a hypothesis that must be subjected to empirical scrutiny. The use of measurement in quantitative research allows the researcher to detect clear variations in the data, and to observe trends across potentially large data sets. The use of a measurement device provides a

consistent instrument for gauging differences, of which the responses may be statistically analysed, of which the reliability may be more easily established, and whose use may be replicated in other studies. In addition to this it can provide the basis for more precise and detailed investigation of the relationship between the concepts being studied. The researcher plays an objective role in the research. On a more practical note, quantitative data is easier and quicker to obtain in comparison to qualitative data, making it easier for the collection of larger data sets. However, weaknesses of quantitative methods include the risk of the occurrence of confirmation bias by the researcher who may unwittingly miss out on phenomena due to the focus on theory or hypothesis testing rather than generation, and the production of findings that may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific groups or contexts (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Bryman (2004) discusses the suggestion that theory and concepts that are developed prior to undertaking a study are more characteristic of quantitative research, and that, as mentioned previously such methods are often used as a means of verifying a theory or hypotheses. However he felt that this was true only to a point. Survey-based studies, (surveys usually being considered a quantitative method of data collection) are according to Bryman (2004), often more exploratory than this view implies, exploration being a quality more commonly associated with qualitative research methods. Although concepts have to be measured the nature of their interconnections is frequently not specified in advance. As a result, the analysis of quantitative data from social surveys is often more exploratory than is generally appreciated, and consequently offers opportunities for the generation of hypotheses and theories, as well as the potential to verify them.

Another criticism of the use of quantitative inquiry methods is the issue of ecological validity. The reliance on instruments and measurement may hinder the connection between research and everyday life (Bryman, 2004). How can one be sure that the respondent has the requisite knowledge to answer a question? There is no way of knowing if the response provided is in fact related to their everyday life, or is a true reflection of their experiences or perceptions.

Bryman (2004) describes qualitative research as being concerned more with words rather than numbers. There is an inductive view of the relationship between theory and research. The stress is on the understanding of the social world through an examination of the interpretation of that world by the participants. The researcher plays a more subjective role in the research. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) describe the major characteristics of qualitative research methods as induction; discovery; exploration; hypothesis/theory generation; and the researcher as the primary 'instrument' of data collection. Amongst the strengths of qualitative inquiry methods they refer to its usefulness in: studying a limited number of cases in depth; describing complex phenomena; providing an 'emic' i.e. insiders, viewpoint, describing in rich detail, phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts; and identifying contextual and setting factors as they relate to the phenomena of interest. However, the findings obtained may not be generalisable, such methods may have lower credibility, time commitment may be greater in comparison to the collection of quantitative data, and the results are more open to influence on the part of the researcher (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Bryman (2004) reveals several ways in which qualitative research frequently exhibits features that one would normally associate with quantitative model of research. For example he suggests qualitative research can be employed to investigate quite specific tightly defined research questions which may typically be answered with the use of quantitative methods, and that there is no obvious reason why qualitative methods cannot be used in theory and hypothesis testing.

3.10 Rationale for Mixing Methods

Powell et al (2008) identified four major rationales for mixing quantitative and qualitative approaches:

- participant enrichment i.e. mixing techniques to optimize the sample
- instrument fidelity i.e. to maximise the appropriateness and/or utility of the instruments used

- treatment integrity i.e. mixing procedures in order to assess fidelity of interventions, treatments or programs
- significance enhancement i.e. mixing techniques in order to optimise data interpretation

They also defined five major purposes to mixed methods research, of which a study can have more than one: triangulation; complementarity; initiation; development; and expansion. Of these, the author's reasons for the mixing of research methods in this study were for triangulation, complementarity and expansion purposes. The rationale for mixing methods was to enhance the significance of the data collected.

The apparent dearth of literature on the emotional needs of English Language Learners meant that this study was very much exploratory. However, as mentioned previously, the availability of first hand casework experience and of related literature allowed the author to hypothesise around the topic, therefore the nature of the research could also be considered explanatory. In order to first accept or reject the author's hypothesis, the author felt it was necessary to first obtain larger amounts of quantitative data in order to observe trends across the data set, which would then provide a basis for further exploration. This further exploration was intended to be done through the use of qualitative research methods in the hope of developing a richer picture of trends observed and to draw on the experiences of pupils and teachers to develop an 'insiders' viewpoint. In doing so the qualitative data would allow the author to triangulate findings from the quantitative data sought in the first phase of data collection, seek elaboration (complementarity) of the quantitative data, and expand on the quantitative findings in the hope of enhancing the significance of the overall findings of the study at the interpretation and discussion stages. Whilst the use of quantitative data collection methods first, followed by the use of qualitative data collection methods is more typically observed in explanatory research designs, the design is one of both explanation and exploration.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) suggest four situations in which mixed methods is a preferred approach to addressing the research problem, two of which apply to this study. When only one approach to research is inadequate by itself, the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provides a more complete picture by noting trends and generalisations as well as an in-depth knowledge of participants' perspectives. The author lacked confidence in the ability of a quantitative approach alone to answer the research questions fully, and whilst a solely qualitative approach could have been used, the author needed to identify if there was a difference in need between English speakers and English language learners, before exploring it further. The author felt qualitative data would go some way to offer some explanation for the quantitative data collected in the words of the participants, which would enhance and enrich the findings of the study.

When a mixed methods approach is taken, three key decisions have to be made: the timing of the use of the collected data; the relative weight of the quantitative and qualitative approaches; and the approach to mixing the two data sets (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

The author decided to collect the data sequentially with quantitative data collected first, followed by qualitative data. The quantitative data would first be collected and analysed and used as a means of providing a guide to the focus of the qualitative approach taken in the second phase. The target population would be those pupils identified as being English Language Learners. Due to the design of the study a proportion of the participants who participated in the quantitative phase would also participate in the qualitative stage. The author felt this would allow for the opportunity to, first explore the notion put forward by the research aims, and then gain a deeper insight into the occurrence of the social phenomena being studied. The second phase, the qualitative phase, would also provide the author with the opportunity to discuss factors related to the practice within schools with both teachers and pupils. As both data sets would provide data that could contribute to the overarching research aims, they were combined when discussing and interpreting the findings. With regards to the weighting of the two data sets, the author has considered them to be of equal weighting, and will play an equally important role in addressing the research problem. As the research is rooted in the

Critical Realist paradigm, there is no obligation to give greater priority to either of the approaches. The author felt that one data set would not be more or less informative than the other, and that they both would provide equally useful findings. In addition to this the equal weighting of the data sets allowed for the potential to triangulate or refute the findings of the other set.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) make a distinction between two mixed methods research designs: mixed-model design and mixed-methods design. In a mixed-model design, qualitative and quantitative approaches are mixed within or across the stages of the research process. In a mixed-method design there is usually a quantitative phase and qualitative phase. The method design for this research fits the mixed-methods design as proposed by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004). In contrast to mixed-model designs, mixed-method designs are similar to conducting a quantitative mini-study and a qualitative mini-study within one overall research study. To be considered a mixed method design, the findings must be mixed or integrated at some point. The authors provide a mixed-methods design matrix which provides 9 possible mixed-method designs. They stress that one can easily create more user specific and more complex designs than those in their matrix. The weight and time order of data collection are also provided. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) mixed-method design matrix has been depicted in Table 1.1.

Weight of data set	Time Order	
	Concurrent	Sequential
	QUAL + QUAN	QUAL → QUAN OR QUAN → QUAL
	QUAL + quan QUAN + qual	QUAL → quan OR qual → QUAN QUAN → qual OR quan → QUAL

Table 1.1 Mixed methods designs matrix (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The highlighted box indicates the mixed-method design that matches that used in this research study. That is, both quantitative and qualitative data sets were considered to have equal weighting and, the data was collected sequentially, with

quantitative data collected in the first phase and qualitative data collected in the second phase. Powell et al (2008) provide a typology of twelve mixed method designs varying according to the weight, timing and level of mixing of the two sets of data. The design they describe as 'partially mixed sequential equal status' design (Powell et al, 2008, p 296) appears to also fit the design used in this research as quantitative and qualitative phases occur one after the other, with both phases being given approximately equal weight and mixing occurring at the data interpretation stage.

Newman, Ridenour, Newman and DeMarco (in Tashakori and Teddlie, 2003) strongly believe that the research question(s) of a study are key to guiding the researcher in all other decisions during a research project. They also argue that there is an iterative process between considering the research purpose and the research question, and out of this process are decisions made about methods. They make the case that it is often necessary to have multiple questions, and that this frequently necessitates the use of mixed methods.

The research questions for this study, born out of the research purpose, inquire into the emotional needs of English language learners. They seek to illuminate our knowledge and understanding of how their needs maybe different to those of English speaking pupils, and to explore the school related factors that may be contributing to their emotional well being. Due to the nature of the research the author felt the use of mixed methods would best answer these research questions. This would allow for data triangulation and a more rigorous and inter-connected approach when answering the questions. The third research question's purpose is rooted in the author's desire to use the finding of the research to raise awareness within the schools recruited and to discuss how the findings may be able to inform practice and intervention in the real world. The research questions have been provided in Table 1.2 (page 104) along with the data collection method that was used to answer them.

Research Question	Method of Data Collection
1. To what extent are the emotional needs of English language learner pupils attending an English speaking school, as measured by the emotional literacy assessment and intervention measure, different to those of English speaking pupils?	- Pupil and teacher Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention (ELAI) measure (Southampton Psychology Service, 2003)
2. How do the perceived emotional experiences of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school differ from those of English speaking pupils, and what factors are identified as influential for ELL pupils emotional well-being?	- Pupil focus groups - Teacher interviews
3. What aspects of school staff practice and ELL pupil school experiences support the emotional well-being of ELL pupils who attend an English speaking school?	- Pupil focus groups - Teacher interviews

Table 1.2 Methods used to answer research questions.

3.11 Participants

A purposive sampling technique was employed as the target population for this research were children and young people who attended a school within the UK and who were considered to be English Language Learners by their teachers. How a teacher identified pupils to be English Language Learners is discussed in greater detail later. In addition to data obtained from the target population, English speaking pupils were also recruited to provide comparative data. Responses provided by pupils (self report), and teachers of the pupils involved were collected and analysed in the quantitative phase. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) describe purposive samples as samples in which the researcher has used some form of criterion when identifying who to include in their sample. Researchers using purposive techniques seek to focus the sample so as to select only those cases that might best illuminate and test the hypotheses of the researcher. They go on to say that although purposive techniques are more commonly associated with

qualitative methods, they can be used with quantitative studies, and are quite common in mixed methods studies.

When recruiting teachers, the author requested the Year 5 and 6 teachers from both schools participate in both phases of the data collection. However, one of the Year 5 teachers left to go on maternity leave, and so the school SENCo (Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator) kindly offered to take her place, as she knew the class well and had supported the Year 5 teacher in completing the teacher checklists, and scoring each pupil on the language proficiency scale.

3.12 English Language Learners

The more commonly used term in the UK for pupils who are English Language Learners (ELL) is the term 'English as an additional language' (EAL). In the majority of studies reviewed in the Literature Review conducted for this research, the term EAL is used to describe all pupils who speak English as a second language. That is, it is used to differentiate between individuals who have a first language, home language or mother tongue other than English, from those whose first language is English. Whilst the author felt this term did allow for this somewhat simple differentiation, it did not provide any information with regards to an individual's proficiency of English, be it their first, second or fifth language. For example, the author considered herself to be a person who speaks EAL as she is bilingual however she would not consider herself to be an English Language Learner. The purpose of this research was to explore the possibility of differences in emotional needs between proficient English speakers and those who are still learning to speak English. Therefore it was necessary to differentiate between participants who spoke both English and their mother tongue proficiently, and those who did not speak English proficiently. For this reason the author preferred to use the term English Language Learners.

In order to identify which participants were English Language Learners, the author drew on the four stage language learning model developed by Hester (1990). The descriptions of each stage as provided by Strand and Demie (2005) were provided for class teachers. This model was preferred over others described (see section

2.6) as this model had been used by UK schools in the past, whilst the other two were developed for schools in the USA. Class teachers were asked to rate all the pupil participants on a four stage English language proficiency scale:

1. New to English
2. Becoming familiar with English
3. Becoming confident in English
4. Proficient in English

Pupils rated 1, 2 or 3 on this English proficiency scale were considered to be English Language Learners. Those rated as 4, were considered to be proficient English speakers, regardless of whether they spoke another language in addition to English. The data obtained from those pupils who were scored as 4 on the English proficiency rating scale, referred to from this point onwards as ENG pupils, were used as the comparison group data.

Along with an English proficiency rating, other information for ELL pupils was also collected so as to develop a richer picture and so that other potentially influencing factors could be identified and discussed in relation to the findings. Other information collected included gender, ethnicity, home country, home language and special educational needs. This information was predominantly collected from school records however the ELL pupils involved in the qualitative phase also got an opportunity to state their home country and home language.

3.13 Rationale for School and Participant Recruitment

As mentioned in Chapter One, part of the rationale for this research was rooted in the experiences of the author, and the apparent difference in need observed when working with individual cases, in addition to the lack of research within this area of interest. The schools involved in the research were schools in which the author had worked with as a Trainee Educational Psychologist. They had relatively high percentages of pupils who they considered to be EAL. This characteristic, along with the effective working relationships forged with the schools by the researcher,

provided appropriate circumstances in which the author could conduct her research.

The reason for choosing a school setting as the access point to pupils was threefold. The first reason was related to ethical considerations. By conducting the research in a familiar and safe environment, it reduced the risk of feelings of anxiety on the part of the participant and reduced the risk of disengagement and/or reluctance to respond openly due to reasons such as unfamiliarity. Secondly, and most importantly, the research aimed to investigate the experiences of the target population in relation to their school life, therefore it was hoped that by conducting the research within the participants' school setting it would aid their recall and would encourage them to make their responses in relation to their school experiences, and so the author felt that by being at their school when participating would help them to home into those experiences. Lastly, for reasons of practicality and convenience. The author had access to schools where the availability of participants at any given time provided the scope to collect relatively large numbers of data in a short period of time.

When deciding on sample size, it was necessary to consider the requirements for both phases of data collection and data analysis. In order to carry out statistical analysis of the quantitative data collected in Phase 1 it was necessary to obtain data from a greater number of participants in comparison to Phase 2. The author felt obtaining data from one school may potentially provide a skewed picture which was more representative of that particular school's needs and practices, similar to that found in a case study. Two schools were recruited so that findings might have more generalisability and less specific to any one school. Whilst data from a greater number of schools would have enhanced the findings, this was not practically possible due to time and resource restraints. The author does recognise that the two schools recruited were geographically relatively close, and it is possible that the communities they served overlapped somewhat. This, in the opinion of the author, provided strength to the sample as it meant that the data obtained could have the potential to be considered as a representation of the needs of that community, and whose needs may be similar to those of other 'like'

communities, which could make the findings potentially applicable to other populations with similar demographics.

When deciding on the age of the sample group the author had to consider a number of factors. Both phases of the data collection were likely to require the pupil participant to have reached certain developmental milestones in their ability to process information presented to them both verbally, in written format and visually, their ability to communicate (be it in their home language or any other language), their ability to recall and reflect on past experiences, and their ability to recognise and understand their own feelings and emotions. The added factor of being an English Language Learner also had to be considered, and caution was needed when working with pupils who had only very recently arrived in the UK and who may speak very little English. After discussing this with teachers at the schools involved, it was felt that the pupils in Years 5 and 6, i.e. between the ages of nine and eleven would be the most appropriate groups to target. This choice was in line with national figures published in the DfES report *Ethnicity and Education* (2006) which indicated the English as an additional language population to be expanding at a greater rate at the primary level than the secondary level, and that the gap between these pupils and their English speaking counterparts was narrowing at a faster rate at secondary than primary level.

In this research design the same individuals were included in both phases of the data collection as far as possible. Creswell and Plano Clarke (2007) suggest the designs in which qualitative data is used to provide more detail about the quantitative data collected are more typically explanatory in nature, and tend to select participants that can best provide this detail. However, the time period over which the data for this research was conducted was split between academic years and so the Year 6 group of participants who would take part in Phase 1 (quantitative phase), would not be accessible to take part in Phase 2 (as they had transferred to Secondary school by this point). Therefore only the Year 5 participants from Phase 1 took part in Phase 2 (qualitative phase).

3.14 Data Collection Methods and Measures

A method of data collection is a technique used to collect empirical research data. When deciding on which techniques to employ a researcher needs to consider the types of data that are possible, and examine and weigh each to determine what sources of data will best answer the research questions. The techniques and methods employed in this research have been detailed and justified below.

3.15 Phase 1 – Quantitative Data Collection

Due to the exploratory nature of Phase 1 data collection, the author felt it would not be appropriate to use a purely quantitative approach to collecting data. As discussed previously the use of measurement in quantitative approaches allows the researcher to observe clear variations in the data, and to observe trends. The collection of qualitative data would then allow further exploration of the trends identified by the quantitative data.

The author's aim, when collecting quantitative data, was to identify if indeed the emotional needs of ELL and ENG pupils were different. According to Bryman (2004) measurement allows one to delineate fine differences between people in terms of characteristics such as emotional needs. Measurement can also provide a consistent instrument for gauging difference, and can provide the basis for more precise estimates of the degree of relationship between concepts. He describes the necessity of an indicator that will stand for the measure of a concept. Such indicators include the use of structured interview schedules, self-report questionnaires, the recording of behaviours through structured observations, the use of official statistics, or through the examination of mass media content.

Due to the affective nature of the concept being measured, observations may have provided some insight, however any findings would be based on the researcher's interpretations of the behaviours observed, increasing the likelihood of research bias. Interviewer effects in structured interviews may affect answers given by participants, and with the target population being a relatively vulnerable group, the author felt individual interviews may be more distressing and a less congenial

situation for an ELL pupil of that age. In addition, practically speaking, time restraints would not permit for structured interviews to be conducted with the same number of individual participants. A lack of appropriate official and unofficial statistics would prevent the author from using such sources of information as a tool to explore emotional needs. The author felt the use of self-report questionnaires would allow the participants to make their own reflections and respond to items how they see fit, reducing the chances of researcher bias in interpretations at this stage of the research process. This method would provide 'hard' data, and is a technique which can be used with relative ease when faced with time and resource constraints. In addition to this it would be possible to gather reasonably large amounts of data without significantly inconveniencing the participants and schools recruited, enabling the author to compare and contrast responses made by ELL and ENG pupils and observe trends, in addition to analysing responses provided by teachers with regards to their experiences of the emotional needs of ELL pupils.

The main drawback to using self-report questionnaires would be the high reliance on the use of language in obtaining findings. With English Language Learners being the target population of this research, language is an obvious variable that is likely to impact on a participant's ability to access and understand the tool being used. The author had to carefully consider whether to devise her own tool, or to use an existing one. The author decided to use an emotional literacy measure as a means of measuring differences in emotional needs, the reasons for which have been discussed in Chapter Two (see section 2.21). The quantitative self-report tool used would be presented in English to all participants. For those participants who were likely to encounter difficulties in accessing a self-report questionnaire written in English, verbal assistance would be provided as far as possible. This would include adult support in reading and understanding of the items and an explanation of options for responding only. When possible this support would be provided by a bilingual member of staff and communicated in the child's home language, or by a pupil who speaks the same home language but who has a greater proficiency of English, but this would be avoided as far as possible.

After considering various measures available, the author felt the Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention (ELAI) measure was the most fitting. The reasons for this have been listed below.

- All the sub-scales within the ELAI measured relevant areas of emotional well being and provided data which would enable the author to build an emotional profile for participants in which strengths and relative weaknesses or areas of need would be ascertainable.
- The measure was easy to administer, had both pupil and teacher checklists, and was norm referenced based on a UK sample.
- The measure had been developed by educational psychologists relatively recently.
- The five subscales within the measure, are in line with the five aspects of social and emotional learning identified by the SEAL programme, making the items within the measure relevant to teachers completing them, as both schools used aspects of the SEAL programme within their curriculum delivery.

In a report written for the DCSF, Humphrey et al (2008) were commissioned to evaluate the nationally used programme SEAL (DfES, 2005a). They used the ELAI as measuring tool to obtain pre and post measures. The authors explain their choice of the ELAI due to its brevity, theoretical grounding, use in related research and its robustness. When discussing the limitations of their research they acknowledge the pragmatic advantages of the use of self-report measures, however they recommend researchers err on the side of caution. Self-report measures rely upon *typical* rather than *maximal* measures (Humphrey et al, 2008).

A very recent review of key issues in the measurement of children's social and emotional skills, Wigelsworth et al (2010) provided a glossary of 23 measures identified following a systematic search. Of these measures, the only measure which focused on emotional literacy (i.e. not social skills or behaviour), and had both child and teacher measures included was the ELAI. They describe ELAI as a broad uni-dimensional indicator of social and emotional skills that can be used in a

targeted way, and can be used to identify pupils who may require additional support. However, as far as the author is aware, the ELAI has not been used as a tool to demonstrate trends in emotional need or to identify if a child may need additional support. However the ELAI manual recommends its use for the latter. The ELAI has been described in more detail below.

3.16 Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention Measure

Southampton Psychology Service (SPS, 2003) adapted Goleman's (1995) model of emotional literacy in which he distinguishes between personal competences, which are about how we manage ourselves, and social competences, which concerns how we manage relationships with others. The ELAI covers three dimensions of personal competences, namely self-awareness; self-regulation; and motivation, and two social competences, empathy and social skills. These have been elaborated on briefly below, which were taken from the ELAI Manual (SPS, 2003).

► Self-awareness

Self awareness is the ability to recognise and understand our own emotions, preferences, strengths and weaknesses. This includes being able to discriminate between our various emotions. The ability to categorise is intimately linked with the development of appropriate language skills. We also need to be able to appreciate how emotions can affect what we think, say and do.

► Self regulation

The primary purpose of emotions is to enable us to survive and flourish both physically and psychologically. Emotions evolve from parts of the brain that develop very early on, and there is very powerful physiological basis to our emotions. As our functioning and regulation develops we develop information-processing and logical problem-solving abilities. The relationship between our thinking and our emotional selves is complex, and there is potential for conflict. The greater and more intense the level of emotional arousal, the less able we are to problem solve, and think rationally. Self-regulation refers to the ability to master powerful impulses, often fuelled by emotional arousal, and to control the urge to

act on these emotions. An emotionally literate person however, would not stifle or suppress true feelings and emotions, rather they understand their emotions and express them appropriately.

► Motivation

Motivation is about our goal choices and our determination to achieve our goals, which is essentially linked to emotion. There is a distinction between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Pupils who are intrinsically motivated to learn tend to enjoy what they learn, and thus can involve emotions of pleasure and enjoyment. Extrinsic motivation is less clearly understood, but it is thought that it involves a considerable degree of personal commitment. There are two types of committed pupils, those who are motivated by the hope of success, and those who motivated by the fear of failure. It is thought that such commitment often has emotional implications.

► Empathy

The way we understand the people around us, and why they do what they do, will profoundly affect the quality of our relationships. Being able to notice, read and be sensitive to what other people are feeling are necessary skills for building interpersonal relationships. The foundations of empathy are listening and being attentive to the messages being sent to us by others through both verbal and non-verbal communication. In order to convey empathy, we need to draw on our own emotional resources based on our understanding of how people feel. If an individual has the skills necessary, such as language skills, along with a willingness to help, the expression of empathy can be a very effective in assisting others in times of distress.

► Social skills

As mentioned above, it is necessary to have the skills to be able to convey empathy. Having the ability to communicate to others that we have listened to them and appreciate their situation draws on a social competence closely linked to empathy, social skills. Again these can be communicated both verbally and non-verbally and to varying degrees. In order for a person to be accepted in social situations can be dependent on their social skills and communication skills.

The ELAI has three optional checklists for completion by the pupil, teacher and parent, each of which contain items measuring each of the five sub-scales described above. All three checklists were standardised on a randomly selected UK sample which is reported to have been nationally representative of primary and secondary schools when conducted in 2003. Two sets of checklists were developed, one for pupils between the ages of 7 and 11 (Primary Checklist), and one for pupils aged between 11 and 16 (Secondary Checklist). As only the Primary pupil and teacher checklists were used in the research only information for these have been included here.

The pupil checklist contains 25 items and the teacher checklist has 20 items, both are reported to take no more than ten minutes to complete. Each item on the pupil checklist is a statement to which a respondent marks one of a possible 4 responses: very like me; quite like me; only a bit like me; not like me at all. The teacher checklist is similar to the pupil checklist with slight adjustments to the wording of the statements. The pupil and teacher checklists can be found in Appendix 1. The response is given a score between 1 and 4. The scores for the items looking at any one particular sub-scale can be combined to give a sub-scale score. In addition to this, the sub-scale scores can be combined to give an overall emotional literacy score. The maximum scores possible on the pupil and teacher checklists are 100 and 80 respectively. The maximum score on each of the five teacher subscales is 16. A low score on both checklists indicates low emotional literacy.

Information is provided by the ELAI authors with regards to the reliability of the sub scale scores and the overall score for the pupil, teacher and parent checklists. Whilst the majority of the sub-scales in the teacher (and parent) checklists were considered reliable, the sub-scales in the pupil checklist were not, therefore the authors do not provide cut-offs for the sub-scales within the pupil checklist, but do for the teacher checklist.

The reliability analysis of the standardisation data completed by the ELAI authors claims to address the extent to which items in the ELAI checklists measure the

same underlying concept. The reliability of the overall emotional literacy and sub scale scores was assessed for Pupil, Teacher and Parent checklists. Reliability was assessed, according to the ELAI Manual (SPS, 2003), using Cronbach's Alpha. Scores of around 0.70 for the majority of scales within each checklist were assumed to be indicative of adequate reliability. The analysis shows that while the majority of sub scales in the Teacher and Parent checklists were reliable i.e. 0.70 or above, the subscales in the pupil checklist were not. However the reliabilities for the overall emotional literacy scales were sufficiently reliable for all three checklists. The ELAI authors argue that the decision to provide subscale scores and cut-offs for the teacher and parent checklists, but not for the pupil checklists, was based on these findings.

As the overall emotional literacy scores were considered to be reliable for all three checklists, cut-offs have been provided for each of these. The cut-offs indicate whether the score achieved, be it for a sub-scale or for the overall score are; well above average (band 5), above average (band 4), average (band 3), below average (band 2), and well below average (band 1). Pupils whose scores fall into band 1, according to the ELAI manual (SPS, 2003), are likely to be in need of intervention.

The extent to which the five dimensions (sub-scales) of emotional literacy measured by the checklists were evident in the standardisation data i.e. their validity, was explored in the teacher (and parent) checklists only, as the subscales for the pupil checklist were found to be unreliable. This was done by examining the patterns of correlations between each item in the checklist with the sub-scale and overall emotional literacy score. Pearson Product Moment Correlations between each item in each checklist and the sub scale and overall emotional literacy scores were provided by the ELAI authors. The data provided shows that the majority of items in the subscales were most highly correlated with other items in the same sub scale. The authors claim that this pattern of results provides evidence that the items in the sub scales were measuring the same underlying concept. They also claim that the data indicated that the items were highly correlated with the overall emotional literacy scores. This shows that each of the items within the sub scales also measured some aspect of emotional literacy as one overall construct. These

correlations were then examined via factor analysis. The ELAI manual (SPS, 2003) reports that the patterns and results of both these analyses support the validity of the five dimensions of emotional literacy measured by the checklists. The correlations between the pupil, teacher and parent checklists, based on overall emotional literacy scores indicate they moderately correlate and are statistically significant, with a stronger correlation (0.42) found between the teacher and pupil checklists.

For each participant i.e. both ELL and ENG pupils, a self-report pupil checklist was completed and a teacher checklist. Therefore for each participant an overall pupil emotional literacy score was calculated, along with five sub-scale scores and an overall emotional literacy score from each teacher checklist.

3.17 Additional Data

In addition to collecting language proficiency and ELAI score data, the author requested information regarding each pupils gender, ethnicity, home country, home language, SEN status (i.e. school action, school action plus or statemented) and whether any child had received any previous therapeutic input. The reason for the last variable information was so that any ELL pupils who had experienced emotional trauma, e.g. asylum seeker or refugee pupils, in the past could be identified and removed from the data set. However no ELL pupils were reported by their schools to have received any therapeutic input.

3.18 Phase 2 – Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative techniques employed for collecting data in Phase 2 were the use of focus groups with the pupil participants and semi-structured interviews with the teacher participants. Whilst the responses to the ELAI pupil self-report questionnaire allowed the author to observe trends in the profile of emotional needs for both ELL and ENG pupils, the author wanted to develop a richer picture of these trends. In addition to this the author wanted to not only provide the teachers with an opportunity to reflect on the ELAI findings, but also to elaborate on their experiences of working with ELL pupils. The reasons for using these

techniques have been provided below, along with details regarding their development.

Two focus groups were conducted with both ELL and ENG pupils separately i.e. four in total, with the same schedule and questions used for both groups. Similarly the same interview script was used for each of the four teacher interviews conducted. All qualitative data was audio recorded, and transcribed. Details of the procedures are provided later in this chapter.

3.19 Focus Groups

Robson (2002) believes focus groups can be a highly efficient technique for qualitative data collection as factors such as group dynamics can help to focus discussions towards important topics. The researcher is also able to assess the extent to which there is a consistent and shared view. He also suggests that focus groups are commonly used in conjunction with other methods such as observations, interviews or questionnaires. Their uses include the potential to amplify and develop understanding of findings from a survey. Silverman (2004) states that focus groups can be used as stand-alone qualitative method, or combined with quantitative techniques. Due to their flexibility they can be used within the classroom or laboratory, or in the field, to study the social world, or attempt to change it. From a critical realist perspective, Johnson (1996) argues that focus groups have considerable potential to raise consciousness and empower participants. Bryman (2004) reports that focus groups have become a popular method of qualitative data collection, more so than group interviews. They are useful in examining the ways in which people construe the general topics in which the researcher is interested, in conjunction with one another. The technique allows the researcher to develop an understanding about why people feel, or felt they way they do or did. Kruegar and Casey (2000) feel focus groups should be considered when one is; looking for a range of ideas or feelings, trying to understand differences, and trying to uncover factors that influence differences.

There is considerable support for the effectiveness and use of focus groups in research, as outlined above. However, much of this research has been conducted

with use of participants for whom language skills was not a variable that needed to be taken into consideration. The identification of pupils as ELL was indicative of the potential language barriers they may face when placed in a focus group scenario. For this reason the author felt it would support the understanding and potential contributions of individual ELL pupils to have additional visual prompts and materials. Kruegar and Casey (2000) suggest the use of exercises in sorting, arranging, drawing and similar activities which can give insights into emotions. Colucci (2007) provides suggestions and examples for the use of several activity-oriented questions that can be used in focus groups that are enjoyable and productive supplements to questions. Colucci's (2007) review of literature suggests there to be limited numbers of studies in which focus groups have been used with ethnic-minority groups, but that they have the potential to be precious instruments for cultural and cross-cultural research.

The author felt ELL pupils may be more reluctant to respond as openly or as elaborately in individual interviews and felt focus groups could be useful in eliciting views in a safe and non-threatening environment where they may not be as conscious of the English language proficiency, due to the fact that all the participants in their focus group would have similar attributes. Also in focus groups it is likely that the responses of one participant may probe the thoughts and responses of others, encouraging discourse and narrative.

Silverman (2004) calls this the 'synergising effect' where respondents react to and build upon the responses of other group members. However group dynamics and group effects can also have a negative impact on focus groups as personalities may conflict, or more confident and vocal participants may dominate the discussions. Participants may also be more prone to express culturally expected views than in individual interviews. Therefore the skills of the researcher are key to conducting an effective focus group.

The role of the researcher in quantitative and qualitative approaches is very different. In quantitative methods the researcher remains largely in the background, in qualitative methods however, the researcher plays a much more active role. The role of the researcher in a research focus group or interview is to

moderate or facilitate discussions and requires a balance between an active and a passive role. Due to the active involvement of the researcher in the data collection process, it is likely that their personal biases and position will influence the interpretation of the responses provided, as well unwittingly influencing how the discussion evolves, and the participants themselves. As Fox and Rendall (2002) highlighted, researchers, in particular educational psychologists conducting research need to recognise that their involvement may change the 'story' of their research (p69).

Steps can be taken to reduce threats to internal validity such as enacting procedures or the use of scripts and scripted prompts. The checking of themes with the participants is another technique that can increase the validity of qualitative findings, and reduce bias. Both pupil focus groups and teacher interviews were conducted with the use of scripts and schedules to reduce the chances of changes to wording of questions, and/or ordering of questions impacting on the responses received, and were followed as closely as possible. Due to responses to some questions overlapping with those of later questions, particularly in the teacher interviews, the response one question may have also been noted as part of a response to another question. The findings of the quantitative phase were 'checked out' with the teachers prior to conducting the interviews. In addition to this the author attempted to 'check out' her understanding of the responses provided throughout the focus groups and interviews, clarification or elaboration was sought as and when deemed necessary by the author.

3.20 Focus Group Materials

When developing the script for the focus groups, the author was very aware of the implications of the ELL participants speaking English as a second language and the potential language barriers they may face in a focus group situation. Mainly based on the suggestions and recommendations offered by Kruegar and Casey (2000), the author developed a focus group schedule which comprised of seven key questions, three of which had supplementary questions. The questioning route suggested by Kruegar and Casey (2000) is shown in Table 1.3 (page 120) along with a brief overview of the questions asked by the author. A mixture of open,

closed and scaled questions were used. Questions 3, 4 and 5 were supplemented with the use of visual aids as described in italics in the right hand column.

Questioning Route (as suggested by Kruegar and Casey, 2000)	Main aim/nature of question	Question asked by author in focus group
Opening Questions	To get everyone talking early in discussion. Easy to answer.	1a) Name 1b) What's the best thing about this school?
Introductory Question	Often asks participants to remember.	2) Was this your first school after coming to the UK?
Transition Question	Set stage for key questions.	3) What was it like for you when you first started going to school in the UK? <i>A scale of 0 – 10 with hand gestures of thumbs down (0), sideways thumb (5) and thumbs up (10), was provided.</i>
Key Questions	Drive the study. Typically 2-5. Likely to need probes.	4a) How did you feel when you first started going to school in the UK? <i>A 'feelings fan' with 9 different emotions and accompanying cartoon facial expressions was provided, along with a blank portion on which another emotion could be added pictorially or in written format.</i> 4b) What made you feel like that? <i>Visual prompts of different aspects of school/family life were available as prompts, but were</i>

		<p><i>only used if participants were struggling to answer the question.</i></p> <p>5) What is it like for you at school now?</p> <p><i>0-10 scale from question 3 reintroduced.</i></p> <p>6) In school, was there anything or anyone who helped you, and how?</p>
Ending Questions	Closure to discussion. 'All things considered' question to aid reflection.	<p>7a) If you had the chance to give the school your ideas about how to help all new pupils to feel happy, what would you suggest?</p> <p>7b) If you could tell a new child coming to your school 1 important thing that would help them, what would it be?</p>

Table 1.3 The questioning route used in the pupil focus groups.

The full focus group schedule can be found in Appendix 2. The full schedule also details the researchers comments when welcoming the participants and introducing herself, when discussing their right to withdraw, when discussing group rules (Appendix 3), including a rule regarding confidentiality. The visual aids and prompts developed by the author and used in the focus group have been provided in Appendix 4. The aim of these was to support the understanding of the question and to provide a visual prompt to help guide their response, and be the starting point of a discussion. The focus groups were wrapped up at the end by thanking the participants, asking them if they have any questions for me, if they are still happy to be involved, and ensuring all participants were not showing signs of any distress or discomfort. Further details of the procedure are given below.

3.21 Pilot Study

In order to check the suitability and effectiveness of the questions and visual prompts developed for the focus groups, the author piloted the focus group schedule and visual prompts with 4 ELL pupils from 2 schools (2 in each) that were not involved in this study. Due to practical difficulties it was not possible to carry out the piloting in a focus group scenario, and so the schedule and visual prompts were piloted with individuals. These were not recorded, and their responses did not contribute to the findings of this study. The responses from the pilot participants resulted in minor changes to the wording of the questions, and the decision to only use the visual prompts in question 4b if the participants were struggling to answer the question, as there was the potential of leading the participants. In the focus groups conducted, the author did not use the visual prompts developed for question 4b.

3.22 Semi-structured Interviews

In addition to the use of focus groups with the pupil participants, the author felt it would be beneficial to the aims of this research to speak further with the teacher participants to provide them with the opportunity to clarify and elaborate on the findings from Phase 1. Johnson and Turner (2003) identified a number of advantages of conducting interviews, three of which are central to their use in this research; they are good for measuring attitudes and most other content of interest, they can provide in-depth information, and they can be useful for exploration and confirmation. Robson (2002) explains that face-to-face interviews offer the possibility of modifying one's line of enquiry, following up interesting responses and investigating underlying motives. However Robson (2002) also notes concerns with regards to the reliability of interviews due to the lack of standardisation in the approach used, particularly when not fully structured. Interviews do have the potential to provide rich and highly illuminating material, however biases are difficult to rule out.

Prior to commencing the actual interview, the author took the opportunity to feedback the findings of the descriptive analysis of the ELAI data obtained in

Phase 1. This was done to, firstly find out if the findings were of any surprise to them or not, and secondly to 'check them out' to find out if they felt they were a true reflection of the needs of their ELL pupils, based on their observations and encounters. The feedback sheets provided for the two schools can be found in Appendix 5a and 5b. It was also an opportunity for the schools to begin to reflect on their practice given the information provided by the checklist findings.

Whilst a fully structured interview may have increased the reliability of the responses provided, it would not allow for discussion or elaboration, therefore semi-structured interviews were conducted, with the use of open-ended questions. The questions asked were developed by the author based on the aims of the research. Eight questions were developed, the first question asked the teacher participant to recall their experiences of working with ELL pupils, which would be relatively easy to answer and acted as an 'ice breaker'. The second question aimed to identify their views and attitudes towards emotional well being as a precursor to achieving positive outcomes. Questions 3 and 5 directly ask about their views on the emotional needs of ELL pupils. Questions 4, 6, 7 and 8 focus on the topic of practice in schools when supporting the emotional well being of ELL pupils. The full interview script can be found in Appendix 6. For the reader's convenience the questions asked have been provided below. The order of the questions asked was not altered for any of the four interviews. The wording may have been altered slightly during interviews in an attempt to make the questions as accessible as possible for the interviewee. Supplementary questions may have been asked by the author to prompt further discussion, to seek clarification, or to re-focus the interviewee back to the original question. The questions asked have been provided below:

1. Could you briefly mention the extent of your experience of working with ELL pupils?
2. In your opinion is it important for all pupils to experience emotional well being as part of their school life, and if so why?

3. From your experience, how would you describe the emotional needs of ELL pupils?
4. What aspects of their (ELL pupils) school life would you say have the greatest impact on their ability to achieve emotional wellbeing and why?
5. How would you say the emotional needs of ELL pupils differ from those of fluent English speaking pupils?
6. How do you try to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils in your class?
7. In your opinion, what other aspects of your practice or that of other members of school staff supports the emotional well being of ELL pupils?
8. What more do you think could be done in or for schools to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils?

3.23 Data Analysis Techniques

The data analysis techniques used for each phase match the data collection methods employed. That is, the quantitative data obtained in Phase 1 was analysed using quantitative analysis techniques including descriptive analysis and statistical analysis with the use of the SPSS quantitative statistical software program. Similarly Phase 2 qualitative data was analysed using the qualitative analysis method thematic analysis. Both data analysis techniques have been discussed in more detail below.

3.24 Descriptive and Inferential Analysis of Quantitative Data

Descriptive and inferential analysis was conducted on the raw quantitative data obtained in Phase 1. Key descriptive statistics and the distribution of data sets have been analysed. The statistical package SPSS (version 16.0) was used to conduct statistical analysis. Due to the data gathered not meeting parametric

norms as suggested by Field (2005), non-parametric tests were used. The Mann Whitney test was used to identify if the difference between the scores for ELL pupils and English speaking pupils were significantly different for both the pupil data set and the teacher data set. In addition this, the pupil and teacher scores were correlated to examine their relationship, the degree of their relationship was determined by using the Spearman Rank Correlation Co-efficient test.

3.25 Thematic Analysis of Qualitative Data

The qualitative data obtained from the interviews and focus groups conducted in Phase 2 i.e. the transcripts, were coded, labelled and analysed using thematic analysis as described and outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). They report that whilst thematic analysis is often framed as a realist or experiential method, it has theoretical freedom and can provide a flexible and useful research tool which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data, and which can report experiences, meanings and the reality of participants. Thematic analysis, according to Braun and Clarke (2006) is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) from within a data set, and in their paper they outline a 6-phase guide to performing thematic analysis:

- 1 – Familiarising yourself with your data
 - 2 – Generating initial codes
 - 3 – Searching for themes
 - 4 – Reviewing themes
 - 5 – Defining and naming themes
 - 6 – Producing the report
- (Braun and Clarke, 2006)

These steps were used as a guide to the thematic analysis of the qualitative data collected from the pupil focus groups and teacher interviews conducted in the second phase of data collection. Orthographic transcripts of all focus groups and interviews were made. Non-verbal utterances were recorded when relevant e.g. laughing, smiling etc. The author attempted to use punctuation in way which was 'true' to the original nature of the verbal utterance.

Braun and Clarke (2006) describe two types of thematic analysis, inductive analysis; which attempts to obtain an accurate reflection of the content of the *entire* data set and is data driven, or theoretical analysis; which is a more detailed analysis of some specific areas of the data and is researcher driven i.e. based on a pre-existing coding framework. The data being analysed could be said to be based on a pre-existing coding framework as the questions asked in the focus groups were loosely based on the quantitative findings of Phase 1, which suggested a difference in emotional needs of ELL and ENG pupils. However, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest the inductive approach to analysis is particularly useful when one is investigating an under researched area, as it provides a means of developing a rich overall description of the data. The aim of this research was to explore the needs of ELL pupils, and due to a lack of research within this area, the author felt inductive analysis was more appropriate in this instance. Whilst the qualitative data set could be considered researcher or theoretically driven, the author attempted to analyse it using a data-driven approach so as to ensure the themes identified were strongly linked to the data themselves and provided a reflection of the *entire* data set. Braun and Clarke (2006) comment that the choice between inductive and theoretical analysis should map onto how and why one is gathering and coding the data. The inductive approach to analysis appeared to the author to map better onto the aims and purpose of this research.

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest two 'levels' of thematic analysis, semantic level and latent level. With a semantic approach to analysis themes are identified within the explicit or surface meanings of the data. Latent level of analysis involves delving beneath the surface and examining the underlying assumptions of the data. The author felt semantic level analysis would be the most appropriate level of analysis to adopt in this research. Latent level analysis adopts a more constructionist framework which seeks to theorise the socio-cultural contexts that 'enable' the individual accounts that are provided by the data set. The realist framework attempts to theorise motivations, experience and meaning, and acknowledges the ways in which individuals make meaning of their experiences, and, in turn, the ways broader social contexts impinge on those meanings. Whilst they suggest that there are no hard-and-fast rules, Braun and Clarke (2006)

suggest that approaches that consider meanings across the whole data set, semantic themes and are realist, often cluster together.

3.26 Consent

Informed, voluntary consent was verbally sought by all participants involved in the research. Language support was offered as far as possible to ELL pupils to ensure they understood the purpose of the research and the nature of their involvement. Teacher Participants provided informed verbal consent, and were made aware of their right to withdraw at the start of audio recorded interviews. Due to the involvement of pupil participants it was necessary to gain consent from their parent/carers so that they may be able to exercise their right to withdraw their child if they so wish to. All steps taken with regards to consent and ethical considerations were done so in light of the guidance provided by the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2006).

A letter of informed consent was written in English and distributed to the parents and carers of the relevant year groups in both schools. Before distributing this letter, the class teachers of the year groups went through the letter with their classes and explained the reasons for and nature of their participation. All pupils who did not want to participate were not given a letter to take home, as their participation was voluntary. The letter (see Appendix 7) fully informed the parent/carer of the reason for the research, and the nature of their child's participation. An 'opt out' approach was employed, and so if no response was given it was assumed that they were happy for their child to be involved in the study. If consent was withdrawn at any point then that participant was withdrawn or their data was removed from the data set.

With the use of the 'opt out' approach to consent a key ethical concern arose with regards to parent or carers actually reading the letter of consent. A further concern was the use of written English as a means of communicating with all parent/carers. This was a particular concern for Phase 2 as the focus groups were audio recorded. For this reason further verbal consent from parents was sought via class teachers for the pupils who were selected to take part in Phase 2 of the research

project. This involved a conversation between the parent and their child's class teacher with regards to the research project. If verbal consent was given the parent was asked to sign their initials next to their child's name. Before doing so they were reminded that the focus groups would be audio recorded. If a parent did not consent to their child's involvement, the child was withdrawn, and an alternative pupil would be selected. However, this was not necessary as all parents consented to their child's involvement.

When considering preferred ethical practice in research, the use of an 'opt-in' approach to consent is more desirable as this ensures all participants (and their parents) are fully aware of their participation and give informed consent for this. Whilst measures were taken to try to, as far as possible, reduce the risk of a pupil participant becoming involved in the current research without prior parental knowledge and consent, an opt-in approach would have removed this risk entirely and removed any possible ethical compromise. Due to language barriers acting as an influential factor in the research, it is possible that opt-out consent letters were not received, read or understood by some parents for a variety of reasons which have been discussed further in section 3.28. On reflection it would have been more desirable to have used an opt-in approach for the first phase of the research as well as the second phase. The author recognises that researchers should be aware of the possibility that participants may see them as being in a position of authority, regardless of how much effort is made by the researcher to prevent this perception developing, and that such situations can and should be avoided through the use of an opt in approach to gaining consent. In addition to this, had it been possible, the researcher would have preferred to have been able to communicate with all the parents of the participants and the participants themselves in their home language both verbally and in written format, so as to further ensure fully informed consent.

3.27 Procedures for Data Collection

►Phase 1

Following the recruitment of the two schools, the letter of consent was distributed to all parent/carers a week before the initial data collection began via the pupil

participants. The class teacher was provided with a drafted explanation (developed by the author) of the reasons for and nature of the research, to ensure all participants received the same information. For those children who were likely to experience difficulty in fully understanding their involvement due to language barriers, bilingual staff and bilingual pupils were asked to assist. The content of the letter was explained to the participants, and they were asked to explain this to their parents, should they have difficulty accessing the information provided by the letter.

The author asked the Year 5 and 6 class teachers (one of each in each school) to set aside a 20 minute time slot during a normal school day during which the pupils completed the ELAI. All data collection done at this stage was done within the pupil's normal classroom, under normal circumstances, with the support and guidance of adults they were familiar with. All pupils were reminded of the letter, and asked if they had shared the letter with their parents and if any pupils were unsure of whether their parents had given consent or not. Verbal consent was obtained from pupils whose parents had consented to their participation, and the ELAI was distributed to all pupils. The class teacher had been asked to identify pupils they felt may need additional adult support in completing their ELAI, and language support was provided. This support aimed to help a pupil understand the task, i.e. to try and think about themselves when responding to a statement, understand the statement, and the possible responses they could give.

The class teachers gave verbal consent and were asked to complete a teacher ELAI for each of their pupils, regardless of language proficiency. They were also asked to rate the level of English proficiency for each pupil in their class based on a scale of one to four. A more detailed description has been provided earlier in this chapter.

►Phase 2

The ELAI data was collected in June 2009, and analysed descriptively before the commencement of Phase 2, which took place in January 2010. Due to Phase 1 data being collected towards the end of the academic year, the Year 6 pupils

involved in Phase 1 had left their Primary school and had made their transition to Secondary School, and so could not participate in Phase 2. Therefore, the findings obtained from Phase 2 were provided by the current Year 6 pupils (who were in Year 5 in Phase 1).

When selecting the pupils for Phase 2, the ELL and ENG pupils were categorised according to the rating on the English Language Proficiency scale. For the ENG pupil focus groups class teachers were asked to randomly select six pupils from a list. This was done by the author randomly assigning a number to each pupil on the list, and the teacher then randomly selecting six numbers. If for any reason a pupil could not participate, due to e.g. absence or prior commitments, an alternate pupil was selected using the same procedure. In school 1 six ENG pupils participated, in school 2, seven ENG pupils participated.

For the ELL pupils, it was not possible to randomly select due to the lack of ELL participants available. All available Year 6 ELL pupils from one school (six in total) took part in the focus group. In the second school, whilst there were eight ELL pupils who could participate, two were absent from school on the day of the focus group, and so it was not necessary to randomly select.

Focus groups were conducted in rooms within the participants' schools, but separate to the rest of their class or other pupils or adults. In school 1 the cookery room was used, and school 2 the library was used. The times of day varied for each focus group. Focus groups with ELL and ENG pupils from the same school were conducted on the same day. All focus groups were conducted over two consecutive days, to minimise the risk of additional school events impacting on the responses provided.

The author attempted to follow the focus group schedule as closely as possible. Pupils were asked to write their name on a name badge, verbal consent was re-obtained and the use of the audio recorder was explained. Before commencing with the focus group questions, the author had developed some Group Rules which were discussed and agreed with the group (see Appendix 3). One of these rules referred to confidentiality and respecting other people's privacy. The focus

group was closed by debriefing the pupils to identify any unforeseen harm or discomfort that may have been caused by the focus group participation, and by extending thanks for their participation. If the author felt that a pupil participant had become distressed at any point due to focus group discussions, or if the author felt any pupil may require additional support for any reason, a protocol was agreed with the schools involved. Fox and Rendall (2002) highlight the need for researchers to have thought through how they will deal with distressed or upset participants. The protocol involved, first agreeing with the pupil, that the researcher will approach their teacher with regards to any concerns raised. Following this, next steps will be agreed as to whether the school should make a formal request for educational psychologist input, or if the school should take further steps to support the pupil in question. If a pupil was to become distressed during the focus group, we agreed that the researcher would acknowledge this asking them if they would like to return to their classroom, and if they might like to discuss things that might be upsetting them, following the focus group.

3.28 Ethical Considerations

The author felt there were some key ethical considerations that should be noted at this point. The first is with regards to the heavy reliance on the use of English as a means of communicating with the participants, and their parents/carers, and the use of an 'opt out' method of gaining consent. In addition to this the author would also like to comment on the feeding back of findings obtained to the schools who participated, so that they may be useful in informing future practice.

The British Psychological Society, Code of ethics and conduct (2006) suggests:

'Psychologists should:...endeavour to support the self determination of clients, while at the same time remaining alert to potential limits placed upon self-determination by personal characteristics or by externally imposed circumstances.'
(BPS Code of ethics and conduct, 2006, p13).

In both phases of data collection the method of information sharing was heavily reliant on the use of English. As the aim of this research was to shed light on the

emotional needs of English Language Learners, it was inevitable language would pose a threat to the validity and reliability of the data collected from ELL pupils. Efforts were made by the author to reduce this threat through the use of language support for the ELL pupils, via bilingual staff where possible, bilingual pupils support where possible, language support in English from staff, and visual aids to verbal discussions. Teachers and classroom assistants who knew the children well were asked to consider any barriers a child may encounter when accessing the information being provided. Appropriate measures were taken by means of differentiation as necessary when explaining the project and their role to them, and additional verbal language support for ELL pupils via school staff, who where possible, were bilingual and could communicate the information in a pupils' home language. When this was not possible, if a pupil with the same home language was available, who had understood the information provided, they were asked to support pupils who did not appear to understand by speaking in their home language.

It was hoped that the language support provided to the pupils when explaining the project and their role in it would ensure pupils were clear of the information being provided, and could relay this to their parents when seeking their consent. However, it was not possible to know if all pupils had discussed their involvement with their parents, or if the parents had even seen the letter. On reflection it may have been more appropriate to use an 'opt in' approach, particularly as the use of written English was an added concern. This was discussed in more detail earlier in this chapter. All pupils who participated did so voluntarily, and all were reminded of their right to withdraw before proceeding with data collection. Shortcomings of the 'opt out' approach to consent were overcome for Phase two, as parents were approached individually.

As Phase 2 data was being audio recorded it was vital that full informed consent was sought from parent/carers. This was done via a conversation between the pupil's class teacher and the parents prior to the focus group, after which parents were asked to initial their child's name on a class list to indicate their consent for their child's participation. This not only tried to ensure parents were fully aware of their child's participation and could refuse if they so wished, but also tried to

ensure parents were aware of the nature of their child's participation, had they not read the initial letter. In their focus group discussion around ethics with educational psychologists Fox and Rendall (2002) found that the general consensus was that ensuring informed consent from both parents and children is important, particularly with regards to the nature and the purpose of the research. However, gaining informed consent from all stakeholders can not always be possible. They highlight that little recognition is given to the fact that two parents may have differing views on their child's participation. Whilst the author, recognised Fox and Rendall's (2002) arguments, it was, as they suggested, not possible to gain consent from more than one parent per child for the purpose of the current research.

The author also felt an ethical duty to ensure the findings of the research were passed on to the schools who participated in the research project. Robson (2002) states that research which has been conducted within a Critical Realist framework has been seen as particularly appropriate for research in practice, and value-based professions. For this reason the author decided to arrange a meeting with the relevant members of staff at the schools, to provide them with a debrief and to discuss outcomes of the research and how they may be able to use them to inform future practice and policy. Robson (2002) advocates the 'action research' perspective in which practice informs theory, which in turn helps to improve practice, and describes it a symbiotic relationship. The author's stance is that it is part of the researcher's duty to use the understanding developed to suggest ways in which desirable change might take place, and perhaps monitor the effectiveness of these attempts. Fox and Rendall (2002) argue that educational psychologists, need to ensure their research work is meaningful to the participants and the communities in which they are carried out, doing so the research becomes ethical in this way.

3.29 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was to provide the reader with information regarding the methodological approach employed in the research conducted. The chapter began by discussing the author's theoretical perspective followed by the methodological design used in the research. Detailed accounts of the participant recruitment

processes, the data collection methods and the procedures employed have been provided. How the data collected was analysed has been detailed along with discussions around ethical considerations, including the issue of consent.

The following chapter aims to provide a description of the findings obtained following analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data collected.

Chapter Four: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The methods and techniques of data collection and analysis were described in the previous chapter. The following chapter aims to describe the key findings that emerged from the data following analysis. The chapter has been organised in accordance with the order in which the data was collected. That is, findings from the quantitative data collected in the first phase are presented and summarised, followed by the findings of the qualitative phase.

A description of the participants, the pupil and teacher data sets as part of the whole data set, and the measuring tools used have been provided. Following this analysis of the quantitative pupil data set and teacher data set have been presented separately, providing English Language Learner pupil (ELL) and English speaking pupil (ENG) comparisons throughout. The qualitative data has been presented in a similar way in that, pupil responses and teacher responses have been analysed separately, with ELL and ENG comparisons being made throughout. A brief summary of the data collection procedures for the two phases has been provided at the start.

4.2 Overview of Data Collection and Analysis

4.2.1 Phase 1

Pupils from Years 5 and 6 in two West Midlands based primary schools were asked to participate in the research. One hundred and six pupils participated in the first phase of data collection. All pupil participants were identified as being either English Language Learners (ELL) or fluent English speakers (ENG) based on a four point language proficiency scale. All pupils completed a self report Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention (ELAI), written by Southampton Psychology Service (SPS, 2003). The pupil ELAI can be found in Appendix 1a. In addition to pupil checklists, class teachers were asked to complete teacher checklists for all

pupils involved, which had a similar scoring framework to that of the pupil checklist. The teacher checklist can be found in Appendix 1b.

The scores obtained from the two schools were combined and analysed as a complete pupil data set and a complete teacher data set. No comparisons between the two schools' data sets, or year group data sets were made. The main comparisons made were that of scores obtained from within the pupil and teacher data sets *from* or *for* ELL pupils to scores obtained *from* or *for* ENG pupils.

The ELAI data obtained from pupils and teachers was descriptively analysed. Inferential analysis was conducted with the use of the Mann Whitney test in order to identify if the difference between the pupil ELL scores were significantly different to those of the ENG pupils, and also to identify if the teacher scores for ELL pupils were significantly different to those given ENG pupils. A correlational analysis was also conducted between the pupil and teacher scores for the two groups with the use of Spearman's Rank Correlation Co-efficient test¹. Raw data and SPSS Outputs for Phase 1 can be found in Appendices 8 and 9.

4.2.2 Phase 2

From the Year 5 pupils who were involved in Phase 1, all identified and available ELL pupils and randomly chosen ENG pupils participated in focus groups. Teachers who were involved in Phase 1 were also interviewed using a semi-structured interview technique. Four focus groups were conducted, two with ELL pupils (one in each school), and two with ENG pupils (one in each school). Four teacher interviews were conducted (two from each school).

The pupil focus groups and the teacher interviews were transcribed and thematically analysed by the author, with the use of Braun and Clarke's (2006) framework for thematic analysis. To provide the reader with an indication of how the thematic analysis was completed and what coding frameworks were used, the author has provided photographs for both the pupil and teacher thematic analysis

¹ The data set was analysed for parametricity. The data sets did not meet parametric norms, therefore analysis conducted was completed with the use of non parametric tests (Field, 2005).

process. The photographs show the developed thematic maps, the final maps have been added into this section below. These photographs can be found in Appendices 10 and 11.

4.3 Quantitative Data Analysis

As explained above the quantitative data was collected in Phase one, which involved Year 5 and Year 6 pupils of the two participating schools completing the pupil emotional literacy checklists within the ELAI. In addition to this teacher checklists were completed for each child. Information regarding the sample has been provided below, followed by scoring information, and an analysis of responses provided by the participants.

4.3.1 Sample Information

Responses of 106 pupil participants were collated and analysed. Of the pupils who participated, 43% were female, and 57% were male. Fifteen different languages were recorded as being home languages of the pupils who participated, the three most common of which were (in descending order) Punjabi, English and Urdu, followed by Lithuanian and Kurdish. Thirteen different home countries i.e. the country in which a pupil was born, were recorded for the pupils who participated, the most common of which was United Kingdom (UK). The four most common countries following the UK were Lithuania, Iraq, Afghanistan and Poland, however their frequency was much less than the UK.

The sample population of this study was purposively chosen due to the high percentage of EAL pupils in the schools that participated, so as to obtain as much data as possible in order to conduct statistical analysis and to gain as much insight as possible from ELL pupils. When the sample population of this study is compared to the national statistics (2008, see section 2.4), it is not surprising then, to see that there is considerable difference in the breakdown of ethnicity and languages. When looking at ethnicity, White British are currently reported to make up 83% of the UK population, White-Other make 5%, Indian make up 2% and Pakistani also make up 2%. Of the participants in this research, only 11.3% were

White British. The largest ethnic groups within the sample were Indian (33%) and Pakistani (23.6%). Others included White-Other (9.4%, including Lithuanian, Polish, Bulgarian, Irish and Latvian), Asian-Other (8.5%, including Iraqi, Afghani and Sri Lankan), Black (8.5%, including African and Caribbean), and Mixed-heritage (5.7%). Whilst the figures may appear considerably disparate, the largest ethnic groups nationally, other than English are White-Other, Indian and Pakistani. Within the sample of this study, the largest ethnic groups are the same three groups but in a different order of size. A summary of key profile information of the sample involved in the research has been provided below in Table 1.4.

Profile Data		Frequency within Sample	Percentage of Sample
Gender	Male	60	57
	Female	46	43
Language Proficiency			
	Level 1	2	1.9
	Level 2	6	5.6
	Level 3	23	21.7
	Level 4	75	70.8
Ethnicity	White British	12	11.3
	Indian	35	33
	Pakistani	25	23.6
	Other	34	32.1
Home Language	Punjabi	34	32.1
	English	32	30.2
	Urdu	19	17.9
	Lithuanian	5	4.7
	Kurdish	4	3.8
	Other	12	11.3
Home Country	UK	81	76.5
	Lithuania	5	4.7
	Iraq	5	4.7
	Afghanistan	5	4.7
	Poland	2	1.9
	Other	8	7.5

Table 1.4 Summary table of sample profile data

The languages recorded for the sample are not representative of national data, however the two most common language groups in the sample, other than English; Punjabi and Urdu, are also the two most common across England. Most of the participants were born in the UK (76.5%), however, of these 14.8% were recorded as being ELL pupils. Within this group from UK born ELL pupils, were four ethnic groups, in descending order: Pakistani, White British, Black Caribbean and Indian. All the Pakistani pupils recorded Urdu as their first language, for the remaining groups English was their first language. All but two pupils of this group, (who were of the Pakistani ethnic group, and who were on School Action) had a statement of special educational needs. This was an unusually high number, however the school had a moderate learning difficulty resource base some years previous to the research, and whilst the base no longer existed, the school was still seen to be experienced in supported pupils with SEN. A total of ten pupils (10.6%) in the sample had statements of Special Educational Needs (SEN), all of which were considered to be ELL (proficiency level 3). Of these ten, all were born in the UK. As details with regards to the reasons for statutory assessment were not investigated, it is not possible to know whether the ELL status given to these pupils are linked to their special educational needs or not, however this would appear to be the case as all statemented participants were recorded to be ELL. In addition to this all statemented children were in one of the two schools, and so the teachers' interpretations of what being an ELL means may have influenced their language proficiency scoring. Information regarding the breakdown of the pupil participants has been provided in Table 1.5.

Data set	English Language Learners (ELL) N (% of total)	English Speaking (ENG) N (% of total)	Total N (% of total)
Year 5	15 (24.2)	47 (75.8)	62 (58.5)
Year 6	16 (36.4)	28 (63.6)	44 (41.5)
N Total	31 (29.2)	75 (70.8)	106 (100)

Table 1.5 Breakdown of pupil sample into Year groups and ELL/ENG groups

4.3.2 Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention Measure (ELAI)

The maximum score possible on the pupil checklist was 100, with individual items having the potential to score between 1 and 4 points, depending on the response provided. The lower the ELAI score the less emotionally literate, the higher the ELAI score the more emotionally literate. That is, a lower score may suggest greater emotional needs due to low levels of emotional literacy.

The scoring framework used for the pupil checklist was the same as the one used for the teacher checklist, however the maximum score possible on the teacher checklist was 80. In addition to the overall ELAI score, it was possible to calculate teacher sub scale scores. The maximum score on each of the five teacher subscales was 16. The sub scales were, Self awareness, Self regulation, Motivation, Empathy and Social Skills.

The ELAI (SPS, 2003) provides checklist cut-offs for the score bands for the overall pupil emotional literacy score. For the teacher checklist cut-offs for the overall emotional literacy score, and for the five sub-scales are provided. These have been provided in Tables 1.6 and 1.7.

Score Band	Description	Score Range
1	Well below average	62 or below
2	Below average	63 – 68
3	Average	69 – 81
4	Above average	82 – 87
5	Well above average	88 or above

Table 1.6 Cut-offs for the overall pupil emotional literacy score

These score range descriptions will not be referred to in great detail whilst analysing the ELAI data but have been provided as a guide to the scoring of the ELAI.

Score Band	Description	Score ranges					
		Overall	SA	SR	Motiv	Emp	SS
1	Well below average	≥ 42	≥ 8	≥ 6	≥ 6	≥ 8	≥ 9
2	Below average	43-50	9-10	7-8	7-8	9-10	10-11
3	Average	51-69	11-13	9-14	9-13	11-14	12-14
4	Above average	70-75	14	15	14-15	15	15
5	Well above average	≤ 76	15-16	16	16	16	16

Table 1.7 Cut-offs for overall teacher emotional literacy score and sub scale scores

Key: SA-Self awareness; SR-Self-regulation; Motiv-Motivation; Emp-Empathy; SS-Social Skills; \leq - equal to or less than; \geq - equal to or more than.

4.3.3 Descriptive Analysis of Pupil and Teacher Data Sets

The descriptive statistics of the full ELAI scores obtained from all pupils and teachers were analysed and have been summarised in Table 1.8. Whilst it was possible to analyse the teacher sub scale scores of the ELAI measure, it was not possible to do the same with the pupil sub scale scores,² therefore no comparison can be made. However the teacher sub scale scores have been described later in this section.

Participant Group	Mean Score	Median Score	Standard Deviation	Minimum & Maximum		Range of Scores
PUPIL ELAI Score (N=106)	75.5	75	9.16	55	99	44
TEACHER ELAI Score (N=106)	68.4	71	9.57	40	85	45

Table 1.8 Descriptive analysis of the ELAI overall scores obtained from the complete Pupil and complete Teacher data sets.

² The ELAI manual (2003) declared the sub-scales within the pupil checklists as unreliable statistically. Therefore no scoring key was provided, making it impossible to obtain sub scale pupil scores.

The standard deviations of both the pupil data set and the teacher data set are very similar, and are small in relation to the mean, suggesting the mean represents the data well for both sets.

The mean findings indicate that overall, teachers tended to score pupils as having lower emotional literacy than pupils perceived themselves to have. This suggests teachers perceive pupils to have greater emotional needs than pupils report themselves to have. Both mean scores fall into the 'average' range according to the cut-offs provided by the ELAI manual (SPS, 2003).

Graphical presentations of the Pupil and Teacher data sets have been provided in histograms below in Figures 1.4 and 1.5. Whilst the Pupil Histogram shows the data distribution is similar to the normal distribution curve, it is binomial and has a series of 'spikes' across the distribution. The Teacher Histogram shows that the teacher data is negatively skewed and again appears to have a somewhat 'spiky' distribution.

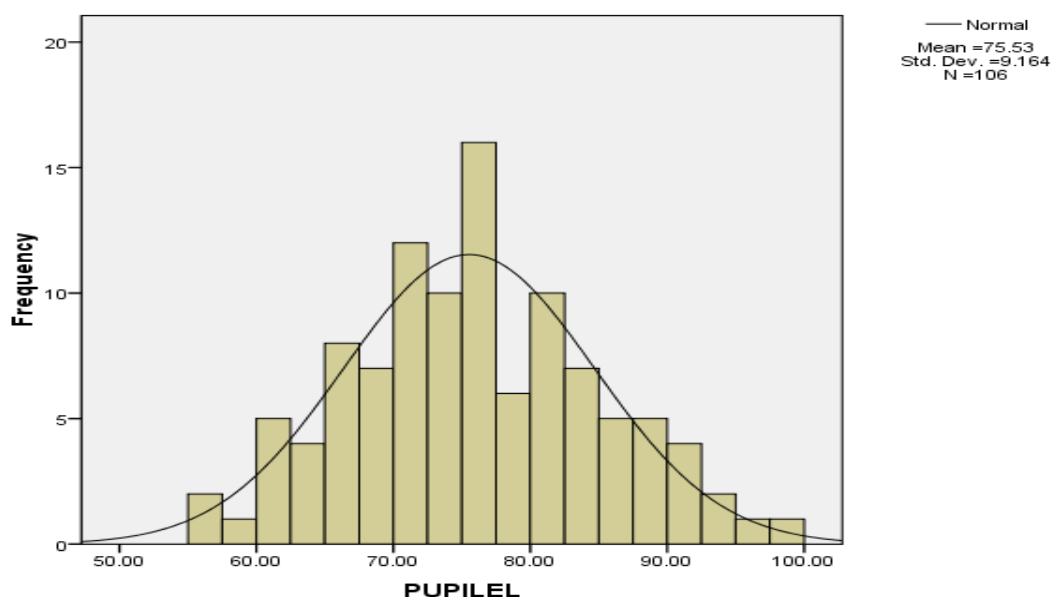


Figure 1.4 Histogram showing the distribution of the Pupil data set

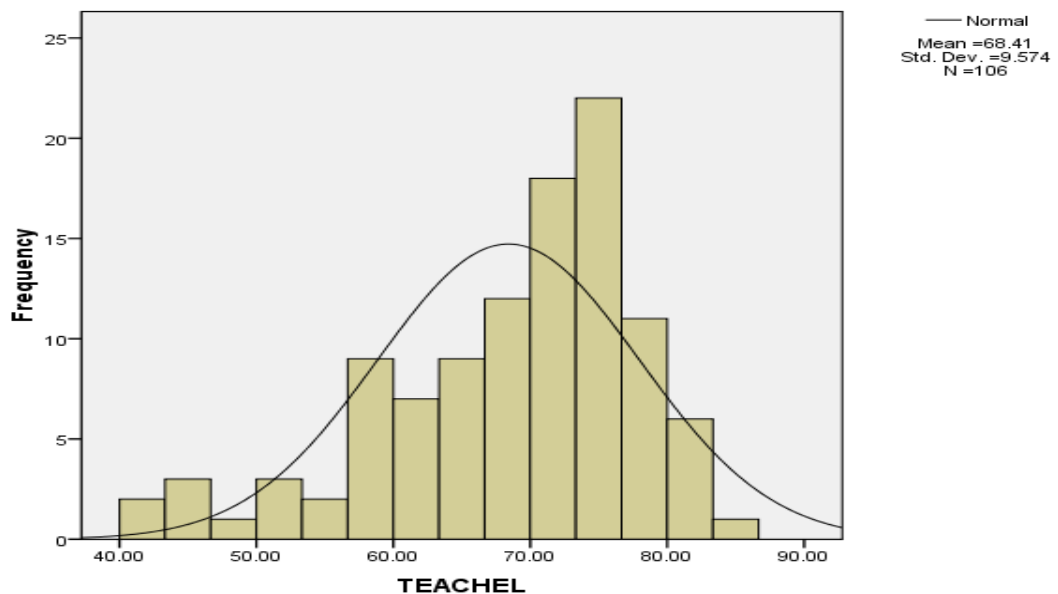


Figure 1.5 Histogram showing the distribution of the Teacher data set

Boxplots were also produced for the two data sets (see Figures 1.6 and 1.7). The median was higher for the pupil data, as were the minimum and maximum scores, however the range within which all the pupil scores fell was smaller than the teacher range by one point. The distribution of teacher scores in the boxplot shows that the range of scores in the bottom 50% of the data set, in particular the bottom quartile, was greater than in the pupil data set. This suggests that the teachers felt there were greater differences and spread in emotional needs amongst those pupils who they identified as having relatively low emotional literacy. The spread of scores in the top half of the teacher data set however, is relatively small. This suggests teachers perceived the emotional needs of pupils who they felt were relatively more emotionally literate, to be more similar.

The pupil boxplot shows that whilst the distribution of data appears to be more evenly spread around the median, the range of scores is greater in the top quartile. This suggests a greater degree of difference and spread amongst self perceptions of emotional need, when pupils perceived themselves to be relatively emotionally literate.

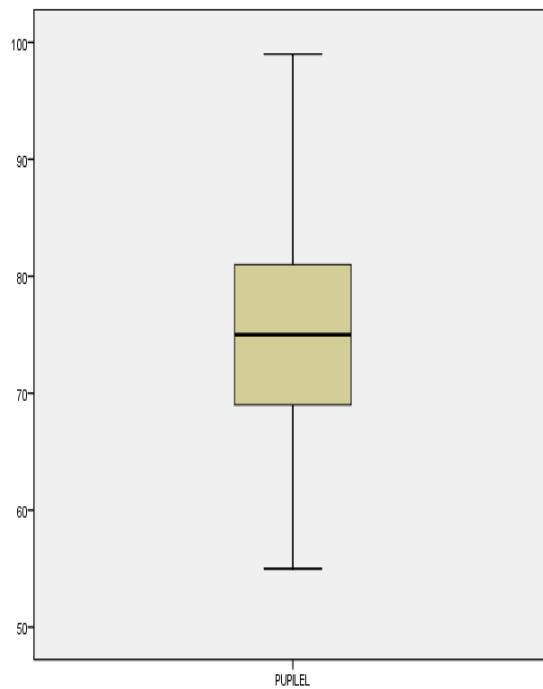


Figure 1.6 Box plot of the total Pupil data set

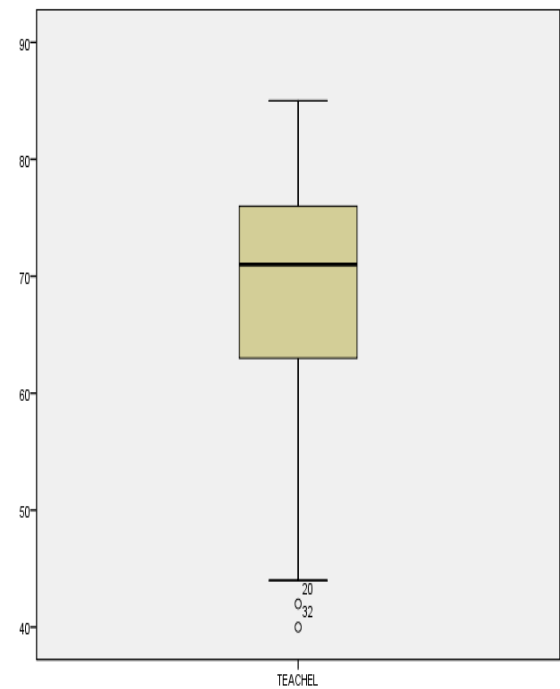


Figure 1.7 Box plot of the total Teacher data set

4.3.4 Analysis of Data Distribution

In order to identify which statistical test to use when carrying out inferential statistics, it was necessary to test for parametricity in the data sets. As suggested by Field (2005), this was done by: analysing the histograms and boxplots provided above; looking for outliers; looking at the kurtosis and skewness of the data sets and calculating z scores; using Levene's test of homogeneity of variance; and using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality on SPSS.

The histograms indicate the pupil data to be binomial and the teacher data to be negatively skewed. The teacher boxplot identifies outliers in the data, and skewed distribution of scores for both data sets.

The skewness value produced by SPSS indicates the pupil data is very slightly positively skewed, and the teacher data is negatively skewed (where a value of 0 indicates skewness of normally distributed data). When these values are converted to z-scores, the deviation from normal skewness of the pupil data is not significant however the teacher z score indicates significant deviation from normal skewness ($p < .05$).

The kurtosis values produced by SPSS for the two data sets indicate the pupil data is slightly platykurtic in comparison to the teacher kurtosis value which is very slightly leptokurtic (where a value of 0 indicates kurtosis of normally distributed data). When these values are converted to z scores they indicate the deviation from normal kurtosis is not significant for either data sets ($p < .05$).

The more powerful Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality, conducted in SPSS, indicated that both sets of data deviated significantly from the norm, i.e. the data for both pupil and teacher data are not normally distributed, where $D(106) = 0.89$, $p < .05$ for the pupil data, and $D(106) = .145$, $p < .05$ for the teacher data set.

The author explored whether removing outliers or extreme cases may result in the data becoming normally distributed, however due to the small sample, particularly of ELL data, and the relatively large number of outliers or extreme scores, removing them would have reduced the sample even further, which would have had implications on the use of inferential statistics. Therefore, no data was removed or changed.

Levene's test of homogeneity provided non-significant results ($p \leq .05$) for both pupil and teacher data, indicating a lack of difference between the variances, and so homogeneity of variance assumption was tenable.

Despite the data having homogeneity of variance, outliers were identified and distribution did not meet parametric norms. For these reasons the ELL/ENG data was analysed using the non-parametric statistical test, Mann Whitney test. In addition to this the Spearman Rank Correlation Co-efficient test was used to analyse the degree and nature of the relationship between teacher and pupil data when correlated.

4.3.5. Descriptive Analysis of ELL and ENG Pupil Data

The main aim of the quantitative data collected was to explore the emotional needs of English Language Learner (ELL) pupils³, and to explore how they may be

³ ELL status identified by class teachers based on a four point language proficiency scale. Emotional needs measured by the ELAI (Southampton Psychology Service (SPS), 2003).

different to those pupils who speak English fluently, (ENG pupils). The self report ELAI data obtained from pupil participants have been analysed and presented below. Throughout the analysis, the findings have been described and comparisons between the two subject groups ELL and ENG have been made.

A summary of key descriptive statistics derived from the pupil data has been provided in Table 1.9. They have been organised according to the two subject groups of ELL and ENG. The descriptive statistics of the complete pupil data set, which were presented earlier, have also been added for comparison purposes.

The mean score obtained from the ELL pupil self report scores was lower than the ENG mean score and the overall pupil mean score, whereas the ENG mean score is above the overall pupil mean score. As the standard deviations for the two groups (ELL and ENG) are relatively small in relation to the mean, the mean can be considered to be a reasonably good representation of the data. The ELL standard deviation suggests the ELL mean score is a slightly better representation of the ELL pupil data set.

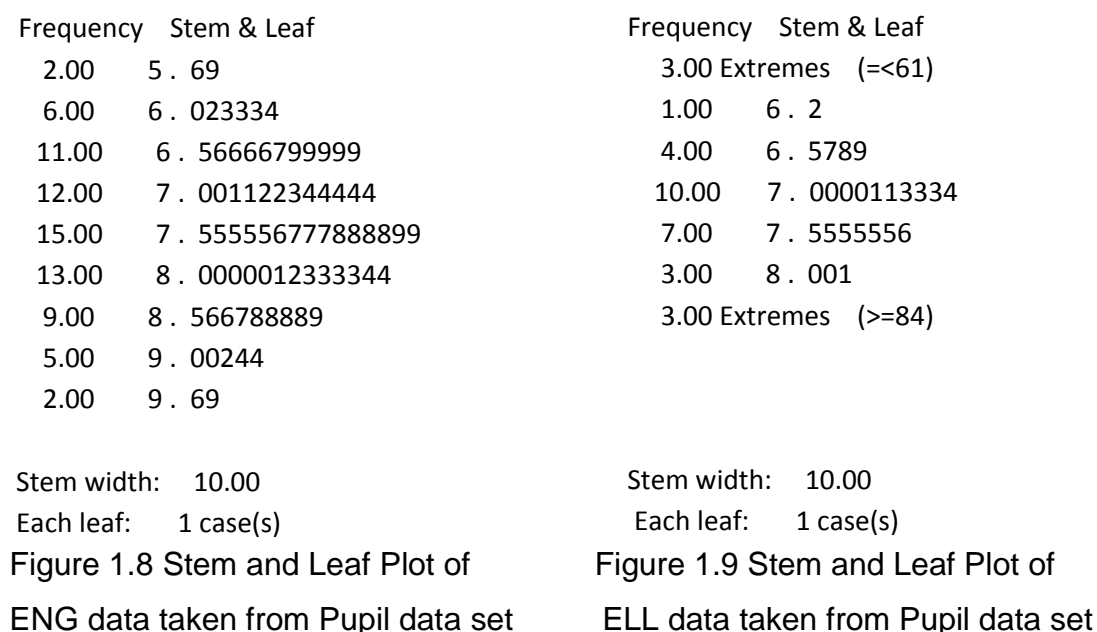
Partcpnt Group	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Min Score	Max Score	Range
ELL	72.6	73	7.7	55	92	37
ENG	76.7	77	9.5	56	99	43
Total Pupils	75.5	75	9.16	55	99	44

Table 1.9 – Key descriptive statistics of the Pupil ELL, ENG and Total data sets

The difference in the mean scores suggests ELL pupils perceive themselves to be less emotionally literate in comparison their ENG counterparts. As suggested in the literature review, lower emotional literacy is likely to contribute to the one's ability to manage and cope with emotional demands placed on them. Therefore, lower emotional literacy is likely to result in the experience of greater emotional need. Means for both groups do fall into the pupil 'average range' according to the ELAI manual cut-off scores (SPS, 2003), however, the ENG pupil mean falls into the top half of the average range (75 to 81), whilst the ELL pupil mean falls into the bottom half of the average range (69 to 75).

The median, minimum and maximum scores, and the range are lower for ELL pupils on all four counts. The minimum ELL score is only one point lower than the equivalent ENG score, however there is a 6 point difference between the maximum ENG and ELL scores. This suggests the ELL pupil responses tended to score within a lower score range compared to ENG pupil responses. When looking at the full pupil data set, the lowest score achieved was amongst the ELL data, and the highest score achieved was from amongst the ENG pupil data.

The pupil data has been presented graphically with the use of Stem and Leaf Plots (Figures 1.8 and 1.9) and Boxplots (Figure 1.10). The Stem and Leaf plots show that whilst both sets of scores appear to be reasonably normally distributed, the range of scores is much greater for the ENG pupils. This may be linked to the greater number of ENG scores being analysed. The greatest number of scores for the ELL pupils fell between 70 and 74. The greatest number of scores for the ENG pupils fell between 75 and 79. Outliers were also present in the ELL data set at both extremes.



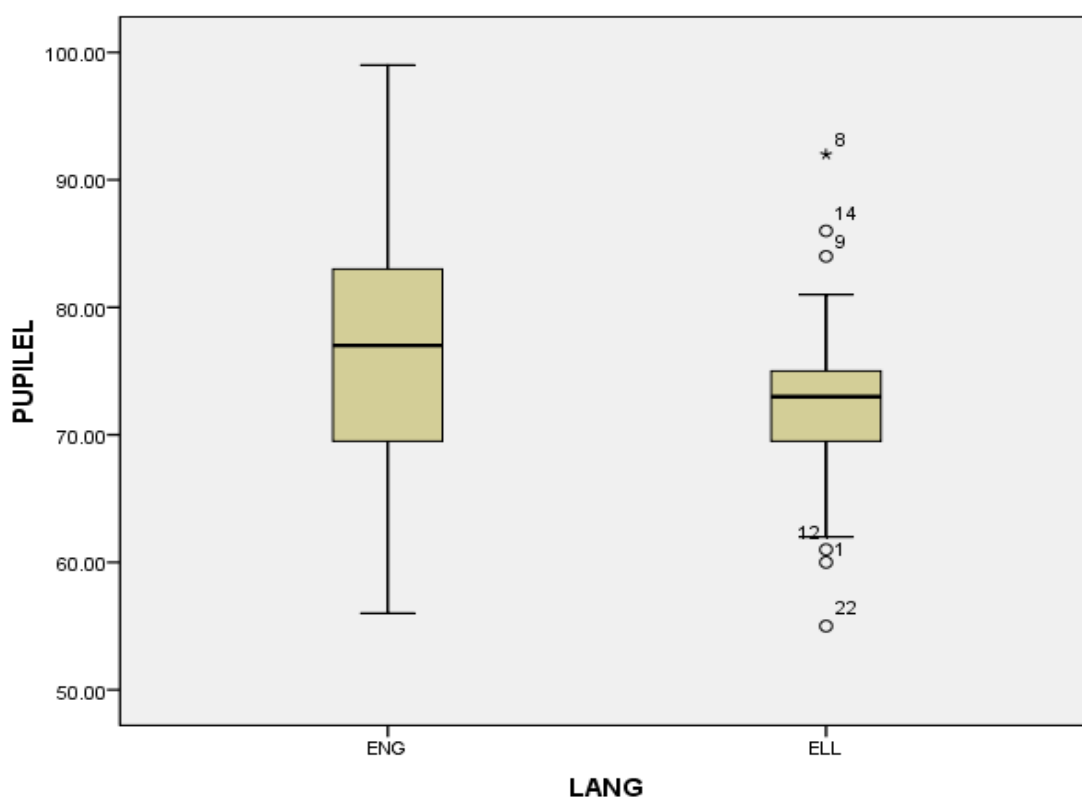


Figure 1.10 Boxplot of ENG and ELL data taken from Pupil data set

The Boxplots provide a clear comparison of the two participant groups. Whilst the minimum and maximum scores may have been relatively similar, the Boxplot and the Stem and Leaf Plots show that the majority of the ELL scores lay between 62 and 81, and that scores above or below these were extreme scores. If these extreme scores were removed from the data set, the range would reduce from 37 to 19. This suggests the emotional needs of ELL pupils, when self reported, tended to be much more similar in nature, than those of ENG pupils, and comparatively lower than ENG pupil scores, however a considerable number of ELL scores were outside of the central spread of data.

4.3.6 Descriptive Analysis of ELL and ENG Teacher Data

A summary of key descriptive statistics derived from the teacher data has been provided in Table 1.10. As with the pupil data, they have been organised according to the two subject groups of ELL and ENG. The descriptive statistics of the complete teacher data set, which were presented earlier, have also been added for comparison purposes.

Partcpnt Group	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Min Score	Max Score	Range
ELL	63.5	64	9.5	42	80	38
ENG	70.4	73	8.9	40	85	45
Total Teacher	68.4	71	9.57	40	85	45

Table 1.10–Key descriptive statistics of the Teacher ELL, ENG and Total data sets

The mean score derived from the teacher responses on the ELAI's completed for ELL pupils was just less than 7 points lower than the ENG mean score, and just less than 5 points lower than the mean score for the entire teacher data set. This suggests teachers perceive ELL pupils to be less emotionally literate and are more likely to experience greater emotional needs than their English speaking counterparts. As the standard deviations are low in relation to the mean scores, and are reasonably similar, the mean scores can be considered as good representations of their data sets. According to the ELAI cut-off scores (SPS, 2003) the ENG teacher mean score falls into the 'above average' range (70-75). However, the ELL teacher mean falls within the 'average' range (51-69), as does the mean score for the entire teacher data set.

Despite the difference in the mean scores across the groups, the minimum score is lower for ENG data, and the maximum is higher, resulting in the ENG score range being wider than the ELL score range. This suggests teachers feel the emotional needs of ENG pupils are more different and more spread than those of ELL pupils.

In addition to the data provided above, Stem and Leaf Plots and Boxplots for the ELL and ENG teacher data have been provided below to analyse the distribution of data within the two subject groups (Figures 1.11 and 1.12, and 1.13).

Frequency Stem & Leaf

5.00 Extremes (= < 52)
 4.00 5 . 7889
 6.00 6 . 233344
 12.00 6 . 556777788899
 16.00 7 . 0111222233333344
 26.00 7 . 555555666666666677788888899
 5.00 8 . 00000
 1.00 8 . 5
 Stem width: 10.00
 Each leaf: 1 case(s)

Figure 1.11 Stem and Leaf Plot for
 ENG data taken from Teacher data set

Frequency Stem & Leaf

1.00 4 . 2
 2.00 4 . 68
 1.00 5 . 0
 7.00 5 . 5577788
 5.00 6 . 02344
 5.00 6 . 56789
 8.00 7 . 11234444
 1.00 7 . 5
 1.00 8 . 0
 Stem width: 10.00
 Each leaf: 1 case(s)

Figure 1.12 Stem and Leaf Plot for
 ELL data taken from Teacher data set

The Stem and Leaf Plots highlight the differences in the distribution of scores within the two data sets. The ENG data appears to be more normally distributed than the ELL data. The majority of ENG scores fell between 75 and 79, with a drastic reduction in frequency from 80 onwards. In addition to this the Teacher ENG data has five extreme scores that fall within the lower range of 40-52. If these extreme scores were removed the range of ENG scores would change from 45 to 28, with the minimum score being 57 and the maximum being 85. That is, if the ENG extreme scores were removed, the ENG range would be reduced dramatically, suggesting that apart from the extreme ELL cases identified by the teachers, they felt the majority of pupils had fairly similar needs.

The ELL data is binomial, with scores between 71-74, and 51-58 having the highest frequency. The ELL data is more evenly distributed around the median. There is a 9 point difference between the medians of the two groups, with a greater spread of scores within the bottom 50% of both sets of data.

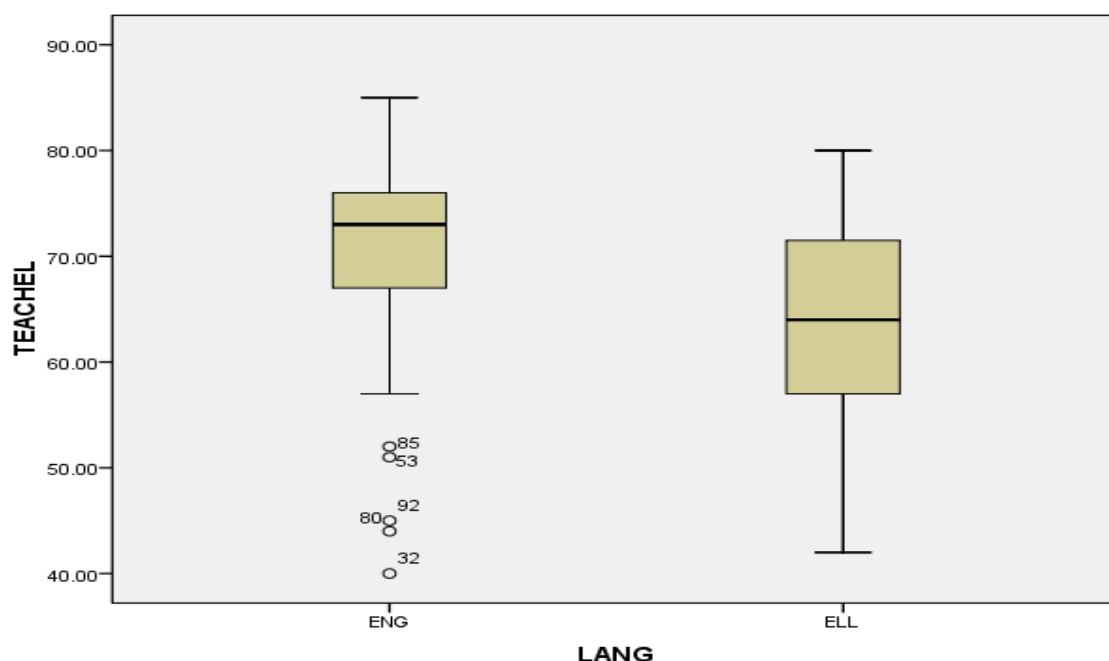


Figure 1.13 Boxplot of ENG and ELL data taken from Teacher data set

The graphs suggest teachers perceived the emotional needs of ENG pupils to be reasonably similar, apart from five individual participants who they identified as having greater emotional needs. In contrast, teachers perceived ELL pupils' emotional needs to be more varied and spread, with no extreme cases identified. Overall, teachers perceived ELL pupils as having greater emotional needs.

4.3.7 Teacher Sub-scale Data Analysis

The 'overall' emotional literacy teacher score could be divided into five sub-scale scores, as explained earlier in this chapter. The five sub scales were; self awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. As the overall ELAI score obtained from the pupil data set could not be divided into the five sub scales, due to unreliability of these scores as stated by the ELAI manual (SPS, 2003), no comparison of sub scale scores could be made. However the ELL and ENG data obtained from the Teacher data set could be analysed. Key descriptive statistics of these have been provided in Table 1.10. A bar chart of the mean scores has also been provided (Figure 1.14).

The mean teacher scores for ELL pupils were lower than the ENG mean scores on all five sub scales, indicating teacher's perceived ELL to have lower emotional

literacy and greater emotional needs overall. Self awareness and motivation scores produced the lowest mean score for ELL pupils. The lowest mean score for ENG pupils was for the motivation sub scale. All mean scores for both groups fell within the average range, or just above the average range, according to the ELAI's (SPS, 2003) cut off points presented in Table 1.7 (page 141).

Sub Scale	Mean		Median		Minimum		Maximum	
	ELL	ENG	ELL	ENG	ELL	ENG	ELL	ENG
SA	11.8	13.4	12	13	9	16	9	16
SR	12.9	14.1	13	15	5	7	16	16
Mot	12.0	13.2	12	13	8	6	16	16
Emp	13.4	14.6	15	16	8	8	16	16
SS	13.4	14.7	14	15	9	9	16	16

Table 1.11 Key descriptive statistics of Teacher sub scale scores for ELL and ENG

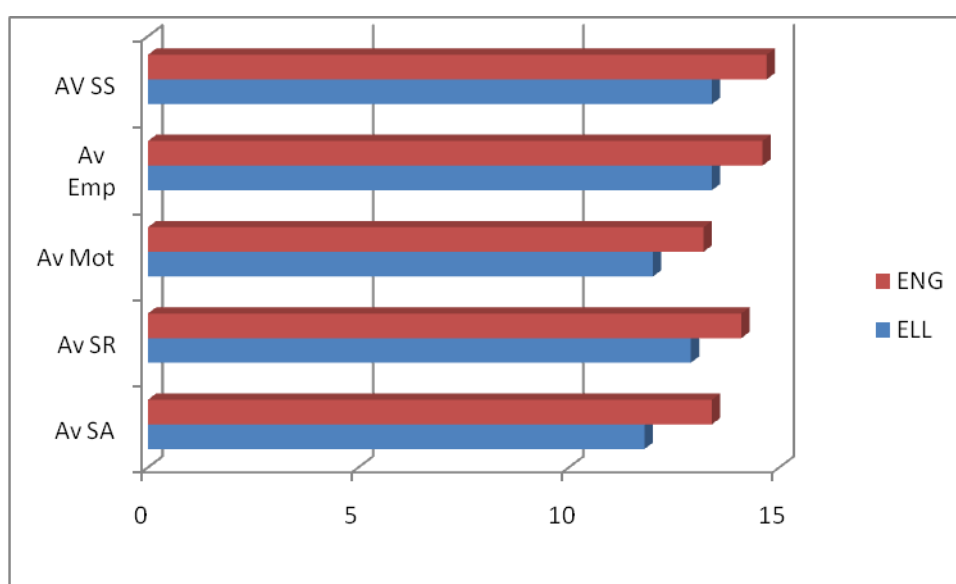


Figure 1.14 Bar chart of ELL and ENG mean scores for the ELAI sub scales
Key: Av-average, SA-Self awareness; SR-Self-regulation; Mot-Motivation; Emp-Empathy; SS-Social Skills.

The largest difference between the ELL and ENG mean scores was for the self-awareness sub scale. All other differences were 1.2 or 1.3 point difference. Whilst there were differences in mean scores across the scales, even the largest difference (1.6 points) was a small one. This suggests that the teachers could not

identify one particular construct from amongst those measured by the ELAI, that they felt was more distinctively associated with either the ELL or the ENG group.

4.3.8 Comparison of Pupil and Teacher Findings

The mean scores obtained from both pupil and teacher data sets, for the ELL pupils, were lower than the ENG mean scores. This suggests ELL pupils perceive themselves to be less emotionally literate, and have greater emotional need than ENG pupils perceive themselves to have. Their class teachers also perceived ELL pupils to have greater emotional needs, in comparison to their English speaking counterparts. In support of this finding, the ELL mean scores are lower than the overall mean scores for the pupil and teacher data sets, whilst the ENG pupil means are higher.

The median, minimum and maximum scores, and the range were also lower for ELL pupils on all four counts for both sets of data, suggesting the ELL scores tended to be within a lower score range compared to ENG data. In addition to this the difference in the median scores for ELL and ENG pupils in the teacher data set is 9 points, compared to the 4 point difference in the pupil median scores. This suggests that teachers perceive there to be a greater difference in the emotional needs of ELL and ENG pupils than the pupils themselves report there to be. The same could be said about the mean scores.

When looking at the distribution of data, the pupil scores indicate ENG pupils have greater difference and spread in their scores, whereas teacher scores indicate they feel the emotional needs of ELL pupils are more different and spread.

Pupil data suggests ELL pupils report their needs to be more similar and less spread overall, with a small number of individuals whose scores suggest they have greater emotional needs in comparison to the majority of their group. Teacher data suggests however, that they perceive ENG pupils to have more similar emotional needs, with a small number of individuals who they have identified as having greater emotional needs than the majority of their group.

4.3.9 Inferential Analysis of ELL and ENG Data Sets

In order to identify if the difference between the scores given by ELL pupils or for them by their teachers were significantly different to those given by ENG pupils or for them by their teachers, the Mann Whitney test was conducted. The full SPSS output can be found in Appendix 9. The analysis indicated that the difference was **significant** for both pupil data ($U(Z = -2.062) = 866$ ($p < .05$)) and teacher data ($U(Z = -3.724) = 627$ ($p < .001$)). That is, the scores given by or for ELL pupils were significantly lower than the scores given by or for ENG pupils.

4.3.10 Analysis of the Relationship Between Pupil and Teacher Data

In order to investigate if there was a relationship between teacher and pupil findings, and the nature and strength of the relationship, the pupil and teacher data sets were correlated using SPSS. Due to the data violating parametric assumptions the non-parametric statistic, Spearman Rank Correlation Co-efficient was used for this analysis. The SPSS output generated for this analysis can be found in Appendix 12.

Correlations help to describe a relationship between variables, but they do not allow one to infer causation. The nature and strength of a correlation is expressed statistically as a 'co-efficient' (Humphrey, 2009). When the data was analysed using Spearman Rank Correlation Co-efficient, a significant result, at the $< .01$ level of significance was generated ($r = .25$, $p < .01$). The correlation itself was positive. According to Field (2005), the effect size of this correlation is between a small and medium sized effect, with a small effect giving $r = .10$ and a medium effect giving $r = .30$.

This analysis suggests there was a positive relationship between the teacher and pupil data. That is as one score increased e.g. pupil score, so too did the other e.g. teacher score. Whilst the correlation is significant, the relationship is relatively weak. This suggests that the way in which teachers scored pupils was somewhat similar to the way the pupils scored themselves, but that the similarities were weak.

4.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

Two focus groups with ELL pupils and two focus groups with ENG pupils were conducted with Year 6 pupils, in addition to semi-structured interviews with a Year 5 and two Year 6 class teachers and a SENCo whose classes were involved in Phase 1. The Year 6 pupils who took part in the focus groups, were in Year 5 when they participated in Phase 1. One ELL and one ENG focus group was conducted in each of the two participating schools. All qualitative data was collected at the participating schools. Due to the small numbers of ELL pupils available to take part in focus groups, all were requested to participate and so no selection process was employed. ENG pupils were selected by their class teachers by allocating numbers to pupil lists and selecting numbers at random.

In ELL focus group 1 (ELL FG1), seven pupils participated, three girls and four boys. In ELL focus group 2 (ELL FG2), six pupils participated, four boys and two girls. In the ENG focus group 1 (ENG FG1), six pupils participated, three girls and three boys. Seven pupils participated in ENG focus group 2 (ENG FG2), four girls and three boys. All pupils were in Year 6 in their respective schools.

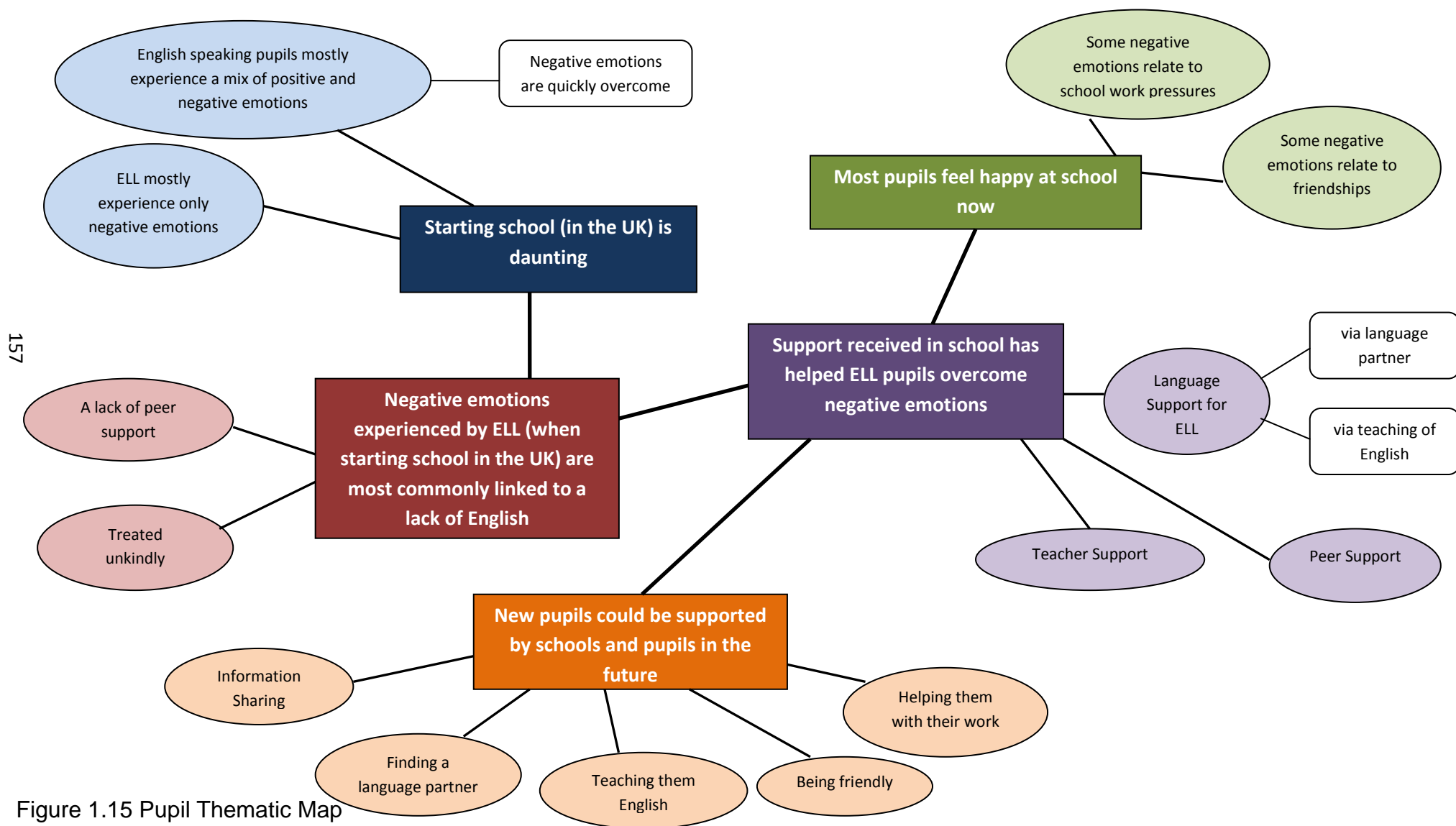
4.4.1 Pupil Qualitative Data Analysis

The pupil focus groups were orthographically transcribed. The transcripts were analysed with the use of Braun and Clarke's (2006) framework for Thematic Analysis. Key themes, and sub themes from both ELL and ENG focus groups were identified and a thematic map was drawn to illustrate these. The pupil thematic map has been presented in Figure 1.15 (page 157). Each of the key themes, and the sub themes within it have been described and analysed. Quotes and extracts from relevant focus groups have been used as a means of providing evidence of the analyses made and to convince the reader of their merit.

When interpreting the data the author was aware of the need to ensure the approach taken when analysing, was consistent with the theoretical approach underpinning the research. Critical Realism, argues that social phenomena are produced by mechanisms which are discernable through their effects (Bryman,

2004). For a critical realist, the task of research is to construct hypotheses about these mechanisms and seek out their effects, with the prospect of introducing change. Braun and Clarke (2006) believe thematic analysis can be considered as a 'contextualist' method, characterised by theories such as critical realism, which acknowledge the ways individuals make meaning of their experience, and, in turn, the ways broader social context impinges on those meanings, whilst retaining focus on the material and other limits of 'reality'. They argue thematic analysis can be a method that works both to reflect reality and to unravel the surface of reality.

With this in mind the author attempted to analyse the qualitative data obtained to develop a deeper understanding of the experiences of participants involved and the mechanisms that may be affecting their experiences. The author would like readers to note however, that critical realists do recognise there to be a distinction between the focus of the enquiries conducted, in this case the emotional needs and experiences of ELL pupils, and the words used by the author to describe, account for and understand them. The author attempted to check out her understanding of the accounts provided by the participants in order to reduce the chances of misunderstanding and misinterpretation, and increase the internal validity of the analyses completed, however the risk is ever present when conducting research of this nature.



4.4.2 Thematic Analysis of Pupil Responses

Unlike the quantitative pupil data analysis, the qualitative pupil data was not separated for ELL and ENG pupils. Instead all pupil data was analysed for initial codes, and were then organised into key themes to provide an overall pupil thematic map. All key themes apart from one were identified for both ELL and ENG participant groups, however sub themes may indicate differences in opinion and/or experiences between the groups. The only theme that appeared to be key for only the ELL group referred to the negative emotional experiences at school. Each of the key themes have been discussed below, and have been substantiated with the use of excerpts from the focus group transcripts. In some of the excerpts the pupils may refer to the ten point scale used as a visual prompt to questions 3 and 5. On this scale a pupil may place their experiences on the scale, where 0 represented a time when going to school was very hard for them, 5 indicated school was OK, and 10 indicated school was very easy.

Key Theme: Starting school is daunting

Regardless of their English language proficiency most pupils described their first experience of school as being one of uncertainty and apprehension. However when explored further ENG pupils tended to describe their emotional experience as a combination of positive and negative emotions, whilst ELL pupils tended to use only negative emotions to describe their experiences.

“I felt excited and scared” (Pupil E, ENG FG2)

“First I was happy, but then my mum went and I was upset and frustrated and I was confused as well.” (Pupil N, ENG FG1)

“Sad and upset” (Pupil G, ELL FG1)

“Miss I felt upset and worried” (Pupil A, ELL FG2)

“Very hard, because when I first came to Year 3 I was crying.”

(Pupil F, ELL FG1)

A variety of negative emotions were described by ELL pupils including feeling; worried, frightened, scared, confused, upset, sad, angry, frustrated, shocked and shy. Of these scared, worried and confused were also used by three ENG pupils, without the accompaniment of a positive emotion.

When describing their negative emotional experiences ENG pupils tended to follow on by explaining that these experiences were soon overcome.

“First I was scared and nervous, but like, after couple hours I was OK.”

(Pupil E, ENG FG2)

“I was nervous, but a few days after it was OK coz the teachers were really nice.” (Pupil Sh, ENG FG2)

“After about a week I was happy and excited...”

(Pupil K, ENG FG1)

“At the start, and on the first day when I got there I saw some friends from nursery and I was happy.” (Pupil Jo ENG FG1)

This theme suggests that the experiences of starting school are very different for ELL pupils in comparison to ENG, that these differences result in ELL pupils experiencing more negative emotions, and that these emotions may not be as quickly overcome as for ENG pupils. This may suggest that ELL pupils have different emotional needs to ENG, with a possibility of them being in need of greater emotional support for longer periods of time. This is assuming both ENG and ELL pupils have not experienced any previous trauma which is likely to negatively impact on their emotional well being at school, and that they have a secure home and family situation which meets their basic needs as suggested by Maslow (1970, cited in Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, Bem and Nolen-Hoeksema, 2000). No concerns with regards to the home circumstances were raised by class teachers for any of the pupils involved.

It is likely that the circumstances in which ELL pupils find themselves at the time of starting school are difficult as they may have migrated to the UK shortly prior to starting school, and that these circumstances are likely to have had a negative impact on their emotional experiences. Starting school in the UK would be an additional transition for them to cope with, and as seen in the next key theme, their lack of English is likely to be a contributing factor to their ability to cope.

Key Theme – Negative emotions experienced by ELL are most commonly linked to a lack of English

When ELL pupils were asked to reflect on what aspects of their school life may have resulted in them having negative emotional experiences, the majority of responses were in some way linked to their English language skills. (NB Res is the Researcher).

“Res: ...Pupil B how did you feel?

Pupil B: Sad, and um...upset”

Res: ...what made you feel like that?

Pupil B:...No one’s was helping me, no one’s was playing with me, and no one’s was talking to me.

Res: OK, why do you think that was....

Pupil B: Because we was different.

Res: How were you different?

Pupil B: Language.

(Pupil B, ELL FG1)

“Miss {I was} at 4 {on 10 point scale}....Miss because when I came in here I was a bit shy and I didn’t know English that much.” (Pupil H, ELL FG2).

“When you come to start to school, people laugh at you. People laugh at you, and say he don’t know English.” (Pupil F, ELL FG1)

“Miss you know when I went to my first school. Coz I didn’t know English, and it was my first time being away from my parents, I was really like crying and stuff...Every time I was like feeling really lonely...”

“Um, it was hard because, um, our language was different, and our writing. Um, I couldn’t read the writing in here.”

(Pupil M, ELL FG2).

“Pupil V: Miss when I first came in the school, everyone was staring at me just like that.

Res: Right, OK, did you know anyone?

Pupil V: Miss no, and because I didn’t know English it was hard.”

...Res: {How did you feel when you started going to school?}

Pupil V: Confused and worried...Miss I didn’t know English.”

(Pupil V, ELL FG2)

Some pupils even mentioned how having some English language skills helped relieve negative experiences, or in one case, remove them.

“Miss when I came to that school I feeled happy because I know a little bit English...” (Pupil O, ELL FG2)

“Um, it was quite easy because....we had the same letters in Lithuania.”

(Pupil G, ELL FG1)

Whilst a lack of English was perceived by the pupils as being the most common attribute to negative emotional experiences, ELL pupils also discussed two other aspects of their school life that lead to them experiencing negative emotional experiences. These were; a lack of peer support, for example, with class work or in a social context, and being treated unkindly.

“{I felt} Upset...Miss, when like people calling me names.”

(Pupil M, ELL FG2)

“Coz when I started St. *****, it was really hard Miss, the children they weren’t kind”

“When I went to St. *****, when I was walking lonely, people pushed me.”

“A little bit lonely Miss, coz {pupil’s name} called me names.”

(Pupil S, ELL FG2)

“Sad and upset....Um, because I didn’t have any friends and no one would help me.” (Pupil G, ELL FG1)

“...when Pupil S came they were laughing at him.” (Pupil F, ELL FG1)

“No one’s was helping me, no one’s was playing with me, and no one’s was talking to me.” (Pupil B, ELL FG1)

“People bullying me, laughing at me, some people say go to the back you pushed in.” (Pupil F, ELL FG1)

When analysing where pupils placed their experiences on the ten point scale, all but one ENG pupil felt scale points 7 and above (on a 10 point scale) represented their experiences of starting school. Of the twelve ELL pupils who participated, four chose scale points 7 or above as representative of their experiences, with eight pupils selecting scale point 4 or below.

It is difficult from this data to be sure of why ELL pupils talk about their experiences in this particular way. As discussed in the previous theme, the author feels that their experiences of starting school in the UK are likely to be closely linked to, if not fully associated with their migration to the UK. Depending on an individual child’s circumstances under which they migrated to the UK, it is likely that the changes to their lives were significant, and thus had a significant, albeit temporary, impact on their emotional well being. Their limited English appears to have been the main contributing factor to impact their emotional well being at school during this time of transition, and for this reason they associate their negative emotional experiences when starting school with their lack of English, in addition to their interactions with their peers, but to a lesser extent.

This theme implies that ELL pupils emotional well being is closely linked to their ELL status, and that this information could be used to inform the approach taken by UK schools to support ELL pupils when they begin attending school in the UK.

Key Theme: Most pupils feel happy at school now

When pupils were asked to reflect on their feelings around school *now*, in comparison to how they felt when they started school, most pupils, that is both ELL and ENG, said they associated a range of positive emotions with school, the most popular descriptions including happy and excited. On the scale of 0-10, all but five pupils (out of twenty five) had moved up the scale to 9 or 10. Of those five pupils, three had moved up to scale to point five or above (point five represented school as being OK), two had moved down the scale, one of which was an ENG pupil (Pupil Jo, ENG FG 1) who dropped from point 8 to 7 because he felt that there was more work in Year 6 and it was less fun (understandably!). Unfortunately reasons for why the other pupil (Pupil O, ELL FG 2) dropped were unclear. When the author asked him how school was for him now he responded by saying OK, however it was not clarified at the time as to whether he was referring to point 5 on the scale or not.

“10 Miss, I feel happy and excited”. (Pupil A, ELL FG2)

“Miss is there a number 11?” (Pupil M, ELL FG2)

“I’m still excited to find out what we are doing in the class, coz sometimes it’s fun.” (Pupil C, ENG FG2)

A small proportion of the pupils, identified two school factors which still result in them experiencing negative emotions, these were in relation to friendships, and school work pressures and demands.

“Res: Where would you put yourself on the scale now?

...Pupil Sa: 5 {previously 4}...but I still have complications with friends stuff.

...Res: What are your feelings around school now?

...Pupil Sa: Worried and upset...

(Pupil Sa, ENG FG2)

“Between 5 and 6...A little but lonely Miss, coz ***** calls me names.”

(Pupil S, ELL FG2)

“8...Because when I first came here it was fun, but now it's not as much fun...Because we have too much work.” (Pupil Jo, ENG FG1)

“I feel excited and happy Miss. I'm a bit scared coz of the SATs.”

(Pupil M, ELL FG2)

This key theme and its sub themes suggest a degree of overlap between the experiences of ELL and ENG pupils, following a period of time of co-attendance at school. Having spent a significant length of time in their school, ELL pupil's negative emotions previously associated with attending school had appeared to have been overcome. As a result, negative emotional experiences were no longer associated with their English language skills, presumably because their language proficiency had improved since starting school. Instead, ELL pupil's negative emotional experiences had more in common with ENG pupils as the previously key dividing factor, their ELL status, had become much less encroaching, and less of a constraint on their ability to be included and to interact with their peers.

The implications of this theme are that ELL pupils are able to overcome their negative emotional experiences at school. How they do so is not discussed in this research, however it is likely to be a combination of personal and individual coping strategies such as emotional literacy and resilience, the school environment within which they find themselves and the people who are available to support them in that environment, i.e. their schools, teachers, peers (and families indirectly). That is, support received in school is likely to have contributed to reducing the negative impact of their ELL status on their emotional well being. What conditions are likely to have given rise to this are discussed in the next theme.

Key Theme – Support received in school has helped pupils to overcome negative emotions.

When asked who or what helped them to feel happier at school, pupil responses suggested three main sources of support; teachers, peers, and language support. Both ENG and ELL pupils identified their teachers and their friends as sources of support. For ELL pupils there some overlap when referring to the support they had received from teachers. For the majority of ELL pupils the support received from teachers was predominantly associated with their progress in English i.e. language support, however for two ELL pupils, teachers also supported them in developing non-academic skills. For this reason language support was considered a sub-theme which was separate to teacher support, however the language support provided by teachers has been recognised and a secondary sub theme.

Both ENG and ELL pupils identified their friends as key sources of support.

“Pupil K {helped me}, because since nursery I have gone higher and higher because she has told me that everything is going to be fine as long as I’m there I’ll be your best friend.” (Pupil N, ENG FG1)

“Miss my best friends in my classes, and the other one’s like {pupil names}”. (Pupil M, ELL FG2)

“Miss when I came to that school I feeled happy because I know a little English and I know Pupil H come and {pupil’s name} come and they help me with my English.” (Pupil O, ELL FG2)

Both ENG and ELL pupils identified teachers as a key source of support.

“My teachers as well, like I learn new things from them and so I had the confidence, like I have learnt a lot of things.” (Pupil K, ENG FG1)

“Miss when I came here yeah, I started crying, and the teachers started helping me and that...”

...Yeah, my teacher {helped}, and some teachers were actually really nice...” (Pupil A, ENG FG1)

“Miss, Mr. *****,....helped me to sing...I feel happy when I sing.”
(Pupil S, ELL FG2)

“Miss, Mr. ***** too because I didn’t know how to play badminton, then he showed me how to play badminton, and now I won the badminton.”
(Pupil H, ELL FG2)

The majority of ELL however identified the language support as a key factor that relived the experience of negative emotion.

“Pupil G: People like you more. Like, you have more friends.
Res: OK, and what helped you to have more friends?
Pupil G: Um, your English. You can speak their language and you can contribute. (Pupil G, ELL FG1)

“Miss, my language...it helped me to do better....{and feel} happy.”
(Pupil V, ELL FG2)

ELL pupils made a distinction between language support offered by teachers as a key source of support and language support from peers who spoke the same language as them i.e. language partners.

“Miss, Mrs. *****, because she helped me with my English and with reading. (Pupil O, ELL FG2)

“Miss I’m thankful from the teachers for helping me with my English.”
(Pupil M, ELL FG2)

“I learnt English and the teachers helped me. They was helping me, how to write something and how to spell it....{I felt} happy.” (Pupil B, ELL FG1)

“Miss, because when I came here I was a bit shy and I didn’t know English that much. So when I got a bit better, {pupil name}, which is in my class, he knew a little bit my language so he could have talked with me, and then I got better my English, wasn’t that much good though, but I still did good as I could in my works, and now my English has gone better.”

(Pupil H, ELL FG2)

“It was easy for me because in my school I had one boy who speak in Polish and then he was helping me.” (Pupil O, ELL FG2)

“Miss I didn’t know English, and Pupil A, he is the same country as me, and he helped me.” (Pupil V, ELL FG2)

This theme highlights the avenues through which pupils, regardless of language proficiency, have found support and assistance helpful. It is not surprising that pupils identified their teachers and their friends as key sources of support. It is also not surprising that ELL pupils identified language support as a main aspect of their school life that has helped them make positive progress at school, as a lack of English was identified by pupils as key factor that contributed to their negative emotional experiences in a previous theme. It was encouraging to see that some ELL pupils had received welcome support from teachers in non-academic areas of development such as sport and recreation. When ENG pupils talked about the support provided by their teachers, it tended to focus around pastoral support and their role in helping pupils to learn.

For the author it was interesting to see how helpful it was for ELL pupils to have language partners available to them in their class, as opposed to having bilingual staff. Bilingual teachers or teaching assistants were not mentioned by any of the ELL pupils, despite both schools having bilingual staff that are likely to have worked with some of the ELL pupils in their home language. It may be that the teachers the ELL pupils make reference to have spoken to them in their home language, but that the pupils have not mentioned this. If this is the case, then their lack of reference to this point is still an interesting observation.

Key Theme – New pupils could be supported by schools and pupils in the future

When asked how new pupils could be supported in the future so that they may be happy at school, pupils suggested a variety of responses, which can be separated into five sub-themes; Information sharing, Finding a language partner, Teaching English, Being friendly, and Helping them with their work.

All five sub themes, were suggested in both ENG and ELL focus groups.

“Stay with them, and get them to know the school, help them with their work, help them understand it, or get someone who knows that language they speak to translate.” (Pupil Ja, ENG FG1)

“Show them round the school like, tell them good things about the school, and how we help people here. All the different things that we have like the library, and other books and stuff.” (Pupil R, ENG FG1)

“Get someone who can speak the same language, and teach them English.” (Pupil Ja, ENG FG1)

“Learn them some English.” (Pupil O, ELL FG2)

“Um, if they speak your language you can help them alot, you can be their first friend.” (Pupil M, ELL FG1)

“Miss, go by them and ask their name and ask them, do you need help, when they say yes, go, we can help.” (Pupil F, ELL FG1)

“Miss, just don’t care about how they look, just be their friend, it’s not how they look outside, it’s how they are inside.” (Pupil M, ELL FG2)

“If they get lost tell them where to go.” (Pupil S, ELL FG2)

“What goes around in our school...like sometimes we have assembly, sometimes we have assembly early, like if it’s important, like we did yesterday.” (Pupil E, ENG FG2)

“Like, you can tell them the rules, and if they are upset or something they can tell their teacher and share what’s happening.” (Pupil Sa, ENG FG2)

This theme suggests pupils are aware of the likely needs of a new pupil, and can suggest appropriate ways of supporting them. It was particularly encouraging to see that both groups provided very similar suggestions. The fact that ENG group took into consideration that a new pupil may not speak English indicated some experience of such a situation, and recognised such pupils as having additional language needs and needing additional language support.

The author will now describe and discuss the key themes and sub themes identified from the teacher interview responses. Following this, a overall summary of the qualitative data will be provided.

4.4.3 Teacher Qualitative Data Analysis

Four semi-structured teacher interviews were conducted, two in each participating school. All interviews were guided with the use of a interview script (see Appendix 6). Year 5 and 6 teachers were asked to participate, however due to one Year 5 teacher had left to go on maternity leave, the SENCo kindly stepped in to help, who was closely involved with both Key Stage 2 classes. All interviews were conducted in the respective teacher’s schools. Three of the four teachers could give the researcher enough time to complete the interview to a desired level of depth, however one interview was slightly more restricted on time, however this did not appear to stop the interviewee providing detailed answers.

4.4.4 Thematic Analysis of Teacher Responses

A teacher thematic map was generated from the teacher interview data, which organised the teacher initial codes into five key themes and respective sub

themes. The thematic map has been presented in Figure 1.16 (page 171). Before conducting the semi-structured interviews, the author summarised the key findings from the quantitative data. Their responses to these were not included in the transcript or thematic analysis, however the findings were referred back to by two interviewee's. The summaries presented to the two schools can be found in Appendix 5a and 5b.

The four teachers who were interviewed have been referred to as Teacher 1 (T1), 2 (T2), 3 (T3), 4, (T4). Photographs illustrating the developed teacher thematic map can be found in Appendix 11.

Key Theme – Emotional well being at school is important

Before exploring the views of the teachers with regards to the emotional needs of ELL pupils, the author felt it necessary to first ascertain how much importance they, as teachers, gave to the emotional well being of pupils in school. All teachers indicated they felt emotional well being in school is paramount to a pupil reaching their potential and progressing in their learning and development.

“Because if they are not emotionally well at school, I don't think they learn to their full potential... If you don't feel happy or safe then there is always some barrier to the learning, whether it's anxiety, whether it's lack of motivation...if you haven't got the happiness, and that contentedness in your school, that feeling of security then there's barriers...you have to get rid of those barriers if they are going to reach their potential.” (T2)

“It {emotional wellbeing} is vital. If they're not emotionally secure, it's a basic tool to them being able to learn. If they're not emotionally secure in themselves and their own emotions, you've got an immediate barrier to learning. We need to overcome those barriers to be able to teach them and for them to be willing to learn. It's vital.” (T4)

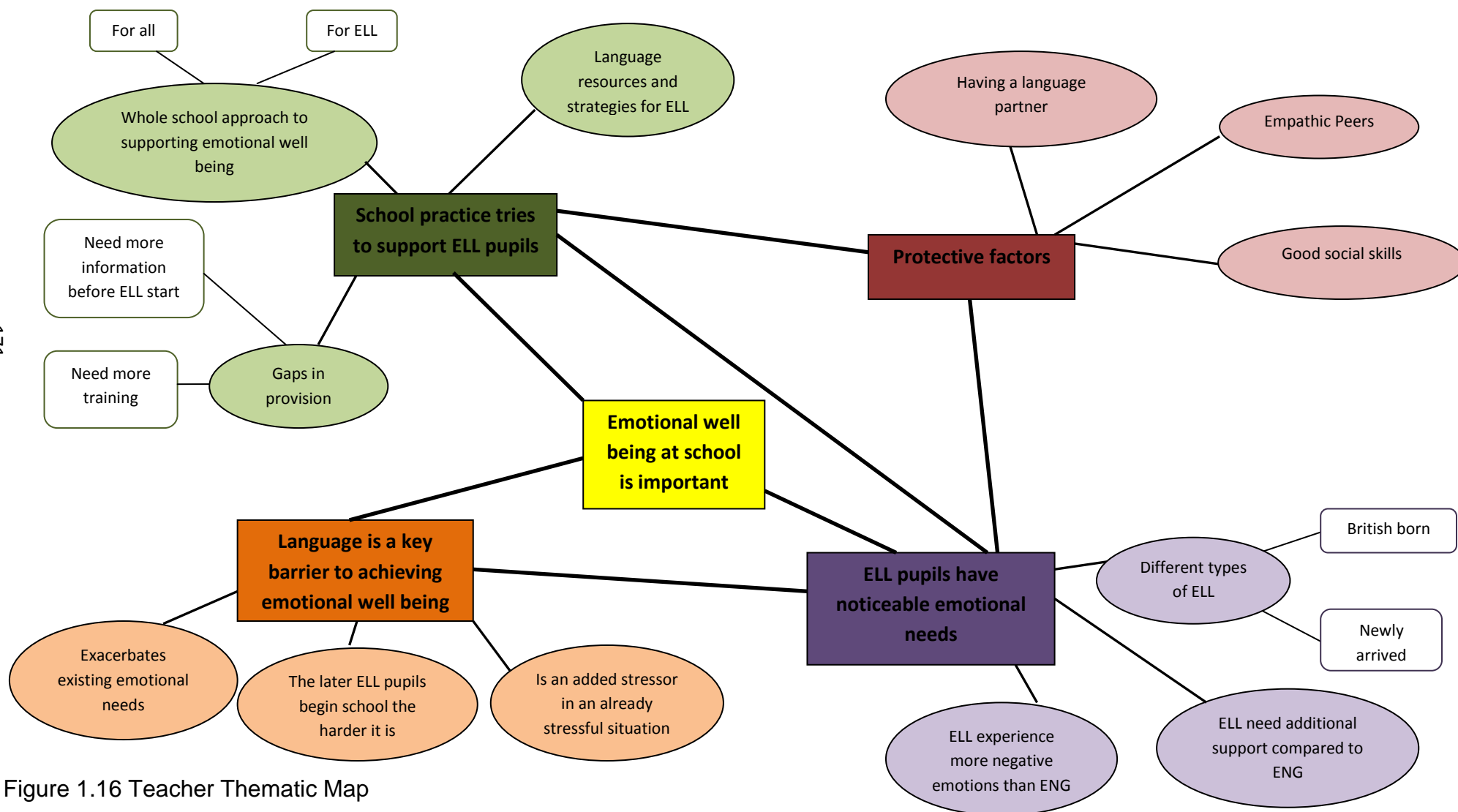


Figure 1.16 Teacher Thematic Map

“I think it’s {emotional well being} just the essence of everything a school should be about because, there are a number of factors that make a child ready to learn, or nearly ready to learn, or not ready to learn at all, and obviously some feeling of emotional stability and well being is just the essence of being a school...it’s got to really come first cos children aren’t little machines are they.” (T1)

“...I think it’s incredibly important for them to feel emotionally secure, I mean especially when they are at school.” (T3)

It was apparent that the vast experiences of the teachers interviewed, two of whom reported working with EAL children as a particular area of interest, had given rise to their opinions with regards to emotional well being in school. The fact that all four teachers worked in schools with high percentages of ELL pupils may have influenced their appreciation of the need for emotional well being in school.

This was illustrated by an example T3 gave of an ELL pupil he worked with who had experienced an extremely traumatic event (perhaps one of many) prior to immigrating to the UK. The teacher commented on the need to know what children have been through so that their emotional needs may be better understood. This highlighted the fact that many ELL pupils can also be referred to as ‘new arrivals’. That is, they are pupils who have recently arrived in the UK, under a variety of circumstances e.g. seeking asylum or refuge. Due to the nature of their circumstances such pupils may or may not have travelled to the UK under difficult and/or traumatic circumstances. Teaching in a school with high numbers of pupils who are newly arrived (and who may also be ELL) may have ensued with these teachers giving emotional well being at a school particular importance, due to the nature of the needs of their pupils. This assumption was further verified by another interview (T2) in which the teacher commented on the criticism they received from Ofsted in their most recent inspection, for putting too much emphasis on the happiness and well being of their pupils, rather than on their achievement and attainment.

Whilst the author made no reference to sub groups that may fall under the term 'English Language Learner', teachers did, which indicates they perceive there to be different *types* of ELL. This was identified as a sub theme and has been discussed later on in this section.

Key Theme – ELL pupils have noticeable emotional needs

When teachers were asked to comment on the emotional needs of ELL pupils, based on their experiences, all teachers were able to provide an insight into what they perceived the needs in ELL pupils to be, and most commonly used negative emotions and emotional experiences to describe these. The sub theme 'ELL experience more negative emotions than most ENG' indicating this. Negative emotional experiences of fear, anxiety, frustration and nervousness were referred to by teachers, in addition to terms such as low motivation and low self esteem and confidence.

"I think they {ELL} come very nervous, they come very frightened, and those needs have got to be addressed first...they need at least the first half term just to get over that initial anxiety and worry and fear...of the unknown....Maybe they haven't got the same self esteem as the other children because they see that if I can't, my English isn't as good as so and so, perhaps I'm not as good, or not as important, so their self esteem and confidence is knocked. That's probably a big one I think...It's a really steep mountain they have got to climb. You can see why some of them do get demotivated...it's very hard." (T2)

"Schools are places where the children know there is an element of authority there, you have to follow the rules but if you can't interpret the rules there's fear. And I think anxiety comes from knowing that this is a formal situation..." (T4)

"It must be very difficult for them {ELL} to keep motivated if the right support mechanisms aren't there, and they must get very frustrated...I think for

some {ELL}...self esteem is crucial...it is definitely a factor that needs to be considered..." (T1)

"For them it would be frustrating if you can't express yourself, it's a nightmare....you've got the fear factor....You've got it in your head, you know what you want to say but you can't articulate it....when you can't communicate your needs there's frustration...For a child that is quite able in their own language and who is, say slightly older, they have learnt more skills in their own language, they have more knowledge in their own language, but when they then come and they are starting afresh their frustration levels are increased so much." (T4)

Two further sub themes were identified by the author from the responses provided by the teachers. One referred to different *types* of ELL pupils, and the second referred to the emotional needs of ELL differing from the emotional needs of English speaking pupils.

When discussing the needs of ELL pupils, two distinct groups of ELL pupils were identified by the teachers, new arrivals and British born.

"...I think children...who aren't new to the country, but are still ELL, it's almost the same really. I mean we have a lot of children who come into early years now who aren't new arrivals but they are very much ELL. And families who have been here forever, they are still quite insular some of them, and the children don't have many experiences outside of the home....I'd actually say that the ELL who are born and bred here perhaps have more worries...in some respects than new arrivals....the new arrivals have had those experiences outside of the home...and {are} more adaptable." (T2)

"There is a greater number of children who come as new arrivals, so they come with no English. Then there are other children who are second generation here, but who speak predominantly in their home language at home." (T4)

“Sometimes in my experience, their {British born children} language exposure has really been dominated by Sky Television where they probably wouldn’t be listening to English language channels at all...so language immersion would still often be in languages other than English.” (T1)

When discussing how the emotional needs of ELL may be different to those of English speaking pupils, teacher’s responses focussed around their perception that ELL pupils tended to need a similar kind of emotional support to ENG pupils but just more of it.

“I think there would need to be a lot of shared needs common to all children but I think ELL children can be obviously way more vulnerable in many aspects because of the other barriers they have in the classroom in terms of their language communication.....I think often those children {ELL} need a lot more reassurance and a lot more one to one, not just in terms of supporting their learning, but also just encouraging them, which sort of means making them feel wanted in the school and making them feel valuable to the school...I think in term of self –esteem, you have got to be very aware that there are some EAL children who need to be provided with a lot more scaffolding....I think ELL do need that little bit more support and I think we talk about these things really honestly in the classroom.” (T1)

“You do things just to make them comfortable, and you would do that for any child...It’s just a necessity.” (T4)

“I think when they {ELL} first come they need extra tender loving care, they need a lot of direction...” (T3)

“They {ELL} need more positive reinforcement...They need to know we value them, whereas...a fluent English child probably comes with that already. I think you have to work harder with ELL children to make sure they feel valued and feel positive about themselves...sometimes it takes

longer for them to feel secure...that feeling of security has to be worked at more.” (T2)

This theme highlights teacher’s perceptions around the emotional needs of ELL pupils. Responses indicate these teachers could identify negative emotional needs that they felt were specific to ELL pupils such as anxiety, fear and frustration. They could also however, identify emotional needs which were shared with English speaking pupils, but were more pronounced for ELL pupils, and thus necessitated greater emotional support in school.

When discussing the emotional needs of ELL pupils three of the four teachers identified two distinct groups of children who fall under the term ‘ELL’; new arrivals, and British born. The author found this point to be interesting, as while teachers felt there was overlap with regards to their emotional needs linked to their language skills, there may be differences in terms of their life experiences which would have an obvious impact on the development of other skills, such as their social skills and resilience. This would in turn have implications on the type of support ELL pupils may need in school, that would be additional to emotional support, dependant on what *type* of ELL they were.

Key Theme – Language is a key barrier achieving emotional well being

Teachers were asked to identify what they felt were the key barriers to ELL pupils achieving emotional well being at school. Language barriers were identified as a key impacting factor.

“Language is vital. If you can’t communicate and you can’t understand, there’s very little that you can do...language is, I would say, it has to be one of the greatest, if not the greatest impact on emotional well being.” (T4)

“I mean language, it’s got to be there...that goes without saying, that’s one of the big ones...If their language is hindering in their ability and their progress then...they lose confidence so quickly.” (T2)

“I have seen {ELL} children settle the *most* quickly either...when they are very able in their own language...{or when they} have someone with a common language, so they have a lot more support...they have a mountain to climb, and not having the language to be able to express themselves, or express their emotions must be very frustrating.” (T1)

“Discipline, language, friendships and social interaction, relationships with teachers {are all key}.” (T3)

The responses provided could be organised into three sub themes. In the first sub theme, teachers commented on how they felt language barriers, i.e. not being able to speak or understand English, was an added source of anxiety to an already anxiety provoking situation for ELL pupils.

“If children have got low self esteem anyway, maybe because they have had no schooling...the language barriers make it that much harder for them...especially when they have no English, or very little English...And then you have other factors as well that are nothing to do with language that could be different in all sorts of homes...that can just fog issues.” (T1)

“Often they are lacking in confidence within them self, and then because of the language barrier they can’t participate or understand...” (T3)

The second sub theme was similar to the first, however comments seemed to indicate that the language barriers faced by ELL pupils exacerbated already existing emotional difficulties, which may have been a result of traumatic past experiences.

“...not having people understand what they have been through...some children might need counselling support before they are ready to learn in a setting that doesn’t even speak their first language. And also not being able to hear or understand the support that is being offered to them due to the language barriers, it must just make things so much worse for them emotionally. (T1) and have come on very traumatic journey’s. Emotionally, I

just think for some of them even being in a school setting is a stress for them.” (T1)

“I think it’s the language barrier and also the emotional baggage that a lot of those children {ELL} carry with them...that makes it difficult for them to talk about what they are feeling. They come here with a lot of baggage some of them, and sometimes it’s due to lack of language that stops them from telling you...even if they have got the language they wouldn’t want to talk.” (T2)

“I think sometimes their {ELL} traumas are put to one side, we just start the learning process. There’s trauma of being somebody that hasn’t got the language to express themselves, and there’s additional trauma if they’ve had experiences that we’re not looking at. There’s a double whammy...because they can’t express themselves in English they can’t tell us that {what they have dealt with in past} and so they suffer, and that can lead to frustration.” (T4)

The third sub theme related to teachers experiences of the timing of an ELL pupil’s arrival, for example if they begin attending school later in their life, or if they join part way through an academic year. They felt the earlier an ELL pupil begins attending school in the UK, the smaller the gap between them and their peers, which in turns gives them better prospects of catching up with their peers. In addition to this, the nearer they start to the start of the academic year i.e. September, the easier it is for them to settle and feel included.

“Kids who join in the lower years, by that I mean reception and year one, then there is less of a gap between them and their peers. But if kid’s join in, let’s say year three onwards, then they need more support. Years five and six are the most difficult because they have an enormous amount of catching up to do.” (T3)

“The older they get, the later they come into the system the harder it is...the gap between them is just huge.”(T4)

“I think the difficulty as well, is the children who arrive not at the same time as everybody else, which is very very common. So they might not come into school on September 1st, even if they come in in the second week, I think emotionally that must be really difficult.” (T1)

This theme indicates teachers perceive a lack of English as a key barrier to a pupil achieving emotional well being (when attending an English speaking school). In other words this theme implies, being an English Language Learner in school, according to the responses provided by teacher participants, is likely to result in some emotional distress.

When reflecting on their experiences of working with ELL pupils they felt a lack of language can have a negative impact on a pupil's emotional well being by: presenting a pupil with an additional hurdle to overcome when starting school in the UK, (presumably in addition to likely hurdles related to e.g. immigrating to the UK and/or anxieties around starting a new school etc); and by exacerbating previously existing emotional needs that may be linked to previous trauma experienced. Depending on which may be the case for an individual child, or if both are true for an individual child, acquiring this knowledge and understanding of an ELL pupil's emotional needs would, presumably, have implications on the nature of support offered.

Other factors of school life that were mentioned by individual teachers were linked to social interactions/relationships and experiences outside of the classroom, relationships with teachers, discipline and parental support.

Key Theme – School practice tries to support ELL

When asked to give details about how they, as individual teachers, and how their school as a whole, try to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils, teachers were able to describe an array of strategies and approaches they employed. These focused around approaches to providing; emotional support, language

support, and targeted resources. Teachers were also able to identify gaps in provision with regards to supporting ELL pupils in school.

Teachers described in some detail the whole-school approaches employed by their schools in supporting emotional well being of all pupils, including ELL pupils..

“We are just very positive with them. It’s not something we do just for these, it’s something we do for all children. We try to be...friendly...and get to know them...their families...the whole person...Every child is valued.” (T2)

“It’s respecting every child’s background...we have got a nurturing ethos. Most of us are trained on the Nurturing Programme, which is...all about children’s emotional well being...we follow that ethos...here children are embraced for all their differences...I think because we have got a church side as well, we’re one family...every child is included.” (T4)

“...it’s appreciating every child is an individual...and making children feel valuable for what they are...it’s part of our whole school ethos.” (T1)

In addition to whole-school approaches, teachers also referred to approaches they employed specifically for ELL pupils.

“I try to bring in the culture and religious aspects, again to make them feel valued regardless...My choir is another example of including and valuing EAL kids, a lot of my EAL kids are in the choir...I can see they are getting an enormous amount of self esteem, self confidence, and a sense of I’m doing this, not just watching others do it.” (T3)

“Children who bring other languages to the school, it’s a celebrated thing you don’t want to make their language and their country suddenly invisible. Because...it’s their life and experiences and culture...sometimes just let them write in their own language, because they can actually do it...it’s allowing them to express themselves...your back to self-esteem...and making children feel valuable for what they are...” (T1)

“...we have displays around the school celebrating the different countries our children come from.” (T4)

Teacher's also commented on other support they offered ELL in school, mainly referring to the development of, or allocation of resources and strategies employed to provide ELL with targeted language support.

“We have some money from central funding to fund...three teachers...to support ELL children...in class....Then we have another teacher and a TA...they are funded for new arrivals...We also have another TA...funded by school, who is employed specifically as an EAL TA...down in early years we have two or three multi-language people...”. (T2)

“It's a lot of reinforcement language work...it's a lot of vocabulary...extra talk...rehearsal and practice of language, and that's amongst peers as well...Pictures are always...useful...We have got...a whole trolley of resources for use with ELL children. Mainly new arrivals, but they are applicable for all ELL children...ICT is used as well quite a bit with the children. Just making things visual and also they have got the headphones, and they have got the hearing.” (T2)

“...we differentiate what we do anyway for our children in terms for ability, special educational need ability. We just know it's just another differentiation for these children who have got English as second language. Be we're quite aware that children who have English as a second language aren't necessarily special needs.” (T4)

“...visual resources...make such a massive difference. Use of photographs, and language boards all the time...letting them talk a lot more about it...it's turning things into more fun and games rather than pressure, and getting rid of that nervous and anxious feeling, and that sense of failure...I think where they sit is very important, giving them...little mentors to help ease them in...and having a guide and a tour of the school. And then starting with basic

language skills and oracy work...I think the confidence you must get from that language support ...must make a lot of difference...And there are teaching styles. I am a big fan of visual literacy and visual learning...it's good practice for all...and it happens to be good practice for EAL children..." (T1)

"You need to have...an established policy of supporting newly arrived children, who haven't got English...we try to start small group work straight away...have basic signs around the school...or symbols." (T1)

"Once you can know how to make a child smile, only then can you make inroads into speaking...it's crucial that we get them to speak, to use their voice no matter how...in their own language, or through noises in songs...we have...fans with pictures on, so there is a picture of a toilet...and a lunchbox...I have downloaded some software which...translates key words and phrases it's brilliant!" (T3)

Teachers were asked to reflect on their thoughts on the support offered to ELL pupils from schools and from the local authority, and to suggest what more could be done. Gaps in provision were identified by teachers which focussed around the need for more training and the need for more support for schools in identifying an ELL pupil's emotional needs.

"I think it's an on-going staff and professional development thing. It's just so important...It's just being aware that you have to monitor vulnerable groups and they are a vulnerable group..." (T1)

"...I think with the SEN area and ELL area...the authority, it's much poorer now than it was a few years ago...We do need more training. LA offered training is, well, useless really. There is not enough quality training...Maybe there is an area of need...being able to train staff in school with regards to the needs of ELL pupils. Maybe we ought to do more." (T2)

“...when you’re talking about emotional needs...it’s absolutely vital to be aware of what they may have been through before they get to you...they need to feel safe and valued and we need to try to understand their emotional needs before that can happen...I think there is a lack of education and training available looking at religious side of things...an awareness of cultural and religious difference and those aspects to their {ELL} lives.” (T3)

“...if there was some way of...children actually having to speak to somebody first with a home language speaker...before they come into school, so that schools are better prepared, knowing a little bit of previous history, a little bit of background and what we need to put in place for this child...not every child that speaks a different language has traumas but it would be nice to have a picture of what we need to deal with.” (T4)

This theme suggests teachers, and their schools make a conscious effort to practise in a way that supports their ELL pupils. Some of their practice aims to support the emotional well being of all their pupils. However, the teachers talked about approaches taken to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils specifically, that were not targeted to support ENG pupils, which would infer that they see the emotional needs of ELL pupils to be different to those who speak English. When describing the nature of support offered to ELL pupils, it would appear teachers feel ELL pupils are in need of greater emotional support, suggesting ELL pupils have greater emotional needs which necessitate tailored support.

In addition to emotional support, language support was identified as a key method of meeting the needs of ELL pupils. As language was identified as a key barrier to achieving emotional well being, the author assumes, that the language support offered not only aims to develop language proficient and learning of basic skills, but also to support emotional well being, indirectly.

The gaps in provision identified indicate the teachers feel schools need support in meeting the needs of ELL pupils, so that their needs, emotional or otherwise, may

be identified as early as possible to ensure appropriate support is offered. This may have implications on future practice.

Key Theme – Protective Factors

During the interviews, teachers mentioned characteristics of; the school context, and of individual pupils, that they felt may mitigate an ELL pupil's endeavour to achieve emotional well being. Two of these characteristics focussed around the influence of peers on the emotional well being of an ELL pupil. One sub theme highlights teacher's perceptions around the positive impact of having language partners available to ELL pupils. The other suggests teachers feel, having empathic peers within the class and school, can also have a positive impact.

"Introducing them to other children who are the same language speakers will help them to settle and feel happier." (T4)

"...the one's often that will settle quickly will be children who have someone with a common language...that is a way of them feeling included, it's almost like a stepping stone...like having a mini translator there, and you can see them settling." (T1)

"...our children are so good with each other...our children are so friendly and they are used to welcoming new people. They are used to coping with people whatever their language, their colour their religion...which obviously supports ELL pupils with their language because that's where they learn most of it from really, their peers..." (T2)

"I think it really depends on the cohort that you've got. This particular group are very empathetic. Their play and socialising isn't reliant on language...they will go out to include somebody....and so children who have come with no language or limited language, actually will find a friend...You get cohort's where there's no cohesion...And then children who's language difficulty can suffer." (T4)

The third characteristic teacher's identified as being a factor that may protect ELL pupils from experiencing negative emotions was having good social skills.

"I think it's very different with different children...some children are sociable children, and actually language barriers seem to be minimal. They can make friends and get along...Social skills could be key." (T1)

"...new arrivals...have had those experiences outside of the home...and {are} more adaptable than some of the other children...they may well have social skills and the play skills." (T2)

Related to the last excerpt provided, the teacher made an interesting point about the differences in need and skill development between new arrival ELL pupils and British born ELL pupils. This particular teacher commented on how new arrival ELL pupils, from her experience, had better social skills and were more resilient, in comparison to British born ELL, who appeared to have greater speech and language difficulties.

This final theme highlights some aspects of school life that may improve the emotional experiences of ELL, and may have implications on the nature of support provided in the future.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided the findings obtained from the data collected and analysed when attempting to answer the research questions posed. The analysis involved the descriptive and statistical analysis of ELAI scores obtained from pupils and teachers for ELL and ENG pupils. In addition to this, in order to investigate the differences found between ELL and ENG ELAI scores, pupil focus groups and teacher interview transcripts were thematically analysed.

In the next chapter the author will provide a summary of the findings obtained in relation to the research questions, offer a critique of the methodological design, and indulge in a discussion around the implications of the findings obtained from

the research conducted. In doing so relevant literature will be referred to. Potential prospects for future research and pedagogy will be offered in addition to a discussion around the role of the educational psychologist when considering the emotional needs of ELL pupils.

Chapter Five: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This research has revealed some of the challenges faced by ELL pupils in English speaking schools in the UK. It offers an insight into the complexities around a lack of proficiency in the dominant language and the language of instruction, and the impact it can have on the emotional experiences of ELL pupils. Factors identified by ELL pupils and their class teachers suggest language barriers to be a key obstacle that can interfere with an ELL pupils' endeavour to achieve emotional well being, and a school's endeavour to offer emotional support.

Factors identified as being facilitators or inhibitors to the experience of emotional well being of ELL pupils will be examined in greater detail throughout this chapter. In doing so the author will refer back to literature reviewed in Chapter Two, and will also introduce new literature in light of the discussion points that emerged from research findings. Because of the exploratory nature of this thesis, the author has offered general discussions around the implication of the current findings to current practice in addition to possible implications for future practice. The theoretical perspective within which the research was conducted is considered, and used as a means to try to understand possible explanations for the findings obtained.

The chapter will begin by providing a summary of the key findings of the current research. The critical realist framework is considered in relation to the current research findings, and how they may contribute to current and future practice. A critique of the methodology is provided, which should be taken into account when considering the research findings. This will be followed by the exploration of key discussion points that emerged from the findings which are identified by the author as possible mechanisms within the school context which may go some way to explaining the emotional experiences of ELL pupils reported in this research. The author then discusses the potential implications of the findings on the role and work of educational psychologists in the UK. The chapter concludes with possible future directions of research.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings in Relation to Research Questions

5.2.1 Research Question 1

To what extent are the emotional needs of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school, as measured by the ELAI, different to those of English speaking pupils?

► Quantitative data analysis suggests the emotional needs of ELL pupils (as measured by the ELAI) are statistically different to those of English speaking pupils as reported by them and their teachers within the current research sample. According to the ELAI scores obtained the emotional literacy skills of ELL pupils are lacking in comparison to their English speaking counterparts. Thus the experimental hypothesis of the study with regards to this research question can be accepted in relation to this sample.

► ELL pupil responses indicated that they perceived themselves to have significantly lower emotional literacy in comparison to their ENG counterparts, which may suggest they have greater emotional needs, and that they may require tailored support in order to achieve emotional well being at school. However, the mean self reported score for ELL pupils did fall within the 'average' range of the ELAI pupil cut-off points.

► ELL pupils report their emotional needs (as measured by the ELAI) as reasonably similar in nature, with smaller variation and range in comparison to ENG pupils. However, a few individual ELL pupils reported themselves to have emotional needs outside of the range which indicates the central spread of data, and were identified as 'extreme' in the analysis. These extreme scores fell both above and below the central spread of data.

► ENG pupils on the other hand, reported their emotional needs (as measured by the ELAI) as being more varied, with a greater range, however no ENG pupil scores were identified as 'extreme' and so did not fall outside of the central spread of data.

► Teacher findings indicated they too perceived there to be a significant difference in the emotional needs (as measured by the ELAI) of ELL pupils in comparison to ENG pupils. According to their responses they perceive ELL pupils as having significantly lower ELAI scores, which may indicate greater emotional needs. However the mean teacher score for ELL pupils still fell within the 'average' range, according to the ELAI cut-off points, whilst the mean teacher score for ENG pupils just fell into the 'above average' range.

► The median and mean teacher scores suggested teachers perceive there to be a greater difference in the emotional needs of ELL and ENG pupils than the pupils themselves report there to be, based on differences in ELAI scores for the two groups.

► When considering the nature of emotional needs across the two groups, based on the spread of ELAI scores, teacher responses indicated they felt ELL pupils' needs were more varied in nature, with no ELL teacher scores being identified as 'extreme'. However teacher scores for ENG pupils suggested teachers perceive their emotional needs were more similar in nature, apart from a small proportion of ENG pupils whom teachers identified as having particularly low emotional literacy, and elevated emotional needs, and were identified as 'extreme' when analysed. The teacher scores indicated the differences were general rather than specific to any particular ELAI sub scale.

5.2.2 Research Question 2

How do the perceived emotional experiences of ELL pupils attending an English speaking school differ from those of English speaking pupils, and what factors are identified as influential for ELL pupils' emotional well-being?

► Both ENG pupils and ELL pupils reported experiencing negative emotions at the time of starting school, however most ENG pupils felt these feelings were short lived and were quickly overcome following a period of settling down. In addition to this most ENG reported experiencing positive emotions once settled.

- ▶ ELL pupils described a different emotional experience to that of ENG pupils, in that whilst they also had negative emotional experiences at the time of starting school, these were not reported to be overcome quickly.
- ▶ Both pupil participants and teacher participants identified language barriers as the most influential factor of school experiences that had a negative impact on an ELL pupil's ability to achieve emotional well being.
- ▶ Pupil responses indicated their lack of English proficiency was a key cause of negative emotional experiences, in addition to a lack of support offered by their peers on their arrival and unkind treatment by peers.
- ▶ Teachers felt language barriers affected the emotional well being of ELL pupils in a negative way as it was not only an additional source of stress and anxiety for them, but also exacerbated existing emotional needs which may have been a result of previous trauma linked to immigration.

5.2.3 Research Question 3

What aspects of school staff practice and ELL pupil school experiences, support the emotional well-being of ELL pupils who attend an English speaking school?

- ▶ ELL pupils indicated three main aspects of their school experiences which they considered as having a positive impact on their emotional well being, interactions with and support offered by teachers and friends, and the language support provided via English instruction and language partners.
- ▶ Teachers felt their school's nurturing ethos, the language support they offer, and the targeted and specialised resources they provide ELL pupils are key aspects of their practice that have a positive impact on the emotional well being of ELL pupils.
- ▶ Teachers also identified protective factors which they felt helped relieve negative emotional experiences for ELL, these included having empathic peers, the availability of language partners, and good social skills.

► Gaps in current provision identified by teachers included the need for more information and a greater understanding around the needs of individual ELL pupils before they start attending a mainstream UK school, and the need for school staff to be more made aware of the potential needs of ELL pupils and how to support them through targeted training.

Before presenting a critique of the methodological approach of the current research, the author will revisit the theoretical perspective within which the research was conducted. The reason for this is to allow the present findings to be placed within the larger context of the real world, so that the implications of the findings may be discussed not only in relation to current practice but also in relation to future practice.

5.3 Findings in Relation to Critical Realism

According to the Critical Realist philosophy, social phenomena are produced by mechanisms that are real, but that are not directly accessible to observation, and are discernible only through their effects. It is the task of the critical realist researcher to construct hypotheses about such mechanism and to seek out their effects (Bryman, 2004).

The social phenomena at the core of the present study is the emotional well being of ELL pupils in English speaking UK based schools, in comparison to their English speaking peers. In order to investigate possible mechanisms that may be contributing to the emotional experiences of ELL pupils in school, quantitative and qualitative methods of enquiry were employed. The quantitative data obtained first provided evidence to suggest ELL pupil's emotional needs (as measured by the ELAI) are different to those pupils who speak English. It was the qualitative data and the literature review conducted that offered a greater insight into the possible mechanisms that may be acting on the emotional experiences of ELL pupils. Due to the limited scope of the current thesis, not all possible mechanisms could be investigated. The main mechanism focussed upon was the role of language in the achievement of emotional well being. More specifically, how a lack of English

proficiency may affect the emotional experiences and well being of ELL pupils in UK schools.

The findings of the current research offers possible mechanisms that may go some way to explain the emotional experiences of ELL pupils in UK schools, as reported by the participants of this study. These will be discussed in further detail, however before doing so, a critique of the research methodology has been presented below.

5.4 Critique of Methodology

A number of criticisms can be made of the methodological design, data collection and analysis methods and the sample within the current research. ELL pupils were identified through the use of a simplistic four point language proficiency scale, and were rated by their class teachers. In addition to this all pupils who were identified as not having full 'proficiency' of English were considered to be ELL. That is no distinction was made between different levels of proficiency. The allocation of a pupil into the ELL or ENG groups was entirely dependent on the teachers English language proficiency rating, and may have been influenced by a number of teacher biases such as teacher experience, teacher pupil relationship, a lack of knowledge with regards to proficiency, teacher expectations, uncertainty around ELL needs or SEN needs, for example. Despite this language proficiency model having been used in the past successfully (Strand and Demie, 2005), the author would have preferred to have used a more standardised and rigorous approach to measuring English language proficiency with all pupils. An example of a possible method of assessing English proficiency is through the use of the assessment scales in speaking, listening, reading and writing developed by the QCA (2000) for pupils who speak EAL. However due to time restrictions it was not possible to do this.

Within the methods used, there was a lack of control of a variety of potentially influential variables. For example, information on whether a pupil was a new arrival, asylum seeker or refugee, the length of stay of the ELL pupil in the UK if not a UK native, and the age of arrival in the UK was not gathered or controlled

for. Whilst information regarding SEN and previous therapeutic input was collected, they too were not controlled for. Robson (2002) acknowledges that the control over conditions that may be achievable in the laboratory is not feasible in the 'real world', and is often considered to ethically unjustifiable if attempted. Conducting research in the real world brings with it considerable challenges, one of which is attempting to make sense of complex, relatively poorly controlled and somewhat 'messy' situations. Not controlling for variables, is likely to have impacted on the validity of the findings obtained and may have resulted in sampling bias.

The author fully acknowledges that factors such as recency of arrival, refugee status, gender, cultural differences, SEN, and first language proficiency, in addition to school related factors such as school ethos, staff attitudes, staff experience and staff knowledge and understanding, may have influenced the emotional needs of the ELL pupils involved in the research. Further investigation focussing on more specific influential factors, such as those mentioned above, would provide a deeper understanding around the extent to which these factors are influential on the emotional needs of ELL pupils, and how they may potentially interact. The use of different data gathering and analysis methods should be taken into consideration when conducting research within the field of emotional needs of ELL pupils. For example, the use of a grounded theory approach or an ethnographic approach to research may allow for greater exploration, as may the use of a case study design. Similarly the use of more stringent participant inclusion criteria when exploring specific influential factors may result in more robust findings. However as the current research was an initial exploratory study which intended to focus on the emotional needs of *all* ELL pupils, participants were selected on the basis of their English language proficiency alone.

Other criticisms of the sample include the small sample size and the recruitment of pupils and teachers from two geographically close schools. Findings obtained may be representative of the experiences of pupils and teachers of these two schools, and so can not be generalised to larger populations. In addition to this there were a disproportionate number of ELL pupils in comparison to ENG pupils. Whilst the

differences in participant group sizes was not large enough to prevent statistical analysis, it may have resulted in an unfair comparison of data.

A mixed methods design was employed, in which quantitative data was collected, before the gathering of qualitative data. It is more common for qualitative methods to be used first when conducting exploratory research, followed by the use of quantitative methods (Bryman, 2004). It possible that the use of qualitative methods first may have led to changes in the quantitative data collected, however rationale for the design used has been provided in Chapter Two. Due to the sequential design of the study, approximately half of the participants of Phase 1 could not be included into the data collection of Phase 2. Whilst the findings of Phase 2 can still offer a plausible follow-up of findings from Phase 1, the reduced sample size may have impacted on the themes identified. Had the sample size not reduced for Phase 2 then, it may have been possible to corroborate and triangulate responses of all the ELL and ENG pupil participants further.

Criticism related to the data collection methods employed can be identified. When collecting the quantitative data set, self report measures were taken. Risks involved with such measures include factors such as a social desirability influencing responses provided. Measures of maximal behaviours are considered to be a more direct measure of the underlying construct in question, but are much more time consuming to administer and score (Wigelsworth et al, 2010). Teacher responses to the quantitative measuring tool may have also been influenced by confirmation bias as they were fully aware of the focus of the research.

The ELAI was administered to all pupils in English, and responses were provided in English. Hektner, Schmidt and Csikszentmihalyi (2007) highlight that often a word or phrase that exists in one culture does not have a simple translation that will capture the same meaning in another society. The items within the ELAI are likely to have been influenced by cultural bias, which may have resulted in ELL pupils not fully grasping the construct being referred to within an item. In addition to this the English language proficiency of ELL pupils may have influenced understanding of ELAI items. Adults who may have offered language support may

have influenced responses provided by ELL pupils as they may have encouraged certain responses based on their interpretation of an individual ELL's skills.

Criticism with regards to the use of an emotional literacy measure as a means of identifying differences in emotional need can be raised. Whilst there is research that suggests the use of emotional literacy and emotional and social skills measures can be used to identify emotional needs (Ciarrochi and Scott, 2006; Wigelsworth et al, 2010), these measures are relatively new, and under researched with regards to their validity, which is also partly linked to debates over construct terminology and definition. In addition to this, the ELAI has not been used as a tool to measure emotional need previously, as far as the author is aware, and so its appropriateness, despite claims made by Ciarrochi and Scott (2006) and Wigelsworth et al (2010), may lack empirical evidence.

Inherent to qualitative data collection are factors that can influence the responses provided and the interpretation of the responses given. The researcher plays much more of a subjective role in qualitative data methods, and so research bias and confirmation bias is likely to influence research findings and interpretations. In addition to this the use of certain methods, in this case focus groups, can result in a participant tendency to intellectualise and portray themselves in a positive light (Krueger and Casey, 2000).

Issues related to retrospective recall have been written about extensively in psychological literature. Pearson, Ross and Dawe (1992) argue that the responses provided to retrospective questions are greatly influenced by the current psychological and environmental state of the respondent, and by implicit and explicit theories. All pupil participants were asked to recall their school experiences from the time when they began attending school. For most ENG pupils this meant recalling experiences of over six year ago and for some ELL this meant recalling experiences of a time that may have been a difficult period for them. The retrospective nature of some of the questions posed in focus groups may have been influenced by issues related to retrospective recall.

Triangulation of findings through the use of a mixed methods approach and through the collection of pupil *and* teacher responses attempted to counter balance the shortcomings of the data collections methods employed. The collection of parental responses to the emotional needs of ELL pupils may have further triangulated findings, however this was not possible due to time and resource restrictions.

The author will now discuss the findings of the current research, making reference to literature reviewed in Chapter Two, and introducing new literature where relevant. The author's Final Thoughts are offered after discussing the role and work of the Educational Psychologist, and future directions for research in the field of emotional needs of ELL pupils.

5.5 Discussion of Findings

In this section the author will discuss some key points that the current research findings have raised with regards to the education of ELL pupils in English speaking UK based mainstream schools. The discussion points do not draw on any particular data set within the research, but instead attempts to synthesise the quantitative and qualitative findings by 'configuring' them as suggested by Voils, Sandelowski, Barroso and Hasselblad (2008). When findings of mixed methods are configured they are viewed as complementing as opposed to confirming each other, and are 'meshed' together. They argue that 'configuration' is increasingly becoming the prevailing mode of synthesis advanced for integrating qualitative and quantitative findings at the interpretation and discussion phase. Key discussion points that emerged on configuration of the current research findings will now be discussed.

5.5.1 ELL Pupil Vulnerability

Both quantitative and qualitative findings of the research indicate ELL pupils may be vulnerable to emotional adversity when they begin attending an English speaking school in the UK. When explored further ELL pupils reported that their lack of English language proficiency was the most influential factor of their school

life experiences that contributed to their negative emotional experiences. In addition to this ELL pupils reported interactions with their peers at the time of starting school also impacted on their emotional well being.

The findings obtained offer support to previous claims that ELL pupils are at risk of negative emotional experiences in school, which will inevitably impact on their emotional well being. Emotional well being is defined as a 'holistic subjective state which is present when a range of feelings, (among them energy, confidence, openness, enjoyment, happiness, calm, and caring) are combined and balanced' (National Healthy School Standard, 2004, p7, brackets added by author). Reports made by ELL pupils involved in the current research indicate their feelings were not balanced, and that at the time of starting school, they experienced greater negative emotions. As such they were unable to experience emotional well being in school at that time.

There is neuropsychological evidence to suggest that emotional well being in school is critical for rational thought, and can facilitate learning and performance (Humphrey et al, 2007; McPhail, 2004). Therefore the experience of emotional well being in school could potentially increase a pupil's chances of successful learning and achievement. Teacher responses provided in the research support this claim as they indicated that they felt emotional well being in school is important, as without it children are not ready to learn, and can not reach their full potential.

ELL pupils in English speaking schools are often faced with numerous challenges. Ochoa et al (2004) argued that children who are ELL have to deal with many other issues associated with immigration and language differences that can result in significant psychological stress, and that ELL children often encounter an educational environment that is unable to address their linguistic diversity, which can have negative consequences on their academic, behavioural and emotional functioning. The ELL pupil participants of the current research reported feeling worried, frightened, scared, confused, upset, sad, angry, frustrated, shocked and shy. This provides support for claims made by Ochoa et al (2004), who suggest ELL pupils are likely to experience frustration, anxiety, depression, lower self

esteem and stress. These may lead them to become withdrawn and places them at high risk of emotional and behavioural difficulties.

Another factor that may be contributing to ELL vulnerability is their social and emotional skill development. The findings of the current research suggest ELL pupils have significantly lower emotional literacy skill development. Links between emotional literacy and school performance have been made in previous literature (Petrides et al, 2004; Gumora and Arsenio, 2002) and also between emotional literacy and emotional well being (Goleman, 1995; Schutte et al, 2002). Thus, there is reason to believe that lower emotional literacy will entail lower ability to manage emotionally demanding circumstances, which will in turn result in greater emotional needs and possibly the need for additional support. However, a reported lack of reliable and empirically tested emotional literacy measures can make assessment of emotional skills and needs difficult.

Wigelsworth et al (2010) raise a number of issues relating to the use of available measures of social and emotional skills, and argue that the scope and specificity of available measures is extremely varied and that very few have undergone sophisticated analysis. This is a particular issue given the diverse groups of pupils educational psychologists might wish to assess. Further research and instrument development is needed for accurate social and emotional skill assessments (Wigelsworth et al, 2010). In their exploration of practice amongst school psychologist when assessing emotional disturbance in ELL pupils, Ochoa et al (2004) found that general approaches including observations and interviews were most common used. They highlight the lack of validated measures to assess the emotional and behavioural concerns of ELL pupils.

Teachers of the ELL pupils involved in the research also identified language barriers as the most influential factor of school life that contributed to the emotional well being of ELL pupils. They reported ELL's as a group of pupils who encounter noticeably different emotional needs in comparison to ENG pupils, and that ELL pupils tend to experience more negative emotions than their English speaking counterparts. As a consequence of this, ELL pupils require additional support. In addition to this teachers commented on how a lack of English proficiency at the

time of starting at an English speaking school can act as an additional stressor, and in some cases can exacerbate existing emotional needs. Gracey (2004) argues that many migrants in the UK have significant mental health needs due to previous stressful situations. Asylum seekers and refugee children are groups of ELL pupils who may have an increased risk of emotional adversity, due to their previous experiences. Challenges faced by them, such as isolation, exclusion, hostility, racism, prejudice and negative attitudes towards them, are compounded by the virtue of not being able to communicate in the main language of the host country (Raval, 2005). Teacher responses from the current research offer support to the claims made by Gracey (2004) and Ravel (2005).

Another type of stress that has been reported on in previous literature is acculturative stress. Acculturation is a stressful experience, and it may be more stressful for some ethnic groups than for others, dependent on the differences between the native and new culture. The higher the acculturative stress, the more difficulty individuals experience in their psychological functioning. Additionally, factors such as gender, parent's acculturation preferences, religious orientation and socio-economic status can be influence these stress experiences (Farver et al, 2002). As a society there is a push for learning English as a means of entry into a culture, but very little is known about the psychological consequences of learning and balancing two languages and cultures (Weisskirch and Alva, 2002). Linked to acculturative stress, may be the uncertainty of one's identity due to pressures placed on ELL pupils to acculturate to the dominant culture in the UK. Language and identity are intimately related (Brown, 1994; Joseph, 2004; Edward, 2004) and learning a new language, and adjusting to a new culture, can involve the development a new identity and a new language ego (Brown, 1994). The negative emotional experiences of ELL pupils in relation to their school experiences, will likely involve overcoming not only language barriers, but culture barriers, and thus have the potential to significantly impact on the emotional well being of ELL pupils as language is a means of expressing one's emotions (Joseph, 2004). Horwitz (2000) argues that tasks reliant on language can be stressful for people in their native language, and even more stressful for some people in their L2, especially if L2 proficiency has not been mastered.

A theme that emerged from the teacher responses provides tenuous support for the notion of a Critical Period of language acquisition. Teachers reported the age of arrival in the UK as a factor that can negatively impact on an ELL pupils language acquisition, that is, the later they arrive the more difficult it is for them to learn English, which can in turn have an influence on a child's emotional well being. The critical period hypothesis (CPH) proposes there to be a biologically determined period of life in which language acquisition is easier due to the plasticity of the brain during this period of development (from 1 years old to puberty). It may be that the later an ELL pupil begins learning English the harder is it due to reduced plasticity of the brain. However, according the theory, this can only be applied to pupils whose age falls outside of the critical period. A possible alternative explanation for the comments made by teachers may be that a later age of arrival means a larger gap in educational achievement in comparison to English native pupils.

When asked how their experience of emotional adversity in school was alleviated, ELL pupils identified the language support offered as a factor that helped them to overcome their negative emotional experiences, as well support offered by their teachers. In addition to emotional distress caused by a lack of English language proficiency, literature suggests there to be aspects of the language learning process that may make ELL pupils vulnerable to negative emotional experiences. Krashen (1993) argues there to be affective prerequisites to language acquisition, and that activities in the classroom that are aimed at language acquisition must foster the lowering of the affective filter for successful acquisition. An environment which is conducive to language acquisition must ensure low anxiety levels, good rapport with the teacher and friendly relationships with other pupils. Such an environment is not a luxury but a necessity (Krashen, 1993). Despite not being reported by the ELL pupils in the study, they may have experienced language anxiety. Much of the research of language anxiety has however been conducted with adult foreign language learners, and the current findings may offer support of similar research into the experience of language anxiety amongst ELL pupils.

A second school factor identified by ELL pupils as having an alleviatory effect was support from their peers. Krashen (1993) suggested, ELL pupils require friendly

relationships with other pupils for them to be ready and successful in language acquisition. However the ELL pupils also reported their peers to be a source of emotional distress, due to a lack of support and the unkind treatment. The role of peer support will now be discussed further.

5.5.2 The Role of Peer Support

Both ELL pupils and their teachers acknowledged the role of peer support in relation to the emotional well being of ELL pupils as important. ELL pupils identified a lack of peer support as a contributing factor to their negative emotional experiences in school. ELL pupils talked about other pupils not talking to them and not playing with them on their arrival at the school. In addition to this they reported be treated unkindly, which involved being called names, being pushed, being laughed at and being bullied.

Peer support was reported by ELL pupils, as being an aspect of their school life that helped them to overcome emotional adversity. When suggesting possible ways of supporting a new pupil in the school, being friendly and helping them with their work were amongst those put forward. Similarly teachers identified empathic peers as a protective factor for ELL pupils in relation to their emotional well being. These findings suggest peer support can have both a positive and negative influence on the emotional experiences of ELL pupils.

In a recent briefing, the National Children's Bureau (2004) described peer support as building on resources that friends spontaneously offer one another (p1). They suggest peer support provides positive benefits in schools, and enables those who participate to gain life skills and supports their emotional development. Benefits of peer support include personal and social skill development, improved self-esteem, and the development of conflict resolution skills and help-seeking behaviours. In addition to this they report that peer support can help promote inclusion and can raise awareness of issues that affect emotional health.

When considering peer support offered to ELL pupils, language can play a key role as it is the primary means of communication through which support can be

offered and received. When investigating how peer culture among a group of five Mandarin-speaking preschoolers was developed and maintained in an English dominant context, Feng et al (2004) found their first language played a critical role in the formation of peer culture and play. In their conclusions, the authors argue that each of the children found some emotional security in the exchanges in Mandarin, as engaging in play with each other was more effortless, comfortable and familiar. The authors suggest that these behaviours may have served as an emotional respite, especially for children who speak EAL, who are constantly under stress to develop their social and communicative skills in English.

Support for Feng et al's (2004) findings can be observed in the sub theme of 'language partners' that was identified by both ELL pupils and teachers as being an aspect of school life that may alleviate some of the emotional demands placed on ELL pupils in schools. The author noted that whilst having a language partner was identified as important by the ELL pupils, they did not mention support from bilingual school staff. Whilst reasons for this were not elaborated on during data collection, the author was aware of the availability of bilingual staff at the participating schools who could speak the same language as at least one of the ELL pupils in both schools. The lack of reference made to this support may be an indication of a preference for peer first language support as opposed to adult first language support, which has implications on practices and approaches to language support in schools.

Before drawing the chapter to a close by discussing the role of the Educational Psychologist in relation to achieving positive outcomes for ELL pupils in schools, and the offering of some final thoughts, the author will briefly discuss issues in relation to current ELL school practice and possibilities for future practice in schools which may prove to be beneficial for ELL pupils.

5.5.3 Practice in Schools

Notions of 'Inclusion' and 'equality for all' have been at the heart of the governments educational agenda. The English National Curriculum in mainstream schools has been claimed to be the best way to ensure equal opportunities,

regardless of ethnic origin, linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and learning abilities. Thus all mainstream pupils are measured against the same targets and programmes of study. In an attempt to include them, many ELL pupils are no longer withdrawn from their normal lessons for language support, but instead receive support from classroom staff in their mainstream classes, who tend to support general teaching and learning, similar to the 'sheltered instruction' described by Krashen (1993). From personal experience, having dedicated language support staff can be somewhat of a luxury for most schools, and the availability of specialist teachers appears to be dwindling. Chen (2007) highlighted that bilingualism is a potential advantage to ELL pupils, but only if they are given substantial language support. The teacher's perspective was captured by Franson (1999) who found that due to a lack of an EAL pedagogical framework, class teachers are left to manage as best they can, which left the three teachers interviewed feeling resentment and resistance about the responsibility placed on the class teacher of an EAL pupil.

The National Association for Language Development in Curriculum (NALDIC) has argued for many years for the national integrated approach to EAL within the mainstream context, in a way that does not marginalise, but instead recognises the distinct features of the field. In a recent Working Party paper (NALDIC, 2009), they argue that increasingly professionals involved in the field of EAL and bilingualism have come to recognise the importance of first language development for ELL children, with an increasing amount of research evidencing the benefit of bilingualism in cognitive functioning. However, instead, many children are becoming monolingual through the process of 'subtractive bilingualism', as the opportunities to use and develop their knowledge and skills in their first languages decrease (NALDIC, 2009). They go on to state that the recognition of the important role of first language development in second language development, and maintenance has led to many professionals working with EAL learners to promote the development and maintenance of first languages and to actively support bilingualism. Arguments such as those put forward by NALDIC, offer support for models of language acquisition which recognise the role of a child's first language in the development of their second language, such as Cummin's (1991) dual iceberg model. It is necessary however, to extend such models so

that they may take a more holistic approach in which factors such as culture, and identity are recognised and incorporated.

Mainstream schools have tended not to concern themselves with first language maintenance of bilingual pupils. However, 'by adopting a bilingual pedagogical approach a school is stating that the totality of children's experiences have intrinsic and extrinsic value and are a fundamental resource in their learning' (NALDIC, 2003, p2). Bhatt, Bhojani, Creese and Martin (2004) explore bilinguality and complementarity. Bilinguality refers to a school's ethos around language use, and pupils attitudes, beliefs and actual language practices in two (plus) languages. Complementary schools, more commonly known as supplementary schools, are those that are organised by minority ethnic and linguistic groups to support their own communities. The Bhatt et al (2004) argue that the bilingual interaction found in complementary schools, particularly the way pupils spontaneously place the first language and English side by side, in order to create learning and teaching opportunities, offers a useful example of 'complementary bilinguality'. Following their case study approach with two complementary schools which served a Gujarati community, Bhatt et al (2004) claim their study showed how complementary schools can add value and enhance learning across educational settings, and how they attempt to complement the mainstream curriculum by promoting multiculturalism and understandings of different religious, linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In addition they claim to have demonstrated how bilinguality can support translation skills, and moving across languages, knowledge of linguistics, and biliteracy. By working in collaboration with complementary schools, mainstream schools may be able to become more concerned, and more proactive in their pupil's first language development, as well as their development of English as an additional language.

The research findings obtained indicate ELL pupils encounter negative emotional experiences in school, which they and their teachers largely attribute to their lack of English proficiency. Schools may attempt to support the emotional needs and well being of all their pupils through the adoption of programmes such as SEAL, or through a whole school nurturing ethos, however this is not always enough to meet the emotional needs of English language learner pupils, particularly in their

first experiences of attending an English speaking school in the UK. The adversity that arises from the language barriers may be addressed by the offer of language support, ideally in their first language, or through targeted English language support. It may be advantageous for schools to begin thinking about promoting the development of pupil's first languages. Working in collaboration with local community schools may be a way forward. This would demonstrate the value given to a pupil's ethnic, cultural and linguistic background, and may also provide their ELL pupils with emotional support and respite from the constant stresses they faced with when attending an English speaking school. In addition to this, such collaborative relationships may promote the development of protective factors such as family and community systems, and will prevent the occurrence of 'subtractive bilingualism'. Before such measures can be taken however, there is a great need for the development of a national framework to education of ELL pupils in the UK. The development of which should be grounded in evidence based theory, and which is piloted rigorously before being introduced on a national level. Current EAL programmes, such as the National Primary Strategy EAL Programme (DfES, Excellence and Enjoyment, 2006b) do not appear to be significantly improving outcomes for EAL pupils (Benton and White, 2007), and do not place emotional well being at the centre of their model, alongside academic development and language development. The current author argues for a national framework, to not only take ELL pupils learning and language needs into account, but to also consider and incorporate emotional dimensions to language learning. In addition to this, the framework should encourage the promotion of protective factors such as the development of empathy amongst all children, and the development of social skills that are not entirely reliant on the use of verbal language and communication. The introduction of such a framework may reduce the pressure placed on school teachers to manage classes with ELL pupils, which may in turn reduce the resentment and resistance reported by Franson (1999). Having an EAL pedagogical framework would offer schools appropriate targets and programmes of study to work from in relation to all aspects of ELL pupil's learning and development, and will enable much better progress monitoring. In addition to this, having a national framework, will make transitions between schools a much smoother process, preventing the overlap of curriculum coverage,

or the development of gaps in learning, and resulting in better outcomes for ELL pupils and better prospects for their future.

5.6 The Role and Work of Educational Psychologists

Recent changes to the professional programme by which educational psychologists (EPs) are trained have introduced a much stronger emphasis on the development of doctoral level research skills. The call for greater evidenced based practice within the field of educational psychology has resulted in greater scrutiny of the activities of EPs, both as practitioners and as researchers. The new generation of EPs, whilst relatively inexperienced, are fortunate enough to have the experiences, knowledge and wisdom of previous generations of EPs upon which to build. Ensuring the skills developed as part of the doctoral level training programme are put to good use, the author argues that EPs should fight to have greater involvement in educational reform, and in the development of government lead educational initiatives and interventions. The involvement of EPs at a national level will not only allow EP's to bring our well developed research skills to the table, but will also allow us to draw on our vast and varied knowledge of development and learning, and theory and research in a unique way that other professionals may not be able to. Such contributions, with particular reference to ELL pupils, may include knowledge of language acquisition theories and research, for example, an awareness of possible interventions or approaches, and available measuring tools that have been empirically tested and that may be appropriate in supporting the needs ELL pupils in schools. This unique EP contribution may not only benefit ELL pupils on a national level, but could also improve outcomes for ELL pupils at the individual, school and local authority level, through for example casework and training.

Previous government initiatives, such as the SEAL programme, whilst popular and well received by schools, are reported to lack an evidence base, and rigorous evaluation (Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). There is a large gap in the guidance offered by the government to schools in relation to emotional aspects of learning for ELL pupils. This observation has come at a time when schools are routinely required to support the needs of EAL pupils and thus are in need of such guidance

and support. The skills of the EP could be drawn upon when developing pilot studies, evaluative tools, and measuring tools. The present research provides some interesting, and previously unresearched initial insights into the school experiences of ELL pupils, from which potential areas for further research can be drawn. In this way a strong evidence base can be developed, upon which initiatives can be grounded, with the assurance, the rationale, and the impetus for work at systemic levels to be lead by the needs of the ever changing and fluid children and young people demographic.

5.7 Future Research

When considering the findings and discussions of the current study, some gaps in available research can be identified. There remains a need for further research into the emotional experiences of ELL pupils with greater specificity, not only in relation to their emotional well being, but also in relation to their linguistic and academic progress and development. Control over greater numbers of variables should be attempted so as to increase the validity of data collected and analysed. Further triangulation of findings could be achieved through the involvement of parents and carers of ELL pupils. Difficulties encountered by EPs when attempting to assess and/or measure social and emotional skills and difficulties of ELL pupils, may be linked to the lack of appropriate measuring tools available. The development of such tools would enable more accurate assessments of need and strengths and weaknesses, which would hopefully in turn lead to more appropriate intervention and support.

5.8 Final Thoughts

The current research suggests the emotional needs of ELL pupils are considerably different to those of English speaking pupils in schools. The ELL pupils and teachers involved in the research identified language, more specifically English language proficiency, as a key factor that contributes to the differences observed. Teachers commented that a lack of English language proficiency can exacerbate previous trauma experienced by ELL pupils, and that a lack of information on the previous experiences of ELL pupils is a major challenge faced by schools. Whilst

schools may take large steps to develop a nurturing ethos and environment, which teachers feel goes some way to supporting the emotional needs of ELL pupils, it may not always be enough. The emotional demands placed on ELL pupils when starting school in the UK need to be considered when planning for their education. The findings from this research suggest a lack of English language proficiency, in an English speaking school, can cause emotional distress, which, according to literature reviewed, may be in addition to other sources of stress and anxiety related to immigration and language learning. Language learning can be a lengthy process, and the emotional demands of such a process may mean that ELL pupils are under continuous emotional stress. Placing ELL pupils in a language environment in which they are able to communicate and learn more freely in their first language, at the point of embarking on their educational journey in the UK, is not a likely prospect in current economic and political climates. However, by placing greater importance on the availability of same language partners for ELL pupils, and by encouraging and promoting greater empathy and awareness amongst English speaking pupils, perhaps through the development of specialised ELL peer training programmes, schools may be able to alleviate some of the demands placed on the emotional resources of their ELL pupils. Educational Psychologists may be amongst the best placed professionals to support schools in the development and delivery of such initiatives.

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Appendix 1a

Emotional Literacy Pupil Checklist

Ages 7 to 11

First name

Surname

Year group

Boy

Gir

Here are some questions about you. Please try to answer them as honestly as you can. Read each question and then put a tick in one of the boxes. Make sure you do each question.

Here is an example of how to answer the questions. If you do not think you are shy at all, you would tick the box 'not like me at all'.

Very I Quite *Onlyabit\ Not like like
me I like me I like me

I am a rather shy person.

Now please answer the rest of the questions.

	Very me	I like me	Quite like me	*Onlyabit like me	\ like me	Not like like
1 I try to help people when they are unhappy.						
2 I often forget what I should be doing.						
3 I know what things I'm good and bad at.						
4 I often lose my temper.						
5 A lot of people seem to like me.				*		
6 I get annoyed when other people make mistakes.						
7 I often leave it to the last minute to do my school work.						
8 I can describe how I am feeling most of the time.						
9 I get upset if I do badly at something.						
10 I find it difficult to make new friends.						

Appendix 1a continued

	Very 1 like me	Quite 1 like me	Only a bit like me	Not like me at all
11 I know when people are starting to get upset.				
12 I carry on trying even if I find something difficult.				
13 I am easily hurt by what others say about me.				
14 I calm down quickly after I have got upset.				
15 I am usually included in other children's games.				
16 I laugh at other children when they get something wrong.				
17 I make a good effort with most of my school work.				
18 I am good at many things.				
19 I am usually a calm person.				
20 I spend too much time on my own.				
21 I try to help someone who is being bullied.				
22 I find it easy to pay attention in class.				
23 I worry a lot about the things I'm not good at.				
24 I can wait for my turn.			^	
25 I can make friends again after a row.				

Thank you for filling in this checklist.



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Appendix 1b
Emotional Literacy Teacher Checklist Ages 7 to 11

Pupil's name	Completed by
Date	Year group Boy Girl

Please look at each statement and put a tick in the box that best describes how this pupil generally is. There are no right or wrong answers. Please ensure you answer all the questions.

1 Listens to other people's point of view in a discussion or argument.				
2 Gives up easily when faced with something difficult.				
3 Is aware of his/her own strengths and qualities.				
4 Loses temper when loses at a game or in a competition.				
5 Laughs and smiles when it is appropriate to do so.				
6 Is intolerant of people who are different from him/her.				
7 When starts a task or assignment, usually follows it through to completion.				
8 Finds it hard to accept constructive criticism and feedback.				
9 Is liable to sulk if doesn't get his/her own way.				
10 Makes the right kind of eye contact when interacting with others.				
11 Is insensitive to the feelings of others.				
12 Leaves things to the last minute.				
13 Can recognise the early signs of becoming angry.				
14 Remains calm and composed when loses or 'fails' at something.				
15 Is disliked by many of his/her peers.				
16 Is very critical of others' shortcomings.				
17 Does things when they need to be done.				
18 Can name or label his/her feelings.				
19 When things go wrong, immediately denies that it is his/her fault or blames others.				
20 Has a sense of humour and fun that is used appropriately.				



Appendix 2
Pupil Focus Group Script

Equipment

Audio recorder
Group Rules
Enlarged scale (for question 3 and 5)
Feelings fan (for question 4)
Whiteboard pens (for question 4)
Labels and pens for name tags
Notepad for observations

Welcome and Introduction

Thanks and welcome.....

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this group discussion. My name is*****, and I am interested in finding out more about your experiences in school, how they make you feel, and what we might be able to do to make things a bit better for the future, and for other children like you.

Right to withdraw.....

You have been chosen by me and your teachers because we think you will have some really interesting things to tell us about your time at this school. I am really glad you have agreed to come and talk to me. If you no longer want to take part, or if at any point you decide that you want to stop taking part, just say so, and you can go back to your class.

{If a child appears to be struggling to participate or give informed consent, or appears to be distressed, seek support from a member of the teaching staff (if possible a bilingual member). If this is not possible, request support from another pupil who speaks the same language to act as an interpreter. If the child is still not able to participate, or is showing signs of distress, return him/her to their class, and ask if they might like to talk later. Inform CT of events. This situation should be avoided through consultation with the class teacher beforehand.}

If it's OK with everyone, I would like to record what is said so that I can listen to it again later on and make sure I have understood everything correctly. Is that OK? Also, when I do write about our discussions I will not use anyone's real name.

Group Rules

To help this group discussion to go well there are some rules...

1. Try not to interrupt if someone is talking – give everybody a chance to speak
2. Listen carefully

Appendix 2

3. Speak slowly and clearly

4. Respect other's privacy { *This is about understanding that what we discuss here, shouldn't be talked about outside of this room. Everyone has the right to privacy so let's try and respect that.* }

Could everyone write their name on a white label please.

Does anyone have any questions? OK then let's start...

START RECORDING

Opening Questions

1a. First could we go round and could everyone tell me their name and when they started in this school?

Prompt: Some of you may have started in nursery, and some of you may have started later, in Year 2, 3, 4 or 5 maybe.

1b. What's the best thing about this school?

Introductory Question

2. Was this your first school?

*Prompts: Did you go to another school before coming here?
Where was that school?*

Transition Question

[Now, what I would like you to do is think back to when you first started this school, when it was all very new to you]

3. What was it like for you when you first started this school? {Discuss}

Prompts: Here is a scale from 0 to 10...

0 says 'it was very hard' (thumbs down)

5 says 'it was OK' (side thumb)

10 says 'it was very easy' (thumbs up)

[Remember we are still thinking about when you first started this school, where would you put the arrow?]

Appendix 2

Key Questions

[Now still thinking back to when you started this school, I'd like you to think about how you felt back then. Here is a 'Feelings Fan'. On this there are some faces showing different feelings or emotions. There is happy, sad, upset (crying), angry, excited, confused, scared, worried and frustrated. There is also a blank one for you to fill in if you want to.]

4a How did you feel when you first started this school?

[You can pick more than one face. First let's say which faces we have chosen]

4b. What made you feel like that?

Prompt: {Only use if pupils are struggling to answer}

Show pictures of different possible scenarios e.g. speaking, playing, friends,
teachers, working, eating, family.

[Going back to this scale, before I asked you to think about what it was like for you when you first started this school. Now I would like you to think about how things are now.....]

5. What is it like for you at school now?

Refer back to scale used in question 3.

6. In school, was there anything or anyone who helped you? How?

Ending Question

7a. If you had the chance to give the school your ideas about how to help all new pupils to feel happy, what would you say?

7b. If you could tell a new child coming to your school 1 important thing that would help them – what would it be?

Wrap – up

That brings our group discussion to an end. I would like to thank you for taking part.

Does anyone have any questions for me?

Is everyone OK?

If anyone would like to talk to me about how this discussion has affected them then we can have a chat about it if you want. Just let me know if you would like that and I will arrange that.

Group Rules

1. Don't interrupt



2. Listen



**3. Speak slowly
and clearly**



**4. Respect
other's privacy**



Thank you!

Appendix 4



Happy



Sad

Feedback Summary from Emotional Literacy Checklist Data (Phase 1)
Doctoral Research Project

You may recall me asking for your support in completing the Emotional Literacy Checklists with your Year 5 and Year 6 pupils last academic year (June 2009). In addition to this you also very kindly completed Teacher Checklists for each of your pupils, and you provided me with a language proficiency score based on a 4 point scale: 1 – new to English;

2 – becoming familiar with English;	}	English Language Learners (ELL)
3 – becoming confident in English;		
4 – fluent in English.	}	ENG

My main objective was to see if the scores obtained in the Emotional Literacy Checklists were different for pupils who were English Language Learners (ELL) compared to those who spoke English fluently (ENG).

The Emotional Literacy provided me with an overall Pupil score (from the self report Pupil checklists), and an overall Teacher score (from the Teacher checklists). The Teacher score could then be broken down into the following 5 sub-scale scores:

Empathy; Motivation; Self-awareness; Self-regulation; and Social skills.

I compared the checklist scores of pupils you scored as 1-3 on the above language scale, to those who you felt were 4 on the scale. I have provided the key findings from all my data, and then key findings from the data obtained from your school's pupils.

My overall key findings (based on data from 2 schools) were that:

- 106 pupil participants were involved, 29.2% (31) of which were considered to be ELL pupils.
- ELL pupils scored themselves as having greater emotional needs than fluent English speaking pupils, or ENG
- Teachers scored ELL pupils as having greater emotional needs in comparison to ENG
- The greatest differences in scores when comparing ELL to ENG on the Teacher sub-scales were for the Self-Awareness, and the Motivation scores.
- The least differences in scores were for the Self-Regulation and Empathy scores.

Appendix 5a
School 1 Data

In summary:

- 51 pupil participants were involved from your school, 28 from Year 5, and 23 from Year 6.
- 23.5% (12) of these participants were considered to be English Language Learners (ELL) by their class teachers
- ELL pupils scored themselves as less emotionally literate than fluent English speaking pupils, or ENG pupils, i.e. ELL pupil self-report scores indicate they have greater emotional needs compared to ENG.
- Teacher scores also indicate that they feel ELL pupils have greater emotional needs compared to ENG pupils
- The greatest difference found when comparing Teacher sub-scale scores for ELL and ENG pupils was for the Self-Awareness scale.
- The least difference was found for the Empathy Teacher sub-scale.

Below is a table with a summary of the data for School 1 pupil participants:

	Pupil Score	Teacher Score	Empathy	Motivation	Self-Awareness	Self-Regulation	Social Skills
	(Max 100)	(Max 80)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)
Overall Mean (T51)	75.1	68	14.4	12.5	12.6	13.8	14.86
ENG Mean (T39)	76.4	69.6	14.6	12.8	13	14.1	15.1
ELL Mean (T12)	71.2	63.2	13.7	11.6	11.3	12.8	14
Difference in Means	5.2	6.4	0.9	1.2	1.7	1.3	1.1

Appendix 5b
Feedback Summary from Emotional Literacy Checklist Data (Phase 1)
Doctoral Research Project

You may recall me asking for your support in completing the Emotional Literacy Checklists with your Year 5 and Year 6 pupils last academic year (June 2009). In addition to this you also very kindly completed Teacher Checklists for each of your pupils, and you provided me with a language proficiency score based on a 4 point scale: 1 – new to English;

2 – becoming familiar with English;	}	English Language Learners (ELL)
3 – becoming confident in English;		
4 – fluent in English.	}	ENG

My main objective was to see if the scores obtained in the Emotional Literacy Checklists were different for pupils who were English Language Learners (ELL) compared to those who spoke English fluently (ENG).

The Emotional Literacy provided me with an overall Pupil score (from the self report Pupil checklists), and an overall Teacher score (from the Teacher checklists). The Teacher score could then be broken down into the following 5 sub-scale scores:

Empathy; Motivation; Self-awareness; Self-regulation; and Social skills.

I compared the checklist scores of pupils you scored as 1-3 on the above language scale, to those who you felt were 4 on the scale. I have provided the key findings from all my data, and then key findings from the data obtained from your school's pupils.

My overall key findings (based on data from 2 schools) were that:

- 106 pupil participants were involved, 29.2% (31) of which were considered to be ELL pupils.
- ELL pupils scored themselves as having greater emotional needs than fluent English speaking pupils, or ENG
- Teachers scored ELL pupils as having greater emotional needs in comparison to ENG
- The greatest differences in scores when comparing ELL to ENG on the Teacher sub-scales were for the Self-Awareness, and the Motivation scores.
- The least differences in scores were for the Self-Regulation and Empathy scores.

Appendix 5b
School 2 Data

In summary:

- 55 pupil participants were involved from your school, 34 from Year 5, and 21 from year 6.
- Of these, 34.5% (19) were considered to be English Language Learners (ELL) by their teachers.
- ELL pupils scored themselves as less emotionally literate in comparison to ENG pupils i.e. ELL pupil self-report scores indicate they have greater emotional needs compared to ENG.
- Teacher scores indicate they felt ELL pupils have greater emotional needs compared to ENG.
- The greatest differences in Teacher sub-scale scores when comparing ELL to ENG were for the Empathy, Motivation and Self-Awareness scales.
- The least differences were in the Self-Regulation, and Social Skills scales.

Below is a table with a summary of the data for School 2's pupil participants:

	Pupil Score	Teacher Score	Empathy	Motivation	Self-Awareness	Self-Regulation	Social Skills
	(Max 100)	(Max 80)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)	(Max 16)
Overall Mean (T55)	76.1	69.3	14.3	13.4	13.2	13.7	14
ENG Mean (T36)	77.5	72.2	14.9	14	13.8	14.2	14.6
ELL Mean (T19)	73.5	63.7	13.2	12.3	12.1	13	13.2
Difference in Means	4	8.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.2	1.4

Appendix 6

Teacher Interview Script

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview. As you know I am conducting these interviews as a follow on from the Emotional Literacy Checklists that were completed by pupils in your class.

Phase 1 Summary

Before we begin the interview – I would like to give you a brief summary of the findings from the first phase of my research.....

What I would like to do now is discuss these issues a little further. I envisage it will take us between 20-40 minutes – is that OK?

Ethical Considerations

If it's OK with you I would like to audio record this discussion, for obvious reasons. Your identity will remain anonymous in my doctoral report, and all content will remain confidential.

If at any point you decide that you no longer want to participate in this interview, or you would like me to stop recording please say so and we will stop.

I would also like the opportunity to feedback my findings to the school with the possibility of using the information I have gathered to inform the school of potential areas for further development.

Questions

[As you are aware I am interested in looking into the needs of pupils who are English Language learners]

1. Could you briefly mention the extent of your experiences of working with ELL pupils?
2. In your opinion is it important for all pupils to experience emotional well being as part of their school life, and if so why?
3. From your experience, how would you describe the emotional needs of ELL pupils?

Appendix 6

4. What aspects of their (ELL) school life would you say have the greatest impact on their ability to achieve emotional wellbeing and why?
5. How would you say the emotional needs of ELL pupils differ from those of fluent English speaking pupils?
6. How do you try to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils in your class?
7. In your opinion, what other aspects of your practice or that of other members of school staff supports the emotional well being of ELL pupils?

[Finally...]

8. What more do you think could be done in or for schools to support the emotional well being of ELL pupils?

[Thank you very much for you time and participation. A brief summary of my findings can be made available for you should you request it.]

Appendix 7

Dear Parent/Guardian

***** School has been working closely with *****, who is an educational psychologist in doctoral training working within *****'s Children's Services. She is currently completing her training in affiliation with the University of Manchester.

***** is interested in exploring how emotional literacy can help pupils achieve at school. Emotional Literacy is the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions. She is working with our school using an emotional literacy checklist with pupils in years 5 and 6, and is interested in how schools could use this information to support the emotional development of pupils.

The checklist consists of 25 questions and asks pupils to think about their emotional traits and tendencies. Pupils will be asked to complete the checklists this school term and it should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. School staff will provide all pupils with support when completing it. I will also complete a similar checklist for each pupil. Information such as a pupil's age, gender, ethnic background, home language etc. will be collated using school records. Following this, pupils will be chosen randomly to participate in an audio recorded focus group discussion at school with their friends, lasting no more than 30 minutes. You will be contacted directly if your child is selected for these, and your permission will be verbally sought.

The findings from this research project will be discussed as part of *****'s doctoral thesis which will be completed in September 2010. Participation is voluntary, and your child will have the option to withdraw themselves if they wish to. All information will remain anonymous and confidential. If you would like to withdraw your child from participating in this project, please let me know by returning the reply slip below. ***If you are happy for your child to participate then you do not need to do anything.***

I would like to thank you in anticipation for your support. If you have any further queries please feel free to come and talk to me, or you can contact ***** directly on *****. She would be happy to answer any questions you may have.

Yours sincerely

Insert Class Teacher name

Title

I ***do not*** want my child to participate in the Emotional Literacy project lead by *****
(Educational Psychologist in doctoral training).

Child's Name _____ Class _____

Parent Signature _____

Appendix 8 – Year Group 6

Lang Score	Pupil ELC	Teacher ELC	Emp	Mot	SA	SR	SS	Gender	Ethnic	Home Country	Home Lang	SEN
2	73	57	13	12	10	5	16	F	Asian-Othr	Iraq	Kurdish	
3	76	73	16	14	15	16	16	F	Wht-Othr	Lith	Lithuanian	
4	70	80	16	16	16	16	16	F	Wht-Brtsh	UK	English	
4	71	44	9	8	9	7	11	F	Indian	UK	English	
4	69	62	13	12	12	11	14	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	85	73	15	12	14	16	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	70	55	12	10	11	10	12	F	Asian-Other	Iraq	Kurdish	
3	81	63	13	12	11	14	13	M	Pakist	Pakst	Urdu	
4	74	78	16	16	15	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	90	79	16	16	16	15	16	F	Pakist	UK	Urdu	
4	56	51	13	7	9	12	10	F	Wht-Brtsh	UK		
3	73	42	9	8	9	6	10	M	Asian-Oth	Afghn	Farsi	
4	74	78	16	16	14	16	16	M	Mxd-Wht&Blck	UK	English	
4	63	77	16	13	16	16	16	F	Mxd-Wht&Blck	UK	English	
4	73	78	16	16	15	16	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	63	79	16	15	16	16	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	69	72	16	11	13	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	66	76	16	13	15	16	16	F	Pakst	UK	Urdu	
4	74	45	8	8	11	7	11	M	Pakst	UK	Urdu	
4	90	70	15	13	13	16	13	M	Indian	Germ	Punjabi	
4	69	77	16	13	16	16	16	F	BlckCrbn	UK	English	
4	80	74	15	13	16	15	15	F	Pakst	UK	Urdu	
1	70	62	13	11	9	16	13	F	Wht-Othr	Latvi	Latvian	
4	84	75	16	16	13	15	15	M	Asian-Other	SrLank	Sinhala	
4	59	85	11	12	14	10	12	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	55	50	8	12	9	10	11	M	Wht-Brtsh	UK	English	Stmnt
4	75	80	16	16	16	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	65	76	16	15	14	15	16	F	Pakst	UK	Punjabi	
4	80	77	16	16	16	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	77	68	16	12	13	14	13	F	Wht-Brtsh	UK	English	SA

4	78	59	11	12	14	10	12	F	Mxd-Wht&Blck	UK	English	
3	75	57	12	11	10	13	11	M	Pakst	UK	Urdu	Stmnt
3	75	57	12	11	10	13	11	M	Pakst	UK	Urdu	Stmnt
3	80	69	15	12	13	15	14	F	Indian	UK	English	Stmnt
3	70	80	16	16	16	16	16	F	Wht-Othr	Lith	Lithuania n	
4	76	80	16	16	16	16	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	67	65	15	11	11	13	15	F	Blck-Crbn	UK	English	Stmnt
3	70	55	10	12	12	10	11	F	Pakst	UK	Urdu	SA
4	67	76	16	15	15	15	15	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	94	71	15	15	15	12	14	M	Wht-Brtsh	UK	English	
3	71	46	9	11	9	8	9	M	Pakst	UK	Urdu	Stmnt
4	94	71	16	12	14	15	14	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	73	58	12	11	11	13	11	M	Wht-Brtsh	UK	English	Stmnt
3	75	71	15	14	13	15	14	M	Blck-Crbn	UK	English	Stmnt

Appendix 8 – Year Group 5

Lang Score	Pupil ELC	Teacher ELC	Emp	Mot	SA	SR	SS	Gender	Ethnc	Hm Cntry	Home Lang	SEN
3	60	67	15	8	12	16	16	M	Pkstn	Saud Arab	Urdu	
4	60	58	10	12	11	11	14	M	Indian	UK	English	
4	66	67	14	11	12	14	15	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
2	75	68	15	13	12	14	14	F	Wht-Othr	Pol	Polish	
4	78	75	16	14	13	16	16	M	Pkstn	UK	English	
4	62	69	15	12	13	13	16	F	Pkstn	UK	English	
3	74	75	16	14	13	16	16	M	Wht-Othr	Bulg	Bulgarian	
4	80	66	14	12	12	12	16	M	Pkstn	UK	Punjabi	
4	99	78	16	16	16	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	96	75	16	14	13	16	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	83	76	16	15	13	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	88	72	16	13	13	15	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	75	74	16	13	13	16	16	F	Wht-Othr	Lith	Lithuania n	
4	78	78	16	16	14	16	16	M	Mxd-Othr	UK	English	

4	69	65	15	12	10	12	16	M	Wht-Brts	UK	English	
4	80	64	12	12	12	12	15	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
2	62	64	15	12	11	13	14	M	Asn-Othr	Iraq	Kurdish	
4	84	68	14	12	12	14	16	M	Wht-Irsh	UK	English	
4	69	75	16	15	13	15	16	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	
4	88	78	16	16	15	16	15	F	Indian	UK	Urdu	
4	82	63	15	8	10	14	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	72	67	15	12	10	14	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	83	65	15	12	10	12	16	M	Indian	India	Punjabi	
3	65	58	12	12	10	12	12	M	Asn-Othr	Afgh n	Farsi	
4	77	67	14	12	13	14	14	M	Indian	UK	English	
4	80	72	15	14	13	14	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	92	52	11	8	9	12	12	F	Wht-Brts	UK	English	
2	80	72	15	14	14	15	14	M	Wht-Othr	Pol	Polish	
4	81	75	16	14	14	16	15	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	
1	92	64	15	11	12	12	14	F	Asian Other	Iraq	Kurdish	
2	84	74	15	12	15	16	16	M	Asian Other	Afgh n	Pushto	
4	87	73	16	13	13	16	15	M	Black-African	Holl	Flemish	
4	64	76	15	16	14	16	15	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	SA
4	83	76	16	15	14	15	16	F	Indian	UK	Gujrati	
4	88	76	16	15	14	16	15	F	Blck-Crbn	Jam ai	English	
4	79	74	16	14	14	16	14	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	75	68	14	12	13	14	15	F	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	
3	69	71	16	15	13	12	15	M	Wht-Othr	Lith	Lithuania n	
3	75	66	14	13	12	14	13	M	Wht-Brts	UK	English	Stm nt
4	88	73	16	14	14	15	14	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	89	80	16	16	16	16	16	F	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	74	73	15	14	14	16	14	M	Blck-Crbn	UK	English	SA
4	72	73	15	16	13	15	14	F	Pkstn	UK	English	
4	83	76	16	14	15	15	16	M	Mxd Wht&Blck C	UK	English	
4	86	67	15	12	13	13	14	M	Pkstn	UK	Punjabi	SA
4	75	71	16	14	13	15	13	M	Pkstn	UK	Punjabi	
3	61	48	8	10	11	8	11	F	Blck-Crbn	UK	English	Stm nt
4	75	63	13	13	12	11	14	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	
4	77	80	16	16	16	16	16	F	Wht-Brts	UK	English	
2	68	60	14	11	11	12	12	M	Wht-Othr	Lith	Lithuania n	

4	78	75	16	14	13	14	16	M	Blck-Afrcn	Gha n	Basi	
4	79	76	16	15	14	15	16	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
4	71	63	13	13	12	12	13	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	SA
4	66	58	10	13	13	9	13	F	Mxd Wht&Blck C	UK	English	
4	70	64	13	13	12	12	14	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	
3	86	74	15	14	14	15	16	F	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	SA
4	74	72	16	13	14	14	15	M	Blck-Crbn	UK	English	
4	86	69	14	13	12	15	15	M	Wht-Brts	UK	English	
4	66	57	10	12	12	9	11	M	Indian	UK	Punjabi	
3	71	74	15	13	14	16	16	F	Asn-Othr	Afgh n	Dari	
4	75	73	15	14	13	15	16	M	Pkstn	UK	Urdu	SA

Appendix 9

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks				
LANG		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PUIPEL	ENG	75	57.45	4309.00
	ELL	31	43.94	1362.00
	Total	106		
TEACHEL	ENG	75	60.64	4548.00
	ELL	31	36.23	1123.00
	Total	106		

Test Statistics ^a		
	PUIPEL	TEACHEL
Mann-Whitney U	866.000	627.000
Wilcoxon W	1362.000	1123.000
Z	-2.062	-3.724
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.039	.000

a. Grouping Variable: LANG

Appendix 10

Developed Pupil Thematic Analysis Photographs



The green post-its represent initial codes or quotes given by ENG pupils, the orange post-its represent those given by ELL pupils. Each post-it represents a comment made by an individual.

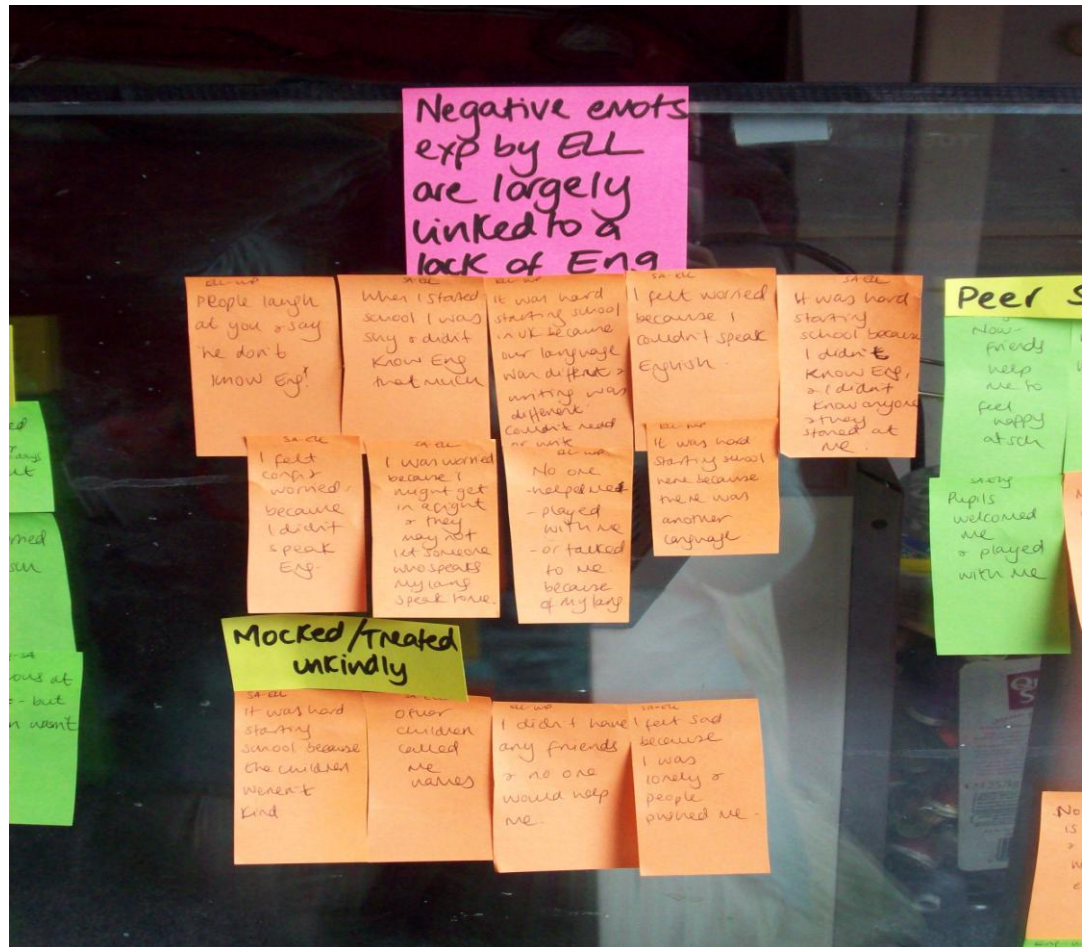
Key themes are on pink post-its, and sub-themes on yellow/pink post-its.



Appendix10 continued



Appendix 10 continued



Appendix 11

Developed Teacher Thematic Analysis Photographs



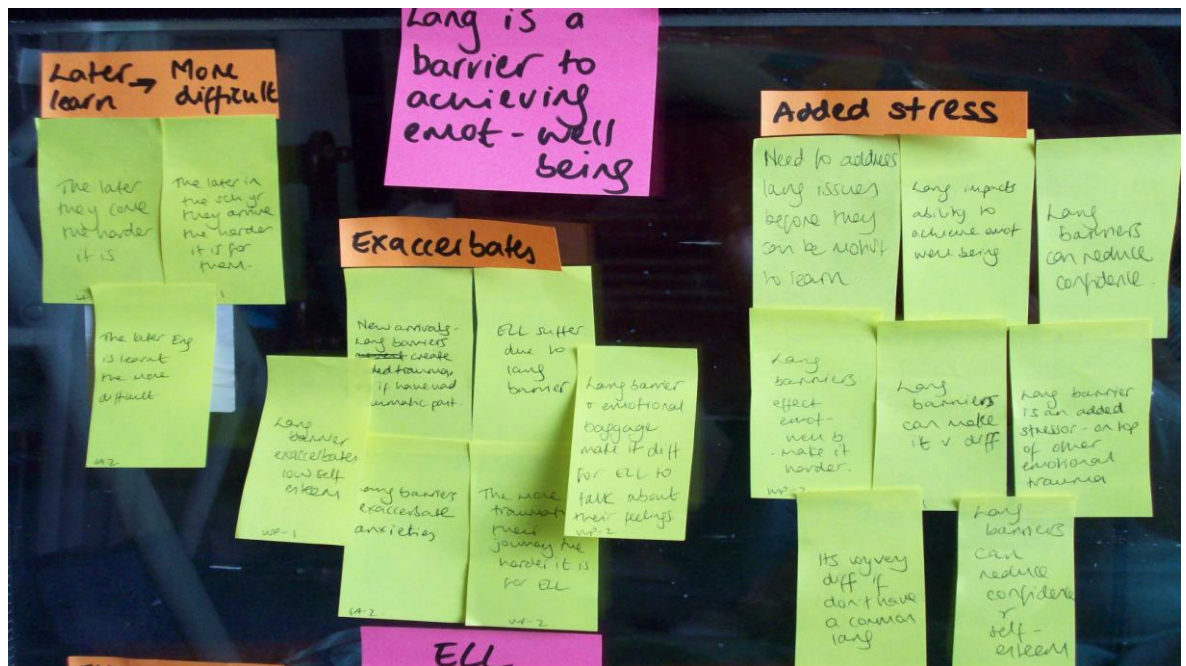
Each yellow post-it represent a comment made by an individual. The key themes are on the pink post-its, and sub themes on orange and green post-its.



Appendix 11 continued.



Appendix 11 continued



Appendix 11 continued.



Appendix 12

Correlations

			PUILEL	TEACHEL
Spearman's rho	PUILEL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.250**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.010
		N	106	106
	TEACHEL	Correlation Coefficient	.250**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.
		N	106	106

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).