**Identifying dyslexia in children learning English as an additional
language: primary school teachers' perceptions of the main challenges:
A Somerset study.**

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British Council ELT Master's Dissertation Awards 2018:

Special Commendation

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A Somerset study.

This dissertation is submitted in part fulfilment of the regulations for the

MA TESOL.

2017

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the challenges primary school teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language. Quantitative data was collected through an online survey tool, augmented by qualitative data in the form of semi-structured interviews to investigate the teachers' perceptions of the main barriers to identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. Two themes emerged from the literature review which led to two further areas of investigation: (1) teachers' experiences of relevant training, and (2) teachers' perceptions of the support they receive with regards to children learning EAL with learning differences. The language barrier was identified as a key challenge to identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL, and how to assess children learning EAL for dyslexia was a source of confusion. Evidence suggested that teachers are not adequately trained through initial teacher training or continued professional development to identify dyslexia in children learning EAL. Furthermore, professional guidance and support from Somerset's local authority Ethnic Minority Achievement and Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES) is limited in its end-service delivery. This paper highlights a significant gap in provisions for children learning EAL with dyslexia in Somerset, and has wider implications for teachers, training and development agencies, schools and local authorities.

GLOSSARY

CPD	Continued professional development
EAL	English as an additional language
EMA/TES	Ethnic Minority Achievement and Traveller Education Service
ITT	Initial teacher training
LS	Refers to researcher in interviews
L1	First or home/native language
L2	Second or additional language. For the purpose of this paper: English.
n.d.	No date
n.p.	No page number
NQT	Newly qualified teacher
Resp. B.	Refers to respondent B in interview
Resp.A.	Refers to respondent A in interview
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCo	Special Educational Needs Coordinator
SpLD	Specific learning differences
TA	Teaching assistant
UK	United Kingdom
URL	Uniform Resource Locator (web address)
…	Indicates a pause in the interview exchange

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1. INTRODUCTION

This introduction will present my personal engagement with language learning and specific learning differences, followed by a background to the study highlighting my research aims and objectives. This section will conclude with a summary of my research questions and an overall outline of this paper.

1.1. Personal background

When I had the opportunity to study French and German at secondary school I was incredibly excited. I was a keen and motivated language student with dreams of traveling the world. However, the teaching methods employed for these subjects was that of rote learning; repetition, memorisation and more repetition. This approach did not suit my learning style, I needed to be able to contextualise what was being delivered in the classroom with real-life experiences. I quickly became frustrated and disengaged, with an emerging belief that there was something wrong with me as I was not retaining the language structures in the same way as my peers.

My feelings of incompetence during this formative time led me to develop a very negative learner identity around the subject of languages. I realise now that a more experiential learning approach would have given me many more opportunities for meaningful language learning; one whereby the student is able to take an active role in their learning journey

rather than a passive one. I had the desire to learn, and with a little more understanding in different learner styles from teachers, I believe I could have been a very successful language student.

Nevertheless, the 'one size fits all' approach to my language learning experience has forever diminished my confidence when considering learning a foreign language. What I have learned from this important personal experience is that every child has a different learning style. Every one of them is unique, and with the right understanding of a variety of pedagogical strategies from teachers and support staff, they are not only capable of learning but achieving their full potential. This has led to my very special interest in provisions for children learning English as an additional language in our mainstream schools, and more specifically investigating how we are supporting children learning English as an additional language whom may have a learning difference such as dyslexia.

1.2.   Background to the study: where are all the dyslexic EAL children?

This Masters in TESOL has furthered my reading and fuelled my interest in language learning and specific learning differences, and has ultimately led me to study policy and provisions in UK classrooms for children learning English as an additional language (EAL). The Department for Education classifies children learning EAL, as those who are 'exposed to a language at home that is known or believed to be other than English' (DfE, 2017a, p. 10). The 2017 census goes on to identify that 20.6% of pupils in our UK primary schools are learning EAL; a consistent 0.5 percentage increase since January 2016. This rise in children learning EAL has

been one of the most remarkable changes to our school population to date (British Council, 2017).

It is important to clarify that children learning EAL are not a homogenous group; they can include children who enter the mainstream classroom with very limited English, and those who are fluent but speak one or more languages at home (Toohey, 2000). Mainstream provisions are just as varied as the demographic for EAL learners, with some rural schools having a small number of EAL learners, and some urban schools having a very high percentage. There will be school settings who have access to bilingual support staff and specialist EAL teams, while others may have very little support at all. What is apparent is that the overall responsibility rests with the experience and skills of the mainstream teacher. Not only do they need to meet the language learning needs of children learning EAL, they must ensure that they are accessing the curriculum with the same progression as their monolingual peers (British Council, 2016; QCA, 2000).

This paper will be focussing on the specific learning difference dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language. For the purpose of this paper, dyslexia will be referred to as a specific learning difference, and not a specific learning difficulty. As a researcher, I believe It is important to choose the right terminology and as Mackay states, 'A learning difficulty implies that something is 'wrong' with the learner, leading to a focus on identifying weakness rather than celebrating strengths' (2012, p. 5). In the UK, dyslexia is categorised under the umbrella term *specific learning difference* (SpLD) alongside dyspraxia, dyscalculia,

attention deficit disorder and attention hyperactivity disorder. It is important to remember that these conditions are not a reflection of the learners' intelligence, but they will have a significant impact on their ability to learn and retain new information alongside core academic skills (BDA, n.d.). Dyslexia is a language disorder that can impact negatively on a learner's ability to read, write and spell. It can be found in all languages across the globe and is the most common of the specific learning differences (Peer and Reid, 2016, p. 9; BDA, n.d.).

However, the Department for Education states that children learning EAL are less likely to have a special educational need compared to their monolingual peers (DfE, 2017b). Their 2017 school census shows that only 8.9% of children learning EAL, who are on the SEN register, are receiving support for a specific learning difference that could include dyslexia (DfE, 2017c). Whereas 91% of native English speaking children on the SEN register are receiving SEN support for a SpLD (DfE, 2017c). Considering rising numbers of EAL children in our primary classrooms, and that 1 in 10 people in the UK are affected by dyslexia (Dyslexia Action, n.d.), the disparity between those two figures is concerning. The complexities of identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL are vast, with many teachers struggling to differentiate language needs from learning needs (Kormos and Smith, 2012; Frederickson and Cline, 2015). This could explain why children with EAL are so under-represented in dyslexia intervention programmes (Mortimore *et al*., 2012). Furthermore, it supports the emerging theories of the serious under-identification of dyslexia in children learning EAL, and raises the question: where are all the dyslexic EAL children? (Hutchinson *et al*., 2004).

1.3. Research questions and focus

To understand what the barriers are to identifying a specific learning difference in a child learning EAL, I began to explore UK research surrounding teachers' perspectives on their preparation to work with children learning EAL. I found a significant number of studies that concluded newly qualified teachers (NQTs) do not feel fully prepared in EAL learning or teaching (Hall and Cajkler, 2008; Cajkler and Hall, 2009; Cajkler and Hall, 2012; Wardman, 2013; Foley *et al*., 2013). Despite growing numbers of children learning EAL entering our schools, our NQTs are not feeling adequately trained in language pedagogy to meet their needs. Without an understanding of how languages are learned, how can we expect teachers to differentiate between a language and learning need?

Following on from this, I began to consider developments in UK research around the subject area of EAL and dyslexia. Whilst there is an abundance of research available on dyslexia and how it may present in primary age monolingual English-speaking children, there is a paucity of research and guidance surrounding children with dyslexia learning EAL (Hutchinson *et al*., 2004; Mortimore *et al*., 2012). The academic underachievement of children learning EAL has been a consistent focus in pedagogical research, but it would appear that the complexities of identifying and supporting dyslexia in children learning EAL is an area that has gone relatively unexplored (Mortimore *et al*., 2012; Nijakowska, 2010; Hutchinson *et al*., 2004). Chapter 2 of this paper will review and discuss research in this area in further detail.

This study has set out to investigate the challenges of identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL from the perspective of the primary school teacher. The focus was on primary teachers in Somerset, to gain a local perspective on a wider national issue. The key research question was: *what are the main challenges primary school teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language?* Two further questions emerged from the review of literature in Chapter 2: *Do teachers feel adequately prepared through relevant training to teach a child learning English with dyslexia? Do teachers feel they have access to relevant support and guidance when presented with a child with dyslexia learning EAL?*

1.4. Dissertation outline

This paper begins with a literature review examining issues surrounding the identification of dyslexia in primary age children before turning to an investigation into current provisions for children learning EAL in the UK. The review of literature will conclude with a discussion surrounding research in the field of dyslexia in children learning EAL. Following the literature review in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 will present this study's research question, design and methods. Findings from this study will be reported on and discussed in Chapter 4, and finally a summary of the key findings and limitations will be considered in Chapter 5.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first will consider the definition of dyslexia as a specific learning difference, and will explore research on the importance of early identification and key issues surrounding the identification and assessment of dyslexia in primary school age children. The second will be an exploration into the challenges of teaching English as an additional language in the mainstream inclusive setting. The third section will review current UK research concerning dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language (EAL). This chapter will conclude with a summary of the above, and discuss how they relate to the research questions presented in Chapter 1.

2.1. Dyslexia: the challenge of early identification and interventions

As previously discussed, dyslexia is the most common of the specific learning differences (SpLD) and it affects how an individual processes language and in turn acquires and applies basic literacy skills (Neanon, 2011; Mackay, 2012). The first report of dyslexia was published in the British Medical Journal in 1886 by British doctor Pringle Morgan. Originally referred to as 'word blindness', it was the general consensus among medical professionals that it was a visual processing issue (Snowling, 1996). Visual deficits are still an important factor to consider when a child is presenting with unexpected difficulties in acquiring basic literacy skills, however todays medical community are in agreement that dyslexia is part of the wider spectrum of language disorders (Snowling, 1996; Kormos, 2017; Kormos and Smith, 2012).

Despite the general agreement amongst professionals that dyslexia is a language disorder, accurate and consistent definitions are problematic (Snowling, 1996; Hall, 2009). This is because the signs and symptoms of dyslexia vary and manifest themselves differently from person to person; therefore, the process of neatly defining this complex condition is incredibly difficult. The International Dyslexia Association has adopted the following definition:

> Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge. (2002, n.p.)

There have been many attempts to provide a clear and concise understanding of the difficulties people with dyslexia face (Frith, 1999; Rose, 2009; BDA; n.d.). According to Frith, dyslexia needs to be defined at four levels: biological, cognitive, behavioural and environmental (1999). However, there are difficulties defining dyslexia at all four of these levels due to the 'dimensional' nature of the condition (Kormos, 2017, p. 4). As stated in the Rose Review, dyslexia should be 'thought of as a continuum not a distinct category and there are no clear cut-off points' (2009, p. 11). Elliott and Grigorenko (2014) argue that dyslexia is nothing more than a general learning difficulty, and that assessment and specialist provision is a waste of precious funds as dyslexic children are no different to their peers who are struggling with literacy

related difficulties (Snowling, 2012; Neanon, 2011). Nonetheless, investigations into the challenges of dyslexia continue in the scientific communities, albeit with some controversy, and our understanding of dyslexia and its complexities is constantly evolving and 'far from complete' (Kormos and Smith, 2012, p. 21).

Early identification of dyslexia is of the utmost importance for the long-term success of the learner, with a wealth of research supporting the benefits of early intervention (Cline and Shamsi, 2000; Deponio *et al*., 2000; Everatt *et al*., 2000; Hutchinson *et al*., 2004; Snowling *et al*., 2011; Snowling, 2012; Mortimore *et al*., 2012 and Neanon, 2011). The Special Educational Needs (SEN) Code of Practice, produced by the Department for Education (2015) clearly states:

> Providers must have arrangements in place to support children with SEN or disabilities. These arrangements should include a clear approach to identifying and responding to SEN. The benefits of early identification are widely recognised – identifying need at the earliest point, and then making effective provision, improves long-term outcomes for children. (2015, p. 79)

Early identification will allow the implementation of targeted interventions and support before the learner descends too far into a cycle of low self-esteem as a result of underachievement (Kormos, 2017; Snowling, 2012; Neanon, 2011). As well as academic considerations, schools must consider the emotional impact of dyslexia on learning and achievement. Children with dyslexia will quickly become aware that their peers are making better progress in literacy, as well as finding the work easier and less exhausting than they do (Neanon, 2011). Pavey suggests it will influence the 'pecking order' and social construction within the classroom (2007, p. 4). Although most educators agree that dyslexia

is not a reflection of intelligence, for a child that continues to be unable to complete basic age appropriate literacy tasks in class, it can have a detrimental effect on their confidence (Kormos, 2017; Snowling, 2012). Moreover, if unidentified and unsupported, that negative assumption of their abilities will shape their learner identity, and could possibly continue to affect their confidence to engage in academic tasks throughout their educational lives (Neanon, 2011).

So, what should teachers be looking for in their young learners? The difficulty is thus: just because a child is progressing with slower than average literacy skills, teachers must not automatically assume there may be an underlying dyslexic-type learning difference present (Frith, 1999; Snowling, 2012). Furthermore, a deficit in reading proficiency is merely a behavioural symptom of the neurobiological disorder, and as an isolated factor is not a firm indicator that dyslexia is present (Kormos and Smith, 2012; Frith, 1999). Many children experience a disparity in their general ability and reading skills at some stage during their development; it is possible that such a delay is merely temporary, especially if the child is learning English as an additional language. However, it is a contradiction that teachers must be able to differentiate (Frith, 1999). Moreover, under the SEN Code of Practice (DfE, 2015) teachers have a responsibility to identify any issues that may cause a barrier to the child's learning (Hall, 2009). This raises further questions around adequate support and training for teachers to be able to confidently identify a dyslexic learning difference versus a natural temporary delay in their development. Furthermore, how does this affect children in our mainstream schools who are learning English as an additional language - what is being done to enable teachers to establish a specific learning difference over a lack of language

proficiency? There will be an extensive discussion of current research surrounding EAL and dyslexia later in this chapter (see 2.3).

The National Union of Teachers (2006) conducted a survey with over 100 teachers from a diverse range of local authorities across the United Kingdom. From those 100 respondents, only 33% said they felt confident to teach children with dyslexia (Dyslexia Action, 2009). Teachers also reported on the lack of adequate training alongside limited access to appropriate resources to support those children affected, with one respondent stating, 'I support the idea of inclusion in schools. However, without appropriate training and support in the classroom, teachers cannot do the job effectively' (Garner, 2007, n.p.). Furthermore, in 2009 the Department for Education commissioned their 'No to Failure' report. Its purpose was to assess the provisions in mainstream schools for dyslexic children. However, what the report uncovered was that children with dyslexia are not accessing the support they need, as they are not being identified by their teachers (Dyslexia Action, 2009). The report went on to reveal that 55% of students that were assessed and presented signs of dyslexia, were not on the register for special educational needs and subsequently not receiving any targeted early intervention (Dyslexia Action, 2009). New statistics were released in 2013 through the Driver Youth Trust's 'Fish in the Tree report: Why we are failing our children with Dyslexia' (DYT, 2013). The report sadly exposed the continued lack of progress in this area and reinforced the same issues; with 52% of teachers stating they had received no explicit training on dyslexia and 74% feeling unsatisfied with the level of instruction they had received on dyslexia during initial teacher training (DYT, 2013).

Considering that early identification of dyslexia in the primary years is imperative to the academic development and self-esteem of the learner (Neanon, 2011; Dyslexia Action, 2009) and that the serious under-identification of students with dyslexia is prevalent, we must ask ourselves what predicting factors could possibly highlight those children at risk of dyslexia in the classroom? Much research has been conducted, especially with preschool children, into identifying potential precursors that could indicate children who were displaying dyslexic-type learning differences (Hutchinson *et al.*, 2004; Snowling *et al.*, 2011; Snowling, 2012; Dyslexia Action, 2009; McBride-Chang *et al.*, 2008). The concept of measuring individual cognitive skills, for example: phonological awareness and letter-sound awareness, have been highlighted by some researchers as possible early screening measures (Muter *et al.*, 2004). However, they do not prove to be a solid diagnostic tool for dyslexia on a case-by-case basis (Hutchinson *et al.*, 2004; Puolakanaho *et al.*, 2007; Snowling, 2012; Kormos, 2017). This raises a question over the validity of the static dyslexia assessments currently being used by our education system. If screening assessments for children with dyslexia could potentially give false positives or false negatives, then we may need to reconsider our standardised approach to early identification (Frith, 1999; Hutchinson *et al.*, 2004; Snowling, 2012; Mortimore *et al.*, 2012).

A more proactive approach needs to be adopted by teachers to avoid waiting for a child to fail before they meet the criteria for further assessment and targeted interventions; by which time damage to the learner's self-esteem and intrinsic motivation has already been done (Snowling, 2012; Neanon, 2011; Hall, 2009; Pavey, 2007). Some countries such as Australia are trialling blanket dyslexia screening for all children entering primary schools as a

solution to early identification (The Age, 2016). Blanket screening is not without its challenges, and can be seen as heavy handed and unreliable (Rose, 2009). From one extreme to another, in the UK nine out of ten teachers are receiving less than half a day's instruction on how to identify dyslexia in their learners (DYT, 2013). The Rose review made the following recommendation:

> The first step in identifying that children may have language learning difficulties, including dyslexia, is to notice those making poor progress in comparison with their typically developing peers, despite receiving high quality Wave 1 literacy teaching. Therefore, Local Authorities and the National Strategies should work with schools to make sure that they have in place good monitoring arrangements to ascertain that Wave 1 teaching is of a high quality, especially in teaching word recognition and language comprehension skills in keeping with the 'simple view of reading'. (2009, p. 43)

Furthermore, the report suggests a threefold strategic response: the first wave to be quality differentiation for the slower learners within the classroom, the second wave would follow structured small group sessions to enable opportunities to catch up, and thirdly an individualised intervention programme tailored specifically to the child. This is very similar to the Response to Intervention (RTI) method that was pioneered in America. It involves monitoring children using a programme of interventions as opposed to a snapshot of their current skills through a potentially misleading assessment (Everatt, 2012; Mortimore *et al.*, 2012). This three-wave method will reveal children most in need of support, as they will be the ones who have not responded to quality and efficacious teaching. Adopting an approach such as this means a child will be offered additional support and appropriate interventions as soon as they start falling behind (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012; Snowling, 2012).

Nevertheless, choosing the right intervention is also crucial and needs to be designed and delivered by teachers with the right comprehensive training. Snowling and Hulme (2011) reviewed several language and literacy interventions and concluded that they must be multi-sensory and well planned, with considered time for processing and revision. There should also be training in phoneme awareness as well as letter sounds, but some learners may benefit more from vocabulary training and oral skills. The teacher must be skilled in designing and delivering such interventions for them to be impactful and effective. However, to be able to do this, teachers and support staff need to have access to adequate training in dyslexia and pedagogical strategies that can support the learner. As discussed, research shows that training in dyslexia is minimal and not sufficiently preparing our teachers to meet the needs of these children (DYT, 2013). Essentially, an evaluation of school-based intervention programmes for children with dyslexia is long overdue (Snowling, 2012).

Fundamentally, there is a pressing need for early identification and targeted intervention for children with dyslexia (Neanon, 2011; Snowling, 2012; Kormos, 2017). We must be looking to better equip our primary school teachers with the relevant training and strategies to recognise and support these learners before the sense of failure becomes part of their learner identity (Coughlan, 2017; Neanon, 2011; Pavey, 2007). The time between identification and application of targeted interventions is of great concern. It could be explained by the significant lack of exposure in Initial teacher training (ITT) and continued professional development for teachers (Coughlan, 2017; Snowling and Hulme, 2011; Hall, 2009). Emphasis needs to be on swift action and not on diagnosis, and questions need to be

addressed with regards to ongoing training for teachers and teaching assistants for dyslexia awareness (Rose, 2009).

2.2.   Plunging children learning EAL into the mainstream classroom

According to government statistics, there was an increase of 74,500 children entering our primary schools in January 2017 compared to January 2016. The number of children entering our primary schools from ethnic minority groups has risen again this past year, with 32.1% of primary age pupils being of ethnic minority origin, compared to 31.4% in January 2016. Furthermore, the rise in children speaking English as an additional language has continued to expand with 20.6% of children recorded as speaking a language other than English at home; that is 0.5% more since January 2016 (DfE, 2017a). These statistics are important to review when considering provisions for children learning EAL for two reasons: firstly, they show that numbers of EAL learners in UK primary schools are steadily rising. However, access to funds for EAL is rapidly decreasing due to the devolution of the Ethnic Minority Achievement grant (Leung, 2005; Leung, 2016; Wardman, 2012; Costly, 2014).

Secondly, EAL has not been granted subject status by the National Curriculum in England, therefore EAL is not explored in any valuable depth during initial teacher training (Leung, 2005). The focus appears to be on mainstream inclusive provision and enabling children learning EAL to access the National Curriculum, forsaking explicit consideration for pedagogical approaches to what language acquisition and language learning looks like in a busy and diverse mainstream classroom. How can children learning EAL be expected to

access the curriculum without the appropriate language support? Furthermore, how can teachers provide appropriate language support without adequate training? (Wardman, 2013; Wardman, 2012; Costley, 2014; Leung, 2016; Leung, 2005).

Chen suggests there are potential dangers of 'plunging' children learning EAL into the mainstream classroom (2007, p. 36). Primarily, children have reported to feel isolated when entering a culturally, socially and linguistically alternative learning environment (Chen, 2007; Statham, 2008; Wardman, 2013). Much like the discussion earlier in this review surrounding the impact dyslexia has on a child's self-esteem and place in the classroom 'pecking order', we must consider the emotional wellbeing and self-esteem of a child learning EAL who is attempting to succeed in a curriculum that is delivered in a language that they may not understand (Pavey, 2007, p. 4). Leung and Franson (2001) highlight the difficulties teachers face when attempting to deliver curriculum content to EAL learners who do not have the appropriate level of English language to access it. Furthermore, research tells us that NQTs do not feel adequately prepared to differentiate and assess EAL learners, with one NQT stating: 'We get that you value other languages, but when they first come in what do you do?' (Cajkler and Hall, 2009, p. 165).

Foley *et al.*, (2013) and Snowling (2012) firmly believe that responsibility for EAL learners lies with *quality best practice* from the classroom teachers. Nonetheless, considering the lack of exposure to EAL pedagogy in initial teacher training as previously discussed, we can assume that most mainstream primary teachers will not be language teaching specialists and unaware of what *quality best practice* is with regards to EAL (Leung, 2005). In addition, decreasing school budgets are affecting the way resources and support are allocated to EAL,

bedevilled by current migration patterns resulting in EAL children with increasingly significant emotional trauma that could impact negatively on their language development (NALDIC, 2015; Leung, 2005; Leung, 2016; Costly, 2014).

To build on a EAL learner's self-esteem and feelings of acceptance once they have been 'plunged' into the mainstream classroom, research suggests that their first language, or L1, and home culture needs to be woven into the learning environment (Chen, 2007; Haslam *et al.,* 2005; Crosse, 2007; Scott, 2009). Cummins and Swain state, 'Acceptance of the home language in the home and school is clearly, then, one of the first steps in creating an environment where learning can occur, an environment which fosters feelings of self-worth and self-confidence' (1986, p. 101). The acknowledgement of a child's L1 in class is met with differing views in education, with some teachers believing it takes attention away from the monolingual language of instruction (Wardman, 2012). In addition, it may not always be possible for a mainstream primary teacher to allow constructive opportunities for L1 use when they are differentiating for multiple EAL learners, all of whom possibly speak a different L1, alongside the monolingual students and students with special educational needs.

However, it is essential that children learning EAL have the opportunity to use their first language to assist in the development of their thinking and production skills in English (Conteh, 2015). For these learners to succeed academically, they must acquire not only a social use of English, known as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), but an academic use of the language, known as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 2008; Conteh, 2015; Haslam *et al*., 2005). For children learning EAL entering the

primary classroom, BICS will develop quickly and easily through daily exposure to day-to-day school life. However, CALP can only be acquired in the classroom, and involves academic concepts such as critically evaluating, justifying, comparing and contrasting (Cummins, 2008). For children learning EAL, successfully acquiring CALP is heavily reliant on the development and continuation of their L1 (Gardner, 2004). Nonetheless, without the support of specially trained bilingual staff, many teachers avoid encouraging children to use a language in class that they themselves do not understand (Helot and O'Laoire, 2011).

There is no government control over the provision of EAL in our mainstream schools and no compulsory qualifications required for teachers or support staff to work with children learning EAL (Leung, 2005; Costley and Leung, 2009). This causes a huge disparity in the level of provision a child learning EAL will receive, dependant on the level of experience the teacher and subsequent support staff will have (Wardman, 2013; Arnot *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, advice from the Department for Education with regards to EAL teaching and learning appears to be focused on policy and procedures rather than effective pedagogy (Costley and Leung, 2009). Statham believes teachers will have 'less intrinsic investment' in their students learning EAL compared to the rest of their class of monolingual peers, and that the role of the teacher is to ensure opportunities for reciprocal exchanges rather than targeted language instruction (2008, p. 3).

We must be cautious that learning is not allowed to happen entirely by accident. In Cajkler and Hall's study with NQTs and EAL, one teacher states, 'And OK yes they will need lots of

reinforcement of the vocabulary but I am quite big on the power of them just absorbing it as long as they have got lots and lots and lots of access' (2012, p. 221). Absorbing language through incidental learning can be of great value, but it should not be relied upon as a main approach to language learning (Payne, 2011; Krashen, 1982). According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982), for this type of learning to be successful the teacher would need to ensure the level of comprehensible input for the child learning EAL was consistently just beyond their English language ability. However, what if there are multiple EAL learners in one class? Notwithstanding meeting the needs of the monolingual children, and children with special educational needs (Payne, 2011; Ioup, 1984; Krashen, 1982).

A lack of understanding with regards to how additional languages are learned and developed in our newly qualified teachers is cause for concern (Hall and Cajkler, 2008). However, this is not isolated to NQTs and a review of continued professional development for more experienced teachers as well as specialist professional guidance from local authority agencies such as the Ethnic Minority Achievement and Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES), is much needed (EMA/TES, 2017; Glossary of Educational Reform, 2013; Wardman, 2013). In Wardman's (2012) study of current EAL practice, it was reported that most teachers from the eight primary schools involved felt that they had not been adequately prepared through relevant local authority professional development training to confidently teach children learning EAL. There are no explicit guidelines in the curriculum as to how teachers should make reasonable adaptions for children learning EAL with it merely stating, 'Teachers should plan teaching opportunities to help pupils develop their English and should aim to provide the support pupils need to take part in all subjects' (DfE, 2014,

n.p.). Nevertheless, this implies that teachers will simply know what to do. Wardman recommends that EAL needs to feature more prominently in initial teacher training (ITT), and continued professional development (CPD) regarding EAL issues must be offered to existing teachers and TAs (2012, p. 15). However, with funding and school budgets decreasing, local authorities are becoming less able to offer adequate support. Further research into the effects of funding cuts on the provision of EAL in our mainstream schools is urgently needed.

The teaching assistant (TA) role has seen a dynamic reposition in recent times, with many TAs now contributing to the teaching of children as opposed to the historical assistance with more pastoral care duties (Blatchford *et al.,* 2009). Furthermore, the role of the TA now appears to be encompassing one-to-one and small group support for children learning EAL, and evidence suggests they do not have satisfactory language teaching qualifications to do so (Sharples *et al*., 2015; Franson, 2007; Blatchford *et al*., 2009; Wardman, 2012; Wardman, 2013). The use of TAs in our mainstream schools has regularly come under the spotlight (Blatchford *et al*., 2011; Blatchford *et al*., 2012 and Blatchford and Webster, 2013) and in the Spring of 2015 a guidance report was written highlighting the misuse of TAs as an informal teaching aid. The findings concluded that apart from a few, most TAs do not have a positive effect on students' academic attainment and are 'unprepared' in background and in training (Sharples *et al*., 2015, p. 15). Furthermore, concerns have been raised at the lack of collaboration between teachers and support staff during the planning and monitoring of interventions, and how support that involves removing the student from the classroom

environment separates the them from both the curriculum and the teacher (Blatchford *et al.*, 2011).

Many schools rely on bilingual TAs to support their children learning EAL, however with over 300 languages being spoken in our UK primary schools, and without compulsory specialist training for support staff, it is unlikely this approach will be successful across the board (Sharples *et al.,* 2015; Primary National Strategy, 2006). Nonetheless, the issue does not reside with the TAs themselves, but the way in which they are managed and deployed by school leaders (Webster and Blatchford, 2015; Blatchford *et al.*, 2012; Blatchford *et al.*, 2011). Pedagogical considerations need to be applied when using TAs to support children learning EAL, and children with specific learning differences such as dyslexia. All students deserve the provision of high quality teaching, and planning and teaching is the main responsibility of the class teacher (Webster and Blatchford, 2015). TAs are an invaluable component in our mainstream schools, but it would appear they are not prepared for the task in hand, or being put to best use (Sharples *et al.*, 2015; Webster and Blatchford, 2015; Blatchford *et al.*, 2012; Blatchford *et al.*, 2011).

Support provisions for children learning EAL has varied greatly over the years, and as Chen (2009) recognises, it is not popular to talk about removing children from the classroom for additional support, even though it is the most commonly used strategy for targeted language interventions (Bhatt *et al.*, 2004). This type of intervention is known as *withdrawal support*, and there is very little research on the benefits of such an approach due to it not

being officially endorsed by government guidelines (Costley, 2014; Wardman, 2013). There are shortfalls when relying too heavily on withdrawing children learning EAL from the classroom. The fluency and type of casual language (BICS) needed to navigate day-to-day school life is best acquired when the child with EAL is learning with their peers and as previously mentioned, it removes the student from the curriculum and the teacher (Statham, 2008; Cummins, 2001).

However, this rise in withdrawal support for EAL learners could be an indication that the current policy on inclusion, above all else, is not working at a micro level (Sikes *et al.*, 2007). It may be that we need to revise how we can provide language and curriculum support to children learning EAL at a macro level, to ensure equitable and measurable EAL provisions across the board and a clearer understanding of how that translates into 'good' practice (Glazzard, 2011; Harris *et al.,* 2001; Sikes *et al.*, 2007). Nevertheless, that does not come without its difficulties. With such a significant number of languages being spoken in our UK primary schools, and at varying degrees of proficiency, it would be a very challenging task to design a programme of support that met the language level and needs of all children learning EAL and should be the focus of further research (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012). As this paper has discussed, the majority of mainstream primary teachers will not be specifically trained in the distinctive field of EAL, yet the number of children learning EAL in our schools continues to rise (Wardman, 2013; NALDIC, 2017; DfE, 2017a; EMA/TES, 2017).

2.3. EAL and dyslexia: distinguishing the difference

So far this review has looked at the complexities of identifying dyslexia in primary age monolingual children, and discussed some of the challenges of supporting children learning EAL in the mainstream classroom. However, now we will explore the complicated issue of identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL. There is much research available for teachers on the pedagogical strategies for managing dyslexia in monolingual English-speaking children, as well as multiple means of assessments (Neanon, 2011; Pavey, 2007; Hall, 2009). However, there is very limited information with regards to the crossover of language and learning needs in children with EAL and dyslexia (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012; Hutchinson *et al.*, 2004). Let us revisit the statistics from the Department for Education that states 20.6% of our primary school children in the UK are known to speak English as an additional language (DfE, 2017a). In addition, research suggests 1 in 10 people will be affected by dyslexia (Dyslexia Action, n.d.; BDA, n.d.). Furthermore, dyslexia can be found in all languages, affecting people anywhere in the world (Peer and Reid, 2016). Considering this evidence, we can assume that a primary school teacher is likely to be presented with a child learning EAL with dyslexia at some point in their teaching career.

In the UK, there are over 300 different languages being spoken in our schools (Strand *et al.*, 2015; Everatt, 2012). The number of children learning EAL differs vastly across the local authority regions. In the 2017 census, it was recorded that 2,353 primary pupils in Somerset spoke a language at home that was known to be different from English (DfE, 2017d). There is no empirical evidence available to review how many of those 2,353 primary aged children learning EAL in Somerset are receiving additional support for dyslexia. The serious under-

identification of dyslexia in children whose first language is English has already been presented in this paper, however, we can assume from the discussion thus far that it is a more complex undertaking to identify dyslexia in a child learning EAL. A significant difficulty teachers will face is knowing when low academic progress from a child learning EAL is due to their English language proficiency, as opposed to an underlying specific learning difference (Everatt, 2012; Cline and Shamsi, 2000; Deponio *et al*., 2000; Everatt *et al*., 2000; Hutchinson *et al*., 2004; Snowling *et al*., 2011; Snowling, 2012 and Mortimore *et al*., 2012).

Conversely there is an emerging concern among researchers that some children learning EAL are being wrongly identified as having a specific learning difference due to the lack of practitioner understanding of the complexities of language acquisition, which could be attributed to lack of training (Kormos and Nijakowska, 2017; Mortimore *et al*., 2012; Hall, 2001). Children learning EAL are more likely to suffer with a deficit in their reading skills compared to their age-related monolingual peers, and comparatively 33% less likely to make good progress in their first year of primary school (Strand *et al*., 2015; Fawcett and Lynch, 2000; Burgoyne *et al*., 2011; Hutchinson *et al*., 2003). Cummins' (2008) posited a theory that assists in our understanding of this phenomenon. According to Cummins (2008) it will take between five and seven years of exposure to English for a child learning EAL to meet the academic level of their monolingual English-speaking peers, and acquire enough academic vocabulary to successfully navigate the school curriculum (Classon *et al*., 2013). There are several reasons for this delay, but it includes the absence of English language exposure many children learning EAL will experience until they start school.

When a native-speaking English child starts full time primary school at the age of four or five years old, they have been fully immersed in the language of instruction since birth (Burgoyne *et al.*, 2013). Our National Curriculum does not allow for a period of language catch-up for those learning English as an additional language, and in turn the literacy development of our EAL learners is suffering (Leung, 2001; Leung 2005; Hutchinson *et al.*, 2003). As described in the Tickell (2011) report, the child's first language is 'critical for children's progress in oral language and social understanding' (2011, p. 26). However in reality, opportunities for first language use in the mainstream primary classroom are limited and rarely encouraged without the support of bilingual staff (Blatchford *et al.*, 2012). It is leading to a number of children learning EAL being wrongly identified as having a specific learning difference, when in most cases the young learner simply needs more time to develop and continue using their L1; to be able to transfer such skills as decoding and phonological awareness to their second or additional language (Cummins, 2008; Ziegler and Goswami, 2005). However, without explicit pedagogical understanding of additional language acquisition and relevant specialist training, how can a teacher distinguish the difference between a language need and a learning need?

The Qualifications and Curriculum Authorities (QCA, 2000) published a National Curriculum guideline on how teachers can assess and track children learning EAL. Although this document was released 17 years ago, it is still being widely used as a benchmark for assessing EAL by schools across the UK (Willowbrook, 2015; British Council, 2016). Within the guidelines, there is a short six-line paragraph on identifying learning differences in children learning EAL which encourages teachers to make use of specialist language support

and bilingual assistants if an EAL learner is failing to make sufficient progress (QCA, 2000, p. 9). However, there is no further instruction on potential indicators, neither does the document suggest types of reliable assessments that could be used prior to involving outside specialist advice.

It would appear that the only strategy proposed at a national level is for all schools to have access to bilingual support staff, who happen to speak the same language as their EAL learner, or in most cases, multiple language learners (QCA, 2000). From an economic perspective, there will be some schools in the larger cities across the UK with higher than average availability of bilingual support staff. Although evidence suggests many of those staff do not have the relevant qualification and experience for such positions, just a language in common (Sharples *et al.,* 2015; Webster and Blatchford, 2015; QCA, 2000). Yet, most schools will not be able to rely on the retention of bilingual staff, or access outside specialist language support, especially in light of recent funding cuts (BBC, 2017; The Guardian, 2017a; NAWSUT, 2012; The Guardian, 2011). If we are to consider the QCA (2000) document as a national framework for assessing children learning EAL within the parameters of the National Curriculum, then we really are no further forward in providing an equitable provision for children learning EAL; especially those with specific learning differences.

Section 2.1 of this review highlighted the issues around the accuracy and reliability of standardised dyslexia testing for children with dyslexic-type learning differences

(Hutchinson *et al*., 2004; Snowling, 2012). In addition to this, we must further consider that these tests were designed for monolingual English speaking candidates, and do not allow for the many variable cultural and linguistic factors of additional language learners (Everatt, 2012; Hutchinson *et al*., 2004). These variables can include, but are not exclusive to, how long the child has been learning English in the UK, how proficient they are in their first language (L1), how much exposure they get to a good model of English outside of the classroom and lastly how comfortable they feel in the school setting to take risks and make mistakes (Leung and Creese, 2010). The Phonological Assessment Battery is a popular standardised screening tool to identify children with deficits in their phonological skills (GL Assessment, 2017). Hutchinson *et al*., (2004) explored the reliability of this test as a means of identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. However, it was concluded that the test 'lacked sensitivity for both monolingual children and children learning EAL' (2004, p. 194). Another issue to consider is whether schools should be assessing a child learning EAL in their home language (L1) or their second or additional language (L2) (Everatt, 2012).

Despite growing numbers of children learning EAL in our UK schools, little research has been conducted into multilingual dyslexia identification and assessments (Everatt., *et al*., 2000; Kormos, 2017; Kormos and Smith, 2012). The Mortimore *et al*., (2012) study comprised a UK-based investigation into identifying potential indicators of dyslexia in bilingual learners. This large-scale study contributed enormously to our understanding of literacy development, dyslexia and children learning EAL. However, their sample group contained 43 different languages. Not only was it difficult finding appropriate assessments in the 43 different languages, it was also the issue of accessing trained practitioners. The study's aim

of identifying potential indicators of dyslexia in bilingual children was not achieved due to the standardised tests providing inconclusive data, further highlighting the difficulty of separating language and learning differences (Mortimore *et al*., 2012; Deponio *et al*., 2000). Nevertheless, the study provided valuable evidence on the positive impact of well-planned interventions with specially trained TAs on the literacy development of children learning EAL (Mortimore *et al*., 2012). This is encouraging research, and reinforces the Rose Review recommendation of moving away from the idea of categorising children with dyslexia, and simply responding to areas of need with specialist interventions undertaken by specifically trained support staff (Rose, 2009, p. 11).

The concept of withdrawal support and targeted interventions has been discussed earlier in this review (see 2.2). However, it is currently not designed or regulated at a national level so standards and progress are impossible to monitor at a macro level (Costley, 2014; Wardman, 2013). Nonetheless, withdrawing students learning EAL who are struggling to make progress from the mainstream classroom for small group language sessions is happening nationwide, and could be symptomatic of the failings in our policies of inclusion (Wardman, 2012). The Rose Review clearly states 'persistence of dyslexic difficulties can be gained by examining how the individual responds or has responded to well-founded intervention (2009, p. 11). This is further confirmed by the success of the 15-week intervention programme designed by the Mortimore *et al*., (2012) study, not only on the literacy development but the confidence of the children learning EAL who were deemed at risk of dyslexia. As this review has reported, low self-esteem is a huge barrier to a child's learning (Snowling, 2012; Pavey, 2007).

It appears almost impossible to create a standardised test for dyslexia that is equitable and fair to every EAL learner, available in every L1, with explicit linguistic and pedagogical understanding of the 300 plus languages spoken by children learning EAL in our UK primary schools (Strand *et al*., 2015; Mortimore *et al*., 2012; Hutchinson *et al*., 2004). It may be time for research to move away from the task of identifying dyslexia in monolingual and multilingual children, and focus on supporting schools with staff development training and well-designed programmes of intervention (Rose, 2009; Mortimore *et al*., 2012).

2.4.   Summary

This review has discussed the complexities of dyslexia, and the difficulties in identifying dyslexia in primary age children. It has also highlighted the uneven provisions for children learning EAL, and the challenges teachers face when assessing and supporting language in children with EAL. It has also reported on the misuse of TAs and support staff to provide interventions for these children without adequate training. Most significantly, research has shown that teachers do not feel they are receiving enough training on dyslexia or EAL to meet the needs of these learners. This brings us back to the purpose of this study and the main research question: *what do teachers perceive to be the main challenges when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?*

3. METHODOLOGY

The objective of this study is to explore the main challenges primary school teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. This section will explain the methodology that was used for data collection and analysis, including an explanation as to why a mixed methods approach to the research was selected. Following this, a description of the participants and data gathering methods will be presented, as well as an explanation of the data analysis. This section will conclude with limitations and ethical issues that were considered during the formulation and execution of this research.

3.1. Type of research

This dissertation aimed to explore the challenges primary school teachers face when identifying dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language. To answer the research question, a mixed methods approach was selected utilising both qualitative and quantitative research for their 'mutually illuminating' benefits (Bryman, 2012, p. 628). Combining a qualitative and quantitative approach to educational research has many advantages and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie argue, 'The goal of mixed methods research is not to replace either of these approaches but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies' (2004, p. 14). As this study is looking to expand on our understanding of what we already know to be a complex issue (see Chapter 2), combining the two research methods can potentially facilitate a deeper understanding of the findings (Dornyei, 2007).

Although both qualitative and quantitative methods have been selected for this study, they have very different epistemological and ontological considerations. It could be argued that this study lends itself to a positivist epistemology; through the self-completion questionnaire this study is electing to use a natural science model to explore social reality from an objectivist position (Bryman, 2012; Mack, 2010). However, the use of semi-structured interviews could imply an interpretivist epistemology; an exploration into subjective meaning through personal experiences and perceptions of truth from a constructivist ontological position (Bryman, 2012). As a researcher, this consideration for objective and subjective knowledge, of theory and of practice, has led me to align myself with the philosophy of pragmatism. Dornyei argues that a pragmatic approach involves, 'maintaining an open and flexible frame of mind and remaining as free as possible of paradigmatic dogma' (2007, p. 307).

Moving on from the conventional dualism of subjectivity and objectivity, a pragmatism perspective allows this study to observe the mind and world in a symbiotic relationship with one another; constantly flowing and interacting (Hall, 2013). From these transactions between mind and world, knowledge is produced in a reality that is continuously changing and evolving (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2013). An example of philosophical pragmatism can be seen in John Dewey's concept of inquiry model in Figure 1 below (Morgan, 2014):

Recognizing
problem

Considering
nature of problem

Suggested
solution

Considering likely
effects of solution

Taking Action

Reflecting on beliefs

Reflecting on actions
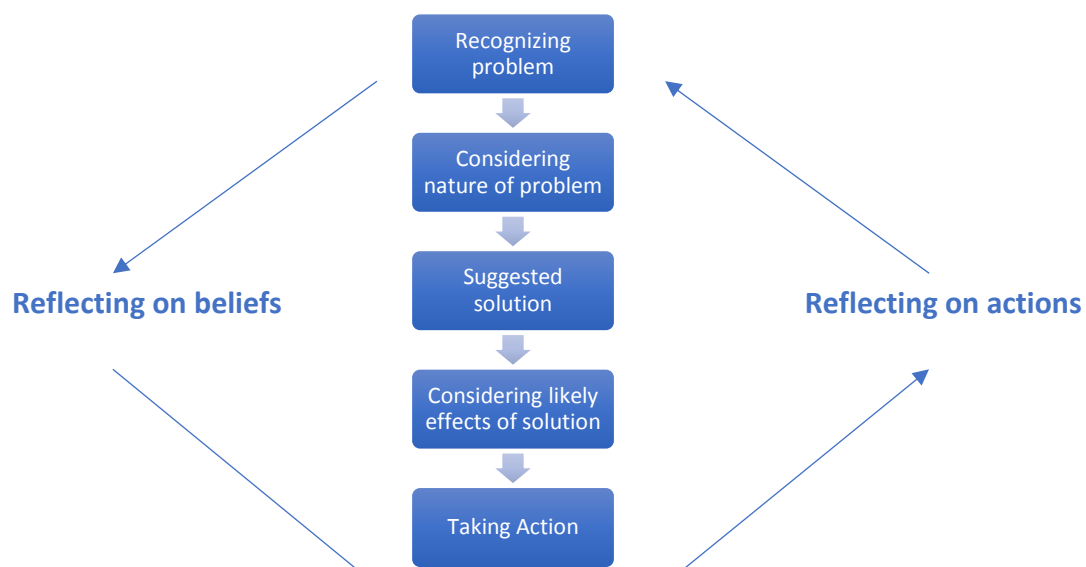
Figure 1. *Dewey's concept of inquiry* (adapted from Morgan, 2014, p. 1048).

Looking through the lens of John Dewey's concept of inquiry, it emphasises a transactional realist perspective for this study; understanding the environment is constantly flowing through real exchanges (Mertens and Hess-Biber, 2013). As Hall claims, 'the central aim of Deweyan pragmatism is to move beyond mere experimentation to intelligent action' (2013, p. 17). Ultimately, Dewey's philosophy responds to the uncertainty of our world with the contextually responsive intelligent action strategy that 'makes foresight possible and secures intentional preparation for probable consequences' (Murphy, 1990, p. 72; Hall, 2013). Hence, this study will be combining an exploration of the holistic human experience with an examination of statistical data in a value-orientated approach to identify the main challenges primary teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.

3.2. Research design

This study has adopted a pragmatic mixed methods approach rooted in Dewey's philosophy of intelligent action, using two concurrent research methods: firstly, quantitative research through a self-completion questionnaire, and secondly qualitative research through face-to-face interviews (Morgan, 2014). As this research has assumed a mixed methods approach, a *Sequential Explanatory Design* was used to allow for the gathering of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2009, p. 209). A sequential explanatory strategy is used when one phase of data collection happens before the next. There were two phases to this study's data collection: quantitative data from an anonymous self-completion questionnaire survey, followed by qualitative data from face-to-face semi-structured interviews (see 3.3 for

further discussion on data gathering phases). As Creswell suggests, 'A sequential explanatory design is typically used to explain and interpret quantitative results by collecting and analysing follow-up qualitative data' (2009, p. 211). The qualitative data collection was used to augment and add depth to the quantitative findings. The steps of the sequential explanatory strategy are below in Figure. 2.

| QUAN data collection | → | QUAN data analysis | → | QUAL data collection | → | QUAL data analysis | → | Interpretation of entire analysis |
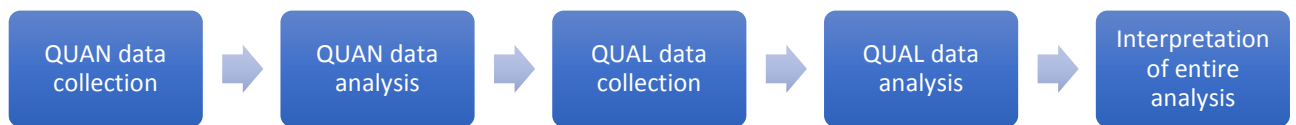
Figure 2. *Sequential Explanatory Design* (adapted from Creswell, 2009, p. 209).

As shown above, *phase one* involved quantitative data collection through an online self-completion questionnaire distributed to primary teachers across Somerset (see 3.3.1 Online questionnaire survey). *Phase two* involved qualitative data collection through semi-structured face-to-face interviews to further explore teachers' experiences (see 3.3.2). Collecting data in two phases enabled a more refined and comparative approach to the semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). This helped inform the design of the interview guide, through specific open-ended questions on themes that had been discovered through analysing the survey data in phase one. However, I was not under the assumption that such preparation would predict the outcome of the semi-structured interviews, merely keep emerging patterns relevant to the data already collected (Mears, 2012; Bryman, 2012).

3.3.   Method and instrumentation

This research focuses on teachers' perceptions of their experiences and opinions of EAL and dyslexia. Approaching this issue from the perspective of the teacher is an area that has rarely been explored. In order to do this, a sequential explanatory approach (see Figure 2) was chosen to allow for both qualitative and quantitative data to be collected. Phase one began with an online self-completion questionnaire, followed by semi-structured interviews in phase two. Both methods will now be discussed.

3.3.1. Online questionnaire survey

Surveys are an effective method of 'systematic data collection' by way of targeting a sample population and asking standard questions for quantitative analysis (Callegaro *et al*., 2015, p. 4). An online questionnaire survey was created for this study using web survey software from the Bristol Online Survey (BOS, 2017) tool and was selected as a method for two reasons: firstly, the URL for the survey could be passed on by participants in a form of snowball sampling (Bryman, 2012). Secondly, the distribution of the survey was not reliant on obtaining email address or postal details from participants (further discussion on the distribution of the survey can be found below). Primary schools were contacted via telephone and if they agreed to take part, provided with the URL to the survey which could then be completed at a time and location of their choosing (Callegaro *et al*., 2015).

Tick-box questions were selected as the main collection aide with consideration of time pressures already faced by primary teachers' and their heavy workload (The Guardian, 2017b). The main body of the survey was made up of 34 tick-box questions, with an additional 28 optional free text options. The survey questions were designed with a focus on

the main research question and the two emerging areas of interest based on the review of literature in Chapter 2:

- *Research Question*: Perceptions of the main challenges they face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.
- Access to training through ITT and CPD for EAL and dyslexia
- Support: access to trained in class support and external support agencies

According to the Schools Web Directory (2017) there are 222 Local Education Authority primary schools in Somerset. Using the directory, 50 primary schools in Somerset were contacted at random via telephone to invite them to participate in the study. I chose to speak with the schools personally and directly in order to have the opportunity to explain the nature of my research in more detail. Some schools declined to take part due to very low numbers of EAL students on their roll, and some schools agreed to pass on the link to colleagues who had experience with children learning EAL, leading to an element of snowball sampling (Bryman, 2012). However, as Bryman states (2012, p. 203), the issue with snowball sampling is that it is not generally a clear and unbiased representation of your intended population. The problem with snowball sampling in the case of this study was that the online questionnaire was distributed by teachers to colleagues with explicit and extensive experience of teaching children learning EAL. Therefore, the experiences and perceptions of primary teachers in Somerset with little or no direct participation with children learning EAL, has not been fairly represented.

The questionnaire was launched via the Bristol Online Survey (BOS, 2017) tool on 24th April 2017 and left open for three weeks; closing date 19th May 2017. During these three weeks, I actively contacted primary schools via telephone and email to distribute the URL for the survey. I believe there were some disadvantages to launching the survey in May. In 2017, during the month of May, all primary schools in the UK were taking part in the Governments

Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2 tests, commonly known as SATS. The survey received 21 responses, and it is possible that a larger response could have been anticipated if the survey had been launched at a more convenient time for teaching staff. A copy of the questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 3.

3.3.2. Interviews

Interviews are a valuable way to gain insight into peoples' perceptions and understanding of reality (Creswell, 2009). The aim of the interviews was to allow themes and concepts to emerge in a less structured way; hence a semi-structured interview technique was used (Bryman, 2012; Kvale, 2007). Semi-structured interviews were selected to honour the individuality and nuances of the teachers' experiences and allow opportunities for emotion and opinion to be observed (Kvale, 2007). Open-ended questions were constructed with the consideration of Mears' literature on interview techniques, 'Purposeful conduct and attentive listening' which allowed room for the teachers to explore their own perceptions and standards relating to the research question (2012, p. 171). Six open-ended questions were created, informed by emerging themes from the 21 teacher responses to the questionnaire, with careful thought being given to the primary research question: *what are the main challenges primary school teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?*

Participants were asked at the end of the questionnaire if they would be willing to expand on their experiences through a short voluntary interview. Out of 21 completed questionnaires, eight participants indicated they would be happy to be contacted to discuss their experiences further. Of those eight participants, only two responded to my correspondence via email to confirm they would take part in a short, voluntary face-to-face

semi-structured interview. Both interviews were organised at the convenience of the teachers, and were conducted at their respective schools. A consent form was read and signed by both teachers prior to the interviews, and verbal consent to the use of digital voice recording equipment was also obtained before the interviews commenced. A blank copy of the consent form can be seen in Appendix 7.

In keeping with the philosophy of Dewey's concept of inquiry (see Figure 1) taking action starts with identifying a problem, 'the business of inquiry is but to ascertain the best method of solving them' (Dewey, 1938, p. 493). The purpose of using interviews was to capture and clarify the causes and human components of the issues raised in the research question of this study (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2013; Murphy and Haller, 2015). A copy of the interview guide can be found in Appendix 8. Interviews lasted between 20 minutes and 40 minutes, and the same questions were put to both interviewees. Some additional questions relating to their respective experiences and perspectives were put forward; endorsing the flexibility and fluidity of the method of semi-structured interviews for qualitative data gathering (Creswell, 2009; Kvale, 2007; Dornyei, 2007). Interviews were recorded on two devices: a digital voice recorder and an iPhone to compensate for any audio issues or data loss. Interviews were fully transcribed using the same format, and both interviewees were offered full disclosure of their transcription before analysis (see Appendix 9 for transcription extracts).

3.3.2.1. Interview Guide

The open-ended questions for the semi-structured interviews were developed from the combined analysis of the survey and review of the literature (see Chapter 2). Using the data

collected from the questionnaire, I was able to expand on the perceptions and experiences relating to the three areas of focus in my interview investigation. Questions were designed to explore the diversity of the teachers' experiences and perceptions, aligned to the three themes listed in section 3.3.1. Both participants responded to all items in the interview guide (see Appendix 8).

3.4.   Participants

This study aims to explore the challenges primary school teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children who are learning English as an additional language. To this end, it was essential that participants were primary teachers in mainstream state-funded schools within the county of Somerset. Therefore, selecting participants could not be random, and a form of purposive sampling called criterion sampling was selected (Bryman, 2012). Criterion sampling means individuals taking part in this study had to meet certain conditions: firstly, they had to be a primary school teacher, and secondly, they must be teaching in a school based in the county of Somerset.

Reflecting again on the main research question of this study, I considered the characteristics of my participants and what would be significant variables to consider. Bandura (1994) argues that age would not have an impact on how effective a teacher believes they are because there are many avenues through life, and no two people are the same in how effectively they manage their journey. Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) conducted a study using the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) which concluded there were no significant correlations between age or gender on teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy. The study went on to reveal a significant difference between the more

experienced and newly qualified teachers. As Tsui states, 'years of teaching experience in a teaching setting is an overriding factor in moulding one's feelings of teaching efficacy' (1995, p. 372). This led me to focus on length of teaching experience in my sample group; information on age and gender was not requested during any of the data gathering phases (Bandura, 1994; Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001; Tsui, 1995). See Figure 3 below for the survey participants' characteristics based on experience.
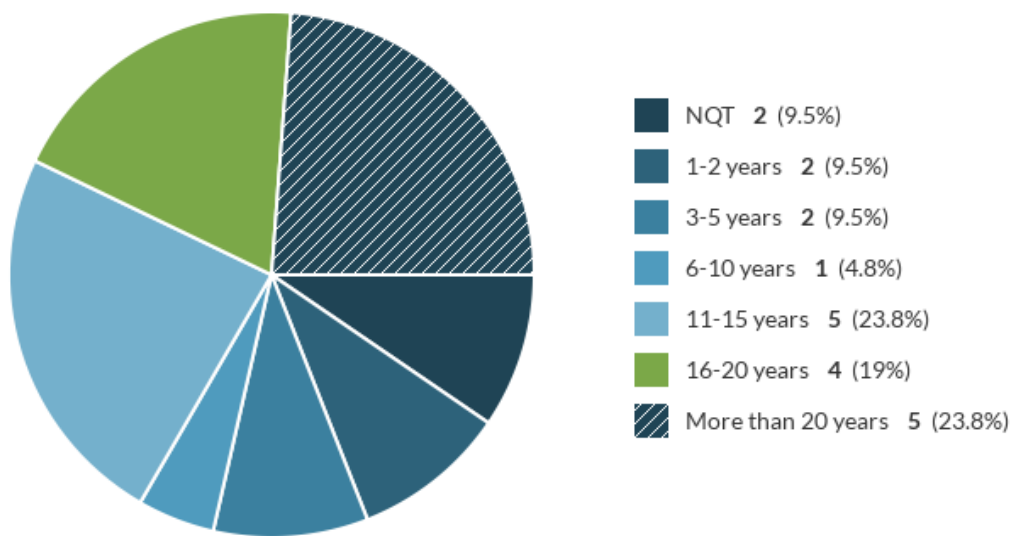
Figure 3. *EAL and dyslexia survey responses based on teaching experience.*

21 teachers completed the online survey. 20 of those teachers were currently teaching in a primary school based in the county of Somerset. One participant was not currently teaching. Two thirds of the respondents had been teaching for more than 11 years, with only two participants being newly qualified (NQT). Two participants had been teaching between one and two years, two teachers between three and five years, with one participant teaching in the range of six to ten years.

3.4.1. Setting

In terms of the setting, the self-completion questionnaire was completed online and remotely. This enabled participants to complete the survey at a time and location of their choosing (Callegaro *et al.,* 2015). The semi-structured interviews were conducted in a quiet room at the individual teachers' schools. Only the researcher and the interviewee were present during the interviews. The time of the interview was agreed with the teacher via email correspondence to ensure it was the least disruptive to their working day. Location was also selected by the teacher for their convenience.

3.5. Data analysis

Based on the epistemological stance of Deweyan pragmatism (see 3.1), there is no fixed supposition as to how one analyses mixed methods data (Bryman, 2012). Feilzer states that Deweyan pragmatism 'does not require a particular method or methods mix' (2010, p. 14). As this study compares different data sets collected at different times, data was analysed using a thematic analysis approach within a pragmatic mixed methods paradigm (Bryman, 2012; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Alhojailan, 2012). Thematic analysis is used to present patterns and themes that are found in the data and allows the flexibility of links to be made between perceptions of an individual with data that has been collected at a different time within the study (Alhojailan, 2012). A thematic analysis lends itself to the pragmatic framework of this study due to its flexible and interpretive nature (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Trustworthiness of the data was made certain by the application of two data collection methods; a self-completion questionnaire and fully transcribed semi-structured interviews (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

3.5.1. Data analysis plan

This section will explain how the data was analysed. For the sake of clarity, the method of analysis for each approach will be reported on separately; quantitative and qualitative. However, in the findings section in the next chapter they will not be discussed separately but merged (Bryman, 2012). Data was collected and analysed in two parts, culminating in an interpretation of the entire analysis, as per the Sequential Explanatory Design shown in Figure 2.

3.5.1.1. <u>Phase one</u> data analysis

The data for phase one of this study was collected through the online self-completion questionnaire using the Bristol Online Survey programme (BOS, 2017). There were two collection methods employed within the online survey; quantitative date from tick-box questions and qualitative data from free text answers.

3.5.1.1.1. Quantitative analysis

Data from the tick-box questions was statistically organised through the web survey software (BOS, 2017) into frequency charts (see examples in Appendix 4). To begin with, data was broken down by the researcher and openly coded into the three main categories that developed from the literature review and main research question (see Appendix 6 for an example of open coding). Bogdan and Biklen (2007) suggest data must be read at least twice for thematic analysis, therefore for each categorical tick-box question numbers and percentages were reviewed multiple times for emerging themes (Alhojailan, 2012). To gain further insight into the data, it was cross-tabulated using the advanced functions of the web

survey software to examine the variable length of teaching experience and its potential impact on teachers' perceptions (Bandura, 1994; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy, 2002; Tsui, 1995).

3.5.1.1.2.   Qualitative analysis

Answers to the optional free text questions were displayed below their corresponding frequency chart (see examples in Appendix 5). A thematic analysis was applied to the free text answers, using open coding to separate the data into three main themes that were developed from reviewing the literature (see example of free text open coding in Appendix 6).

3.5.1.2.   **Phase two** data analysis

The two semi-structured face-to-face interviews were transcribed from a digital voice recorder and entered on to a document in the same transcription format (see Appendix 9). A thematic analysis was conducted for the qualitative interview data as per the three main themes, which involved identifying and reporting on patterns within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The transcripts were read and re-read multiple times (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). Responses were then grouped together and organised via colour coding into themes (see Appendix 10 for an example).

3.5.1.3.   Interpretation of entire analysis

As per the Sequential Explanatory Design presented in Figure 2, analysis concluded with a review of all openly coded data from all three data sets (Creswell, 2009). A form of axial coding was used to delve deeper into the 'first order' concepts conceived from the review of

literature and key research focus (Dornyei, 2007, p. 261). This enabled 'higher-order concepts' and links to develop between the groups of coded data (Dornyei, 2007, p. 261; Bryman, 2012). An example of axial coding can be seen in Appendix 11.

3.6.   Ethical issues

This study abides by the ethical regulations of XXXXXXX University and was approved by XXXXXXX (see Research & Ethics Approval forms in Appendix 1 and 2). Informed consent forms were used in both the quantitative and qualitative data collection phases, and as Bryman states, this gives participants the opportunity to gain further insight into the aims of the research study (2012). Furthermore, it informs the participants of their right to discontinue with the study at any point. Informed consent was requested of all participants through the form of a tick box in the online survey before survey completion began. If they did not provide consent, they were unable to continue to complete the questionnaire (see Appendix 3). Signed consent was requested of both interviewees before the interviews commenced, and verbal consent was further confirmed to ensure they were happy with the use of voice recording equipment (see Appendix 7).

Potential ethical issues surrounding this study were carefully considered. The most pertinent ethical issue was ensuring the anonymity of participants, so that they would feel comfortable enough to give an honest account of their experiences with dyslexia and children learning EAL without fear of reprisal. The online self-completion survey did not request any names or contact information in the main body of the questionnaire. However, at the end stage of the online survey, personal details were requested from participants who were happy to volunteer for a short face-to-face interview. To protect the anonymity of

these respondents, the personal details entered at the end of the questionnaire were not linked to their survey data. These details were stored and accessed by the researcher separately from the rest of the data as per the ethical regulations set out by XXXXXX University (XXXXX, 2016).

Consent for the participation in the interviews clearly set out for the participants the voluntary nature of their involvement and right to withdraw at any time (see Appendix 7). Furthermore, the consent form agreed not to identify the interviewee by name in this study or any future reports. To do this, the following potentially identifiable information was changed at the point of transcription by the researcher to ensure anonymity of the participants:

1. Name of interviewee
2. Any reference to school/schools
3. Any reference to area local to interviewee
4. Names and nationalities of specific EAL children
5. Names or nicknames of colleagues/other agencies

During the study, all data was securely stored in the researcher's office and within the password protected survey software (BOS, 2017). On completion of this Masters, all electronic data will be erased, and all paper copies will be destroyed.

3.7. Limitations

There are many limitations to both quantitative and qualitative research when considered as individual paradigms (Bryman, 2012). With a scientific paradigm such as quantitative research, Mack argues 'No matter how stringently a scientist adheres to the scientific method, there is never an outcome that is objective' (2010, p. 7). Looking through an

interpretivist lens with qualitative research, one could also argue that the lack of 'scientific verification' means findings cannot be considered to represent the wider population (Mack, 2010, p. 8). However, the aim of this study was not to view them as separate strategies but rather to see them as an alternative paradigm and appreciate the richness that they bring to this process of inquiry (Morgan, 2014). A weakness of the sequential explanatory strategy can be how time consuming it is, as it involves a two-phase collection method (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Although more protracted, a two-phase strategy to data collection allowed time for themes to appear in the quantitative questionnaire survey before data collection was finished. Essentially, the quantitative data informed the direction of the interviews, and the qualitative data went on to tell the story. Nevertheless, this study presents findings from a very small sample group of primary teachers in Somerset. Although results are clearly indicative of a wider issue within schools surrounding dyslexia and EAL provisions, due to the small group of participants the findings cannot be generalised or 'transferred' to represent the wider population of primary teachers across the United Kingdom. (Merriman, 2009, p. 223). As Bryman suggests, we cannot presume the findings have a 'broader applicability' outside of the chosen sample group (2012, p. 205). Nonetheless, this study addresses a nationwide issue at a local level, and could act as a catalyst for further research with a larger cohort.

3.8.   Summary

Selecting a pragmatic mixed methods approach to this study allowed new perspectives in the understanding of challenges primary teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. This combination of qualitative and quantitative methods produced contextual and practical insight into the complexities of the challenges primary

teachers in Somerset face when presented with a child learning EAL and learning differences.

The following chapter presents the findings of this study. Both the quantitative and qualitative data will be merged and reported on simultaneously. Examples from both sets of data will be used and organized according to their significance to the main research questions.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This study provides an opportunity to explore local teacher perspectives on a national issue of growing concern in educational research: the identification of dyslexia in children learning EAL (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012). Two further questions were developed and reported on after a review of the literature:

- Do teachers feel adequately prepared through relevant training to teach a child learning English with dyslexia?
- Do teachers feel they have access to relevant support and guidance when presented with a child learning EAL with dyslexia?

All participants were questioned about their perceptions of the main challenges they face when identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL in both the online survey and in the semi-structured interviews. Their responses will be discussed towards the end of this findings section (see 4.4). The findings from the online survey and semi-structured interviews have been organised into the two questions as above, followed by findings from the main research question: *what do you perceive to be the main challenges in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?*

The discussion surrounding the findings will be supported by examples from all data sets: statistical data from the survey, narrative data from the free-text survey answers and narrative data from the semi-structured interviews. This section will begin with an investigation into the sample group.

4.1. Teacher background – is experience the best teacher?

To gain a deeper understanding of the results, it was important firstly to explore the characteristics of the sample group of teachers. The only distinguishing variable explicitly requested from participants at the beginning of the online survey was a question regarding the length of time they had been teaching at primary level (see Figure 3 in 3.4). As mentioned in Chapter 3, research suggests length of teaching experience can have a direct effect on a teachers' self-efficacy, above and beyond age and gender (Bandura, 1994; Tsui, 1995; Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001). With this consideration, an investigation into participants' teaching experience was vital to further my comprehension of the findings.

The results from the online survey presented me with a sample group that was top heavy in experienced teachers (see Figure 3. in 3.4). 67% of participants had been teaching for 11 years or more, with 24% having more than 20 years' experience. 28% of respondents had been teaching for five years or less, with only 9.5% being newly qualified (NQT). Both participants of the semi-structured interviews had been teaching for 16 years or more, and both held senior specialist positions within their school; EAL Coordinator and Special Educational Needs Coordinator. Further thematic analysis of the free-text answers in the online survey revealed many of the participants were also holding positions requiring considerable teaching experience and/or specialist knowledge. See extracts 1-4 below:

> I am the **EAL and English lead** and have completed courses specifically for children with EAL and SEN.

Extract 1 – Free text survey answer

> As the **EAL Coordinator** I have had more training and sharing information than other teachers.

Extract 2 – Free text survey answer

Extract 3 – Free text survey answer

Extract 4 – Free text survey answer

This led me to ask two questions: how would a sample group of predominantly experienced teachers impact on the findings? Furthermore, could experience be the best teacher when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?

4.1.1. Experience with children learning EAL and dyslexia

To answer these questions, I decided to unpack the data further. 19% of respondents reported to have had experience in teaching a child or children learning EAL, whom had been *officially diagnosed* with dyslexia. I cross-tabulated the data using the advanced functions on the web survey software (BOS, 2017) to compare length of teaching experience with direct experience teaching children learning EAL with dyslexia. See Table 1 below:

Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who have been officially diagnosed as having dyslexia?

Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who have been officially diagnosed as having dyslexia?	Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?							No answer	Totals
	NQT	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years		
Yes	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.76%	4.76%	0.00%	9.52%	0.00%	19.05%
No	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	0.00%	19.05%	19.05%	9.52%	0.00%	76.19%
I don't know	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	4.76%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	4.76%	23.81%	19.05%	23.81%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 1 – Length of teaching experience compared to experience in teaching children learning EAL diagnosed with dyslexia

According to my data, teachers with more than 20 years' experience are far more likely to have taught children learning EAL with dyslexia, with one individual claiming to have taught

over 10 children learning EAL with dyslexia. However, over the course of 20 years these teachers will have come into contact with more children than those with less experience; a proportion of which will be children learning EAL with learning differences. As revealed in Kormos and Nijakowska's study (2017), direct experiences could potentially have a positive impact on the teachers' perceptions of their efficacy with children learning EAL and dyslexia as they have practical experience in teaching these types of learners. Could length of teaching experience have a direct impact on the teachers' confidence when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL? To test this theory, I cross-tabulated the data within the advanced functions of the web survey software (BOS, 2017) to see if length of teaching experience was an influencing factor on their confidence. See Table 2 below:

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?							No answer	Totals
	NQT	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years		
Very confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Fairly confident	4.76%	9.52%	4.76%	4.76%	9.52%	4.76%	14.29%	0.00%	52.38%
Not very confident	4.76%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	14.29%	4.76%	9.52%	0.00%	38.10%
Not at all confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	9.52%	0.00%	0.00%	9.52%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	4.76%	23.81%	19.05%	23.81%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 2 – Length of teaching experience compared to confidence in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL

As shown in Table 2, no teacher claimed to be _very confident_ in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL regardless of how much experience that had. Over half of respondents reported to feel _fairly confident_ in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL, the highest score coming from teachers with over 20 years' experience (14.29%). This suggests that experience could be an influencing factor on teachers' confidence with these learners

(Kormos and Nijakowska, 2017). However, 38.10% reported to feel _not very confident_ and 9.5% of that result came from teachers' with over 20 years' experience. The highest score came from teachers' with more than 11 years teaching experience. Furthermore, respondents who admitted to being _not at all confident_ had more than 16 years' experience as a primary teacher. What this analysis shows is that length of teaching experience can have a small effect on the teachers' confidence when identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL, but they are not significantly related (Kormos and Nijakowska, 2017).

4.2.   Do teachers feel adequately prepared through relevant training to teach a child learning English with dyslexia?

The issue of inadequate training for teachers in the fields of EAL and dyslexia respectively is well documented (Dyslexia Action, 2009; Garner, 2007; Wardman, 2012; Wardman, 2013; DYT, 2013; Foley _et al._, 2013). However, there has been little research into teacher training with children learning EAL with dyslexia, or its effect on teachers' perceptions to meet the needs of these children (Mortimore _et al._, 2012). This section will evaluate the training data from the online survey and semi-structured interviews, and based on the findings discuss how this affects their confidence when teaching a child learning English with dyslexia.

4.2.1.   Initial teacher training (ITT)

Respondents were asked how much training they had received at the point of initial teacher training (ITT) on dyslexia in children learning EAL. 95.2% reported to have received no explicit training on dyslexia in children learning EAL during ITT. Training in EAL during ITT was also low, with 71.4% reporting to have had either no training or less than half a day on teaching children learning EAL. This supports research on the lack of training available to

newly qualified teachers (DYT, 2013; Hall and Cajkler, 2008). One teacher, who holds the position of SENCo and over 16 years' experience, comments on her lack of EAL training and its importance for newly qualified teachers (NQTs):

| 75. | Resp. B. | I mean obviously I, I trained a long long time ago and I don't think we had any EAL training at all back then, I don't know what it's like now, um, it's certainly not, not a bad idea to be y'know, to be up in that subject and to know what you can do and strategies to use especially as a newly qualified teacher I would think that was probably a really important aspect of teaching, because now more and more aren't we, y'know we've got more and more children in this country that are EAL, and um, we need to meet their needs, so yeah I would say that was definite thing that needs to be done… |

Extract 5 – Semi-structured interview B (ITT)

71% of participants reported to have received either no training at all, or less than half a day on dyslexia during ITT. One respondent trained in a dyslexia friendly school, and reports to have received 'on the job' training:

| I trained in a school with dyslexia friendly status so learned a lot. |

Extract 6 – Free text survey answer

In-school staff training for dyslexia came up several times in the survey, with some respondents reporting to have received no training on dyslexia in ITT or through continued professional development (CPD), but participating in regular whole school training on dyslexia awareness through inset days and staff meetings, leading to a 'collaborative culture' (Hall and Cajkler, 2008, p. 357). There was less evidence of this for EAL. Multiple research studies have highlighted how unprepared our newly qualified teachers' feel to teach children learning EAL and with specific learning differences through inadequate initial teacher training (DYT, 2013; Wardman, 2012; Glazzard, 2011). This study has revealed incredibly low exposure to EAL training, dyslexia training or most significantly (95.2%) dyslexia in children learning EAL training for primary teachers in Somerset. Ultimately,

without adequate training in pedagogical strategies for EAL and SpLDs such as dyslexia, we are undermining the effectiveness of our newly qualified teachers (DYT, 2013; Cajkler and Hall, 2009).

4.2.2. Continued professional development (CPD)

Continued professional development (CPD) is professional learning for teachers and educators that builds on their current skill set with advanced training (Glossary of Educational Reform, 2013). Regular CPD is seen as vital by the Department for Education to ensure teachers keep their knowledge and skills up to date (BBC, 2017). 7.7% of participants in this study reported to have received explicit training on dyslexia in children learning EAL. That is an improvement from the 4.8% who had received training during ITT but it is still very low. When evaluating the free-text data connected to this question, it would suggest the training may only be available to teachers' holding a more senior and specialist position, as opposed to all teachers regardless of grade or specialism. For example:

I am the **EAL and English lead** and have completed the course specifically for children with EAL and SEN.

Extract 1 – Free text survey answer

76.9% of respondents reported to have had no further EAL training through professional development (CPD) in the last 18 months, with one participant stating:

I attended a day's course on EAL about 5 years ago but apart from this have had very little training.

Extract 7 – Free text survey answer

Participation in further professional training (CPD) in dyslexia was higher than EAL, with 34.6% reporting to have completed CPD in the last 18 months. Again, it would appear the CPD training was predominantly taken by teachers' in a more senior position, for example:

98.	Resp. B.	Dyslexia…So I've had, I've gone on, **as a SENCo** now I've been on, um, an assessment course, about six, seven months ago, which took us through all the different sorts of tests, of which the Dyslexia Portfolio was one, um, so I was able to, um, look at how that is administered,

Extract 8 – Semi structured interview B (CPD)

The impression for continued professional development (CPD) is uneven. 34.6% of participants reported to have received no post-qualification professional development learning whatsoever in the last 18 months, and it would appear that CPD for dyslexia is commonly tackled though in-school training. 34.6% is a high number of respondents when we consider the sample group is both top heavy in experienced teachers, and includes many who hold specialist positions such as EAL Coordinator. Research shows that investing in professional learning for teachers is the most effective thing a school can do to raise standards, however funding levels for staff training is at an all time low, with many schools cutting their budget for continued professional development altogether (BBC, 2017). This study would certainly support such research.

The next section will summarize the training statistics presented in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, and investigate whether training has had a direct impact on teachers' confidence in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.

4.2.3. Effect of training on teacher confidence

As discussed, 95.2% of respondents received no training during ITT on dyslexia in children learning EAL. This is concerning when over half of the participants report they have suspected a child learning EAL to have dyslexia. Over 80% of participants' felt they did not have sufficient training in teaching a child learning EAL with dyslexia, which is reflected in

the number of respondents who have completed explicit training in EAL and dyslexia. However, when asked how confident they feel in identifying a child learning EAL with dyslexia, 52% reported to feel *fairly confident*. That is just over half of participants; considering the significant lack of training they have received in this area, it is a surprising result and could be linked back to the discussion on direct experience with these type of learners (see 4.1.2). It could also suggest an under-appreciation of the complexities of dyslexia in children learning EAL, which could be addressed through access adequate training. Further analysis to compare the amount of training (CPD) and confidence in identifying dyslexia in children learning revealed that training does have an impact on teachers' confidence. See Table 3 below:

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Have you completed any post-qualification professional development courses in the last 18 months on the following (please check any that apply):				No answer	Totals
	Dyslexia	EAL	Dyslexia in children learning EAL	None of the above		
Very confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Fairly confident	19.23%	11.54%	7.69%	19.23%	0.00%	57.69%
Not very confident	15.38%	11.54%	0.00%	7.69%	0.00%	34.62%
Not at all confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	7.69%	0.00%	7.69%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	34.62%	23.08%	7.69%	34.62%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 3 – Confidence in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL compared to amount of training received via continued professional development (CPD)

7.7% received explicit training in CPD on dyslexia in children learning EAL. Those respondents reported to feel *fairly confident* in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. It does raise the question as to why they only feel 'fairly confident' when they have had specialist instruction on how to best support a child with these needs. This could be explained by current local training practice in EAL and SEN, with Somerset's Ethnic Minority

and Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES, 2017) offering half day courses on EAL and SEN (see Appendix 12). It is difficult to understand how the complexities of all special educational needs in children learning EAL can be covered in such a small amount of time, let alone dyslexia. Given that 7.7% of the teachers that did complete explicit training on dyslexia in children learning EAL, yet still reported to only feel _fairly confident_ in identifying a child learning EAL with dyslexia, it could suggest that the small amount of training available may not be particularly effective.

What is also significant, is that 57.7% received continued professional development training in dyslexia or EAL respectively, and almost all those participants reported to feel _fairly confident_ in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL. This finding was not expected when comparing it to the lack of explicit training, but could be explained by the following exchange:

Resp. A.	There has been nothing specifically for EAL and dyslexia. We have had separate EAL training and separate dyslexia training, and during our recent EAL training it was pointed out, I think by one of our members of staff, the similarities between…suitable resources for dyslexic children and the EAL children, and how similar the training we had for EAL was from, to, a dyslexic training we'd received a couple of week previously.
LS	That's great, so you made those connections….
Resp. A.	Yes….

Extract 9 - Semi structured interview A (EAL and dyslexia training)

There are certainly pedagogical similarities to the way one would support a child with dyslexia, and one learning EAL and it is encouraging that teachers are making those connections (Mortimore _et. al_., 2012). However, if we want teachers to feel _very confident_ in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL, access to explicit training on dyslexia in children learning EAL for all teachers, not just those who hold a specialist or senior position

within the school, is essential. Overall, training through ITT and CPD for this sample group has been low, leaving most participants feeling only _fairly confident_, and some feeling _not at all confident_. For that reason, one would not consider training received adequate, however, what is noteworthy is that those who have completed any kind of advanced training in EAL or dyslexia, or both, do feel more confident in identifying children learning EAL with dyslexia than those with none.

4.3.   Do teachers feel they have access to relevant support and guidance when presented with a child learning EAL with dyslexia?

The findings in this section are based around teachers' perceptions of two types of support; firstly, the local authority Ethnic Minority Achievement & Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES, 2017) and trained support staff such as teaching assistants.

4.3.1.   Ethnic Minority Achievement and Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES)

If schools do not have a qualified EAL specialist/teacher, local authorities are a valuable source of support (Hall & Cajkler, 2008). The Ethnic Minority Achievement & Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES, 2017) is a local authority agency that provides specialist support and knowledge to schools with ethnic minority learners in Somerset (EMA/TES, 2017). However, 38% of the survey respondents reported to be unaware of the EMA/TES service altogether; that is over one third of teachers in this study that were unaware of the professional support and guidance they could receive from EMA/TES with regards to children learning EAL. Nevertheless, almost half of participants claim to have suspected a child in their class learning EAL to have dyslexia. So where are they going for specialist

advice and guidance when teaching children learning EAL who are not making expected progress?

Both teachers from the semi-structured interviews had experience with EMA/TES. The following extract is from Respondent A (Resp. A), who explained the process they experienced when they suspected a child learning EAL to have dyslexia and they involved EMA/TES. Please note they refer to EMA/TES as EMAS, but it is the same service:

38.	Resp. A.	Then, as he moved through the school we realised quite, quite quickly how far adrift his academic work was, um, from where it should be. So we contacted the EMAS team to come in and do assessments because our assessments weren't showing us what we needed to do. Their assessments said yes there is a problem but we're not sure whether it's with the home language, whether it's with English, or whether it's something else. So, then we needed to contact the educational support team who said he needed to be on our SEND register before they would get involved, so it was a long process, um, only recently, since the diag.....not since the diagnosis but since near the diagnosis has he become calm enough to be ready to work. Um, and as I said, he's currently in Year 4, so he's had five years in the school of...not much education.

Extract 10 – Semi structured interview A (EMA/TES)

Resp. A goes on to explain how, in this particular case, they were passed from service to service, with no one agency claiming responsibility due to the language and learning crossover. This process was drawn out for *5 years* before the child received an official diagnosis of dyslexia. When asked what could have been improved, they responded with the following:

44.	Resp. A.	I think communication between external services, definitely um, and also support for external services I know for instance the EMAS team were here basically to assess language, um and not learning, whereas the learning team were here to asses learning and not language acquisition, so neither team knew whether it was their remit, if that makes sense?

Extract 11 – Semi structured interview A (EMA/TES)

As discussed in section 1.2 of this paper, dyslexia is present in all languages and early identification is essential for the success and self-esteem of the learner (Peer and Reid, 2016; Neanon, 2011). In the case mentioned in Extract 10 and 11, teachers identified a potential issue but did not have access to adequate and effective support from EMA/TES to meet the needs of that child. After *5 years* of being passed from service to service, who can anticipate what damage has been done to that young learners' self-esteem? (Neanon, 2011).

Devolving the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant funding so its distribution was no longer compulsory to support ethnic minority achievement and EAL, mean schools are allocating it as part of their Dedicated Schools Grant (NAWSUT, 2012). Essentially, the distribution is at a schools' discretion; they are not required to spend the money on supporting children learning EAL any longer. Further financial pressures on local authorities are leading to a reduction in EAL services that came out of their own budgets. In a study conducted by The Teachers Union, over one third of school leaders reported that funds and resources for local authority EAL support in their areas were already being diverted elsewhere (NASUWT, 2012). This could explain the limited end-service provided by EMA/TES and highlights the detrimental effect funding cuts in education are having on these learners.

Funding for ethnic minority pupils has dramatically reduced in recent years, which has had a knock-on effect with agencies such as EMA/TES as many schools cannot afford to pay out of their own rapidly decreasing budgets (The Guardian, 2011; NASUWT, 2012). Both

interviewees commented on how limited and stretched they perceived the EMA/TES services to be. Resp. B. recalls staff redundancies within the EMA/TES team:

114.	Resp. B.	I mean, we had access to EMAS, but its…they're very limited aren't they in how much support they can offer, um and actually, the man that was doing it at the time, I think his job became…y'know, redundant, um so there was quite a lack of resources I think ….

Extract 12 – Semi structured interview B (EMA/TES)

Resp. A. talks about engaging EMA/TES for specific children that were not making progress, however staff sickness resulted in only one visit from EMA/TES, staff shortages meant they received no further support from the agency:

58.	Resp. A.	Um, a prime example, we were having additional EMAS support this term, and we planned it, and I planned it with the advisory teacher, we had specific children we wanted to target and they were Key Stage 2 children who weren't making grammatical progress, um and the member of staff that was coming in to support turned up once and then he, they went off sick, which I know happens, and I had an email saying that's the end of your support…OK **Laughing** thank you for that. And I do appreciate all…all services are stretched, they really are, um but I know it's a, er, countrywide focus of supporting communities and integrating families, and so to remove the support just like that **Clicks fingers** isn't very helpful.

Extract 13 – Semi structured interview A (EMA/TES)

57.1% of participants reported to have accessed the EMA/TES service for professional guidance with regards to EAL. Unfortunately, they were not asked to rate their experience with EMA/TES and how effective it was in supporting them and their students learning EAL. This could be an area for further research in the future. What is clear is that a significant proportion of teachers (38.1%) were unaware of the professional support they could receive from Somerset EMA/TES. Furthermore, based on the experiences of both interviewees, the service in Somerset appears to be stretched and not effectively supporting schools with children learning EAL, especially those suspected of having dyslexia.

4.3.2. Teaching assistants (TAs) and interventions

Trained support staff are essential to enable a truly inclusive environment and can be very effective in delivering well-planned interventions when they have received the relevant training (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012). However, 76.1% of participants in this study reported to feel they did not have enough trained support to meet all the needs of their students, with one commenting:

I do not have any support within the class. The children are taken in small groups to another room.

Extract 14 – Free text survey answer

Resp. B. talks about a bilingual support staff member used for children learning EAL who are struggling. She refers to the support worker as 'knowledgeable' and having a 'good level of English'. Yet she does not mention any specific training the support worker has received. She describes her role in a little more detail below:

130.	Resp. B.	So XXX, um, is given children that are referred to her by teachers who are perhaps struggling in English, whether it's with grammar, um, y'know the tenses or um some of them are maths, she does a bit of maths as well, it's mainly based on the English side of things, to help them with their, their grammar and their speech and their writing…um…so that's, that's her main role, and she works with all different children right across Key Stage 1 and 2, not so much in reception as they tend to sort of be a bit too young at that stage but she certainly works with Year 1 upwards up to Year 6…um, so she'll take them out and she plans things that she's going to do with them in, in sort of collaboration with the teacher, so the teacher will say this child is struggling with abc, y'know whatever it is, and then she will, um, do some work on, on those things, and she has them, um, either individually if they're particularly weak, um or working in very small groups, so probably up to about two or three maximum, um, so that's what she does.

Extract 15 – Semi structured interview B (TA)

It is reassuring to see Resp. B. mention a 'sort of' collaborative element with the class teacher (Extract 15). However, this support worker seems to have a large amount of responsibility and autonomy with a vulnerable group of learners. This type of teaching is known as Support Teaching. Support Teaching refers to additional support provided by TAs or specialists (EAL teacher for example) in class or during withdrawal sessions and is becoming more common (Wardman, 2013). Since the devolution of the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant funding for EAL specialist teachers has diminished. It is becoming more financially viable for schools to employ unqualified teaching assistants, rather than adequately trained EAL/SEN teachers to support their learners through Partnership Teaching (Wardman, 2013). All students deserve access to high quality teaching, and essentially planning and delivering lessons is the duty of the class teacher *in partnership* with a specialist (Webster and Blatchford, 2015).

Blatchford *et al.*, (2009) describes how TAs are gaining more and more responsibility for EAL and SEN students, and regularly used to provide one-to-one and small group interventions in a withdrawal setting (Sharples *et al.*, 2015). This study would certainly support this research, with over 90% of participants confirming they have used interventions for children learning EAL. However, research has shown that if TAs are not adequately trained in language pedagogy, they will have little positive effect on the EAL learner through withdrawal sessions (Sharples *et al.*, 2015; Wardman, 2013; Blatchford *et al.*, 2011). There is a fear that a child learning EAL may fall behind if they are regularly missing involvement in the mainstream curriculum and time spent away from the teacher (Wardman, 2013). Exposure to as much language in the classroom as possible from their peers is invaluable to their language development (Cummins, 2001). Nevertheless, without explicit training in

language awareness and how second languages are learned, how can we expect teachers to know how to best support a child learning EAL? Let alone a child learning EAL with a specific learning difference such as dyslexia (Wardman, 2013).

The use of Interventions for children with dyslexia in this sample group is lower, with 66.7% reporting to have used withdrawal sessions. Although the figure for dyslexia interventions is still over half of participants, it is significantly lower than the use of interventions for children learning EAL. This could be explained by the higher training figures in dyslexia during ITT and CPD; it is possible that as a result of training the teachers feel more comfortable to support dyslexic leaners within the classroom (see 4.2). There is also evidence of the collaborative culture that has developed in schools with regards to in-school training and support for dyslexia (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.2).

19% of participants confirmed they had taught a child learning EAL who had been diagnosed with dyslexia. Most of the participants who had experience teaching a child with EAL and dyslexia reported to have used interventions to support those children. However, of the 47.6% of participants who had *suspected* they had taught a child learning EAL to have dyslexia, only 28.57% confirmed they had used interventions. See Table 4:

Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who you have suspected as having dyslexia?			No answer	Totals
	Yes	No	I don't know		
Yes	28.57%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	33.33%
No	19.05%	47.62%	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	47.62%	47.62%	4.76%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 4 – How many suspected they had taught a child learning EAL with dyslexia compared to how many had used targeted interventions

To suspect a child learning EAL of being dyslexic would imply there were significant difficulties in the classroom. Almost half of participants were not aware of EMA/TES, or had not used their specialist services, and out of the 47.6% of participants who *suspected* a child learning EAL to have dyslexia, almost one quarter did not use targeted interventions. This does raise concerns around the inequity of provisions for these learners. Withdrawing EAL students from the class for intervention work is not without controversy (Wardman, 2013; Costley, 2014). Due to there being no government guidelines on withdrawal support, and the lack of funding for specialists to work in partnership with teachers, there is no framework to enable the consistent application of meaningful support (Sharples *et al*., 2015; NASWUT, 2012; BBC, 2017). However, funding for schools to engage specialists such as EMA/TES is dwindling and it is evident that EMA/TES is not prepared to identify and support a child learning EAL with dyslexia (NAWSUT, 2012; BBC, 2017). Where does this leave teachers? More importantly, what does this mean for children in Somerset with dyslexia and EAL?

The next section will discuss findings to the main research question from both the online survey and semi-structured interviews, supported by extracts from both.

4.4.   Research question: What do you perceive to be the main challenges when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?

Some participants reported that lack of access to specialist support was a barrier when trying to identify a child learning EAL with dyslexia, whilst some reported it to be the

amount of time it takes to collect adequate evidence. However, 71.4% of participants clearly describe how the *language barrier* is the biggest challenge to identifying if a child learning EAL has a specific learning difference such as dyslexia. For example:

Until a child has a good understanding of English it is hard to be clear on signs of dyslexia.
Extract 16 – Free text survey answer

Another participant answers the question by stating:

The language barriers; have children got difficulties in English or their own language?
Extract 17 – Free text survey answer

There is little conclusive research into identifying dyslexia in multilingual learners (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012; Everatt, 2012; Kormos, 2017; Kormos and Smith, 2012). Assessing a child for dyslexia who does not have English as their first language is complicated, especially when standard tests for dyslexia are designed for monolingual children and can be unreliable (Mortimore *et al.*, 2012; Hutchinson *et al.,* 2004). For participants in this study, there was a common uncertainty of whether children should be assessed in their home language (L1), or in English as their additional language (L2). The following participant believes the student should be tested in English:

As I understand it, in order for dyslexia to be diagnosed, the pupil needs to have a certain level of English already; because of the randomness of mistakes in a dyslexic child, it would be very hard to distinguish between dyslexia and normally recurrent syntax errors if the pupil is new to the English language.
Extract 18 – Free text survey answer

It has been mandatory in the United States since 2004 to conduct assessments for dyslexia in the child's home language, or L1 (Everatt, 2012). This is not the legal policy here in the UK, and with over 300 different language being spoken in our schools, it would be an almost impossible task (Sharples *et al.*, 2015). It is difficult to know what the participant in Extract

18 means by a 'certain level of English', before they can be assessed. Research suggests that a child would need over five years exposure to English to be at a level appropriate for assessment (Everatt, 2012; Cummins, 2001). What it does imply is that some teachers may be adopting a 'wait and see' approach to allow for a period of language catch-up before they explore the possibility of a specific learning difference. Unfortunately, as discussed in Chapter 2, our National Curriculum is not designed to support such a period and without doubt the self-esteem of the learner will suffer without the right early intervention and support (Neanon, 2011).

Confusion surrounding assessing dyslexia in a child's L1 or L2 was a recurring theme throughout the survey responses and interviews. The following is an extract from one of the semi-structured interviews. This teacher has over 16 years' experience and holds the position of Special Educational Needs Coordinator at a school with a large proportion of EAL students. However, she is still unclear on issues surrounding assessing in a child's first or second language:

121.	LS	So in your opinion, what do you perceive to be the main challenges teachers face when trying to identify dyslexia in children learning EAL?
122.	Resp. B.	I think…like, like I said to your earlier, it's about, is the problem in their first language? Or is it in their, their second lang…so the English. Um, and its…knowing where the problem lies and actually being able to assess them, because as a SENCo I assess the dyslexia portfolio but if a child is dyslexic in their first language, doing it in an English-speaking test is not gonna actually…help them, so it's…what was the question?
123.	LS	What do you perceive to be the main challenges….
124.	Resp. B.	Yea…I think its knowing where the problem is, isn't it? And actually for me as a SENCo I'm still a little bit muddy about it, where, y'know, how do we go about assessing a child with EAL because we have got children who XXXX, our EAL lady thinks, y'know, does, do have issues, but, how do we do that? Where does the issue lie? Is it in the first language, so do we need to get an interpreter to come and assess their first language, or is it, y'know, in English? Um, that to me is the difficulty.

Extract 19 – Semi structured interview B (RQ)

The following extract is from one of the semi-structured interviews. This participant also has over 16 years' experience as a primary teacher, and holds the position of EAL Coordinator for the school which has over 60% EAL student population. In Extract 20 below, she talks about the issue of language, but with an emphasis on the lack of awareness from teachers and TAs on the important of a child's L1:

60.	Resp. A.	The main issue is the amount of time it takes to get to know any child but especially a child with two languages, um, and the main difficulty I think the majority of teachers have is the lack of understanding of how important a home language is, and how that home language needs to be sound before the English is introduced, um, we found out, through many children, if they are not sound in the home language then English will not be…easy to acquire, and I think lots of teachers don't understand that, lots of teaching assistants don't understand it, and lots of parents as well, um, we've had many parents come to us saying that in school they speak English at home they speak Polish and they can't mix, and so we've been trying to work with parents saying no, it's important for them to speak their home language everywhere when they need to…

Extract 20 – Semi-structured interview A (RQ)

The lack of awareness from teachers and TAs on the importance of a child's L1, can only be addressed with adequate training in how languages are learned (Conteh, 2015; Wardman, 2013). This needs to be tackled through ITT and regular CPD, which, as this study has uncovered, is seriously lacking for teachers in Somerset. Without specific training, how are teachers to know that opportunities to develop and use the learners L1 are critical for acquiring their L2? (Cummins, 2001). Furthermore, understanding how to assess a child learning EAL for a specific learning difference such as dyslexia can only be achieved through explicit training in EAL and SEN. However, as this study has highlighted, training in EAL and

SEN may not be available to all teachers. Nor does one half days training seem adequate to cover the complexities of EAL and all SEN (see Appendix 12) especially when it is leaving participants feeling only _fairly confident_ in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.

The next section will summarise the key findings presented in this chapter.

4.5. Summary

Primary school teachers in Somerset are not adequately trained at the point of ITT or through CPD, to identify and support a child learning EAL with dyslexia (see 4.2). This lack of training in language learning and learning differences could explain why teachers are confused as to how they assess a child learning EAL for dyslexia (see Extract 19). The small number of participants who had completed explicit dyslexia and EAL training reported to feel only 'fairly confident' in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL, which would suggest the training is not particularly effective. Most teachers do not feel they have access to enough trained support staff (TAs) in their classroom on a daily basis. However, many report to be using TAs for interventions with both children learning EAL and children with dyslexia. Access to specialist local authority support agencies is uneven across the sample group, with many participants unaware of EMA/TES and their professional guidance services with regards to children learning EAL (see 4.3.2).

Provisions in Somerset for EAL and SEN are almost non-existent, with minimal training and no agency wanting to take responsibility when a language and learning issue overlaps (see Extract 10). Based on my findings, provisions for children learning EAL and dyslexia in Somerset can best be represented in Figure 4:
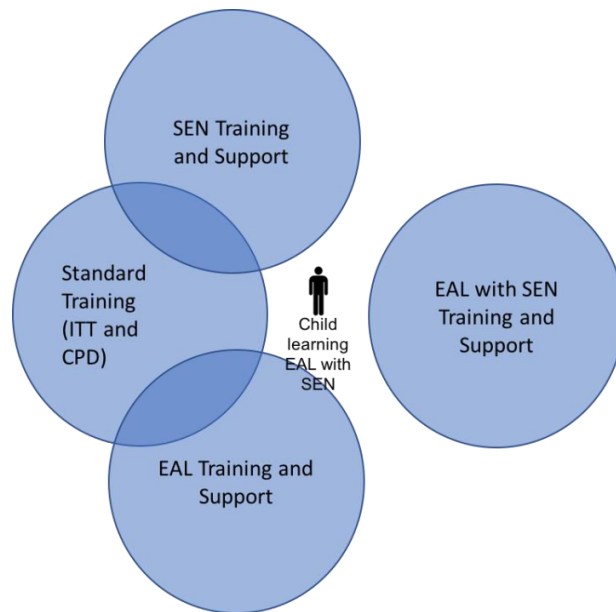
Figure 4. *Current state of EAL and SEN provision in Somerset.*

The next chapter will draw conclusions on the main research question based on the discussion in this findings section, and explore the limitations of the study.

5. CONCLUSION

The aim of this mixed methods research was to explore the challenges primary teachers in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. This local study makes an important contribution to the growing field of dyslexia and EAL research by identifying real barriers faced by primary teachers when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. This can add to knowledge surrounding the under-identification of dyslexia in children learning EAL (Frederickson and Cline, 2015; Mortimore *et al*., 2012; Hutchinson *et al.,* 2004). Findings from this study supports research that has identified a concerning lack of training and support for teachers in dyslexia and EAL (DYT, 2013; Wardman, 2013; Hall and Cajkler, 2008). Most significantly, this study has highlighted a considerable gap in provisions for children with dyslexia learning EAL in the county of Somerset.

This final section will present a summary of the key findings organised by the three research questions. Leading on from this, I will present the implications of this study, and finally discuss the limitations and further research.

5.1. Key findings

The combination of data from the online survey, augmented by semi-structured interviews, gave me a comprehensive view into primary teachers' perceptions of the challenges they face in relation to identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL. Although this study involved a small sample group, it has provided a snapshot of current practice and provisions for children with dyslexia learning EAL in Somerset. The main research question was presented

in section 1.3 of this paper, and a further two research questions developed from a review of the literature. They are addressed individually below:

5.1.1. What are the main challenges primary teachers' in Somerset face when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL?

This study has revealed that most teachers feel the main challenges they face when identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL is the _language barrier_. Teachers are finding it difficult to ascertain whether the child with EAL is simply struggling to learn English, or whether there is an underlying specific learning difference such as dyslexia. Some teachers are unsure of how to correctly assess the needs of these children using standardised tests, and some feel the amount of time it takes to collect evidence delays appropriate support. This uncertainty can be explained by the lack of training these teachers are receiving in EAL and dyslexia, both at the point of ITT and CPD. Finally, there appears to be no local authority support agency to offer professional guidance to teachers when there is a crossover of a language and learning issue.

5.1.2. Do teachers feel adequately prepared through relevant training to teach a child learning English as an additional language with dyslexia?

Most teachers had not completed any explicit training on dyslexia in children learning EAL, either during ITT or through CPD. For the very small number of teachers who had completed training, they reported to only feel _fairly confident_ when identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL. This could be due to the quality of training available; the local authority training in Somerset covers EAL and all special

educational needs (SEN) in one half days' session (see Appendix 12). This is a considerably short amount of time to cover all SEN in children learning EAL, and furthermore I would question whether this training is available to all teachers and not just those holding a specialist position.

5.1.3. Do teachers feel they have access to relevant support and guidance when presented with a child learning EAL with dyslexia?

Teachers do not feel they have access to enough trained support in their classrooms on a daily basis. Furthermore, a significant number of teachers were not even aware of the local authorities EMA/TES that offers professional support and guidance with children learning EAL in Somerset. Experiences with EMA/TES were perceived to be unreliable and their support to schools limited. Most importantly, it appears there are no external support agencies for teachers in Somerset to turn to that can help identify and support children learning EAL with learning differences.

5.2. Summary

Why do teachers perceive the language barrier as the most significant challenge? This study has identified three contributing factors. See Figure 5 below:
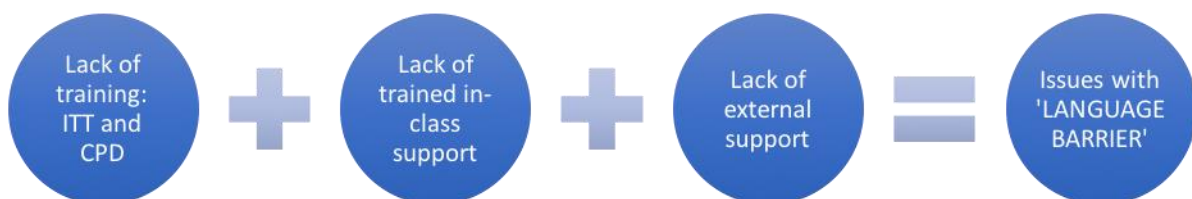

Figure 5. *Contributing factors to the 'language barrier'?*

An understanding of language learning and language development would come from access to relevant training and professional development. This study has revealed that the majority of participants are not receiving training in EAL, and it appears to be less of a whole-school focus than dyslexia. Furthermore, the lack of trained support staff in the classroom could call into question the efficacy of any interventions delivered and impact on a child's progress. Lastly, if a child learning EAL is still not making expected progress, professional guidance from a local authority agency such as EMA/TES would be sought. However, EMA/TES appear to be limited in their end-service delivery, assessing language but not learning issues. These three elements lead to, and perpetuate the challenges of overcoming the language barrier with children learning EAL.

This study is the first to explore the challenges of identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL from the perspective of the teacher. Although this is a small scale local study, it offers valuable insight into a nationwide issue and should act as a springboard for further research into ways we can better prepare and support our teachers to meet the needs of children with dyslexia learning EAL. Every teacher has a responsibility for provisions for these children. Furthermore, every school and local authority have a responsibility to provide regular continued professional development for their teachers. This report has exposed that there is little to no provision for children with dyslexia learning EAL in Somerset. Teachers are not receiving adequate training, they do not feel they have access to enough trained support staff in their classrooms or reliable professional guidance from local authority support agencies. The symptom of this threefold shortfall is the teachers' perceived challenge of the *language barrier* when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL (see Figure 5).

5.3.   Implications

This study has important implications for teacher training, both pre-service (ITT) and in-service (CPD) as more than three quarters of participants had received no explicit instruction on dyslexia, teaching EAL or most significantly dyslexia and EAL. Although changes need to be made to initial teacher training to more adequately prepare our newly qualified teachers for children with dyslexia learning EAL, there is only so much pre-service training can cover. School leaders need to be investing in the development of their staff; both teachers and TAs, with regular professional learning to ensure their skills are kept up to date. There needs to be a continuum of provision for teachers in dyslexia and EAL, from initial teacher training through to continued professional development, embraced by professional and expert local authority guidance. Only then can we hope to close the gap in provisions for teachers and students, and address the challenge of the language barrier.

5.4.   Limitations and Further Research

There were limitations to this study that need to be discussed. Firstly, in terms of participants, the distribution of the online survey was uneven. Due to the nature of the research, participants who agreed to take part had explicit experience with children learning EAL and/or dyslexia and many held senior specialist positions at their schools. The researcher should have been made clear at the point of distribution that the experiences of all teachers were valuable. Those teachers with very little experience with EAL and dyslexia were not proportionally represented in the sample group. Although this issue was fully investigated in section 4.1, results surrounding length of teaching experience and perceptions of their own efficacy with children learning EAL and dyslexia still need to be considered. Secondly, the survey was launched at the same time as the Key Stage 1 and 2

SATS. A larger response to the survey and interviews may have been received if they had been launched at a more convenient time for teachers.

In light of recent funding cuts, many local authorities are making redundancies, leading to the loss of EAL specialists and teaching assistants. School budgets for professional development are dwindling (BBC, 2017; The Guardian, 2017a; NAWSUT, 2012; The Guardian, 2011). Nevertheless, further research should focus on training and support for children with dyslexia learning EAL. Training needs to be available to all teachers and support staff, and designed to leave them feeling confident to overcome the language barrier when identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.

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Appendix 3: Copy of online survey

bos

English as an additional language (EAL) and dyslexia. (copy)

1 Consent Participation in this survey is anonymous. All information provided remains confidential and will be securely stored by the researcher according to the Data Protection Act of 1998. Should the research be published in a journal, the data will be provided only in a form that preserves the anonymity of all the participants. Participation is voluntary, and you are free to withdraw at any time. If you agree with the statement above, please confirm you would like to take part in this study:

No responses

2 Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?

No responses

3 Approximately how much training did you receive during initial teacher training on dyslexia?

No responses

3.a If you selected Other, please specify:

No responses

4 Approximately how much training did you receive during initial teacher training on English as an additional language (EAL)?

No responses

4.a If you selected Other, please specify:

No responses

5 Approximately how much training did you receive during initial teacher training on dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language (EAL)?

No responses

1 / 7

5.a If you selected Other, please specify:

No responses

---

6 Have you completed any post-qualification professional development courses in the last 18 months on the following (please check any that apply):

No responses

6.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

7 To what extent do you agree with this statement: I feel I have had sufficient training in teaching children who are learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

7.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

8 To what extent do you agree with this statement: I feel I have had sufficient training in teaching children with dyslexia.

No responses

8.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

9 To what extent do you agree with this statement: I feel I have had sufficient training in teaching a child learning English as an additional language with dyslexia.

No responses

9.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

10 I have access to enough in-school resources (including support staff and teaching materials) to provide quality additional support for children learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia.

No responses

10.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

11   I have enough additional trained support in my classroom on a daily basis to plan for the language development of a child learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

11.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

12   I have enough additional trained support in my classroom on a daily basis to to create a successful inclusive learning environment for children with dyslexia.

No responses

12.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

13   I have enough additional trained support in my classroom on a daily basis to plan for the language development and learning needs of a child learning English as an additional language with dyslexia.

No responses

13.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

14   I have accessed professional guidance from the Local Authorities Ethnic Minority Service (EMA) to best support the academic achievement of a child learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

14.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

I have accessed professional guidance from the Local Authorities Ethnic Minority Service (EMA) to best support

15 the academic achievement of a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia.

No responses

15.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

16 How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

No responses

16.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

17 Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who have been officially diagnosed as having dyslexia?

No responses

17.a If you selected YES, please say approximately how many:

No responses

18 Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who you have suspected as having dyslexia?

No responses

18.a If you selected YES, please say approximately how many:

No responses

19 Assessing the needs of a child learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

19.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

Assessing the needs of a child with dyslexia.

20

No responses

20.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

21   Assessing the needs of a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia.

No responses

21.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

22   Modifying instructions appropriately for a child learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

22.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

23   Modifying instructions for a child with dyslexia.

No responses

23.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

24   Modifying instructions for a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia.

No responses

24.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

25   Modifying teaching materials appropriately for a child learning English as an additional language (EAL).

No responses

25.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

26   Modifying teaching materials appropriately for a child with dyslexia.

No responses

26.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

27   Modifying teaching materials appropriately for a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia.

No responses

27.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

28   Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL)?

No responses

28.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

29   Have you used targeted interventions to support a child with dyslexia?

No responses

29.a   Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

30   Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

No responses

30.a Add further comments if you wish:

No responses

---

31 Please comment on what you believe to be the main challenges in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL.

No responses

---

32 Please comment on what you believe to be the main challenges in the day to day support of a child learning EAL with dyslexia.

No responses

---

33 Is there anything further you would like to add about your experiences?

No responses

---

34 Would you be happy for me to contact you about a short 15-30 minute interview? Please note your details will not be stored with your survey in order to protect the anonymity of the responses you have provided.

No responses

34.a Name:

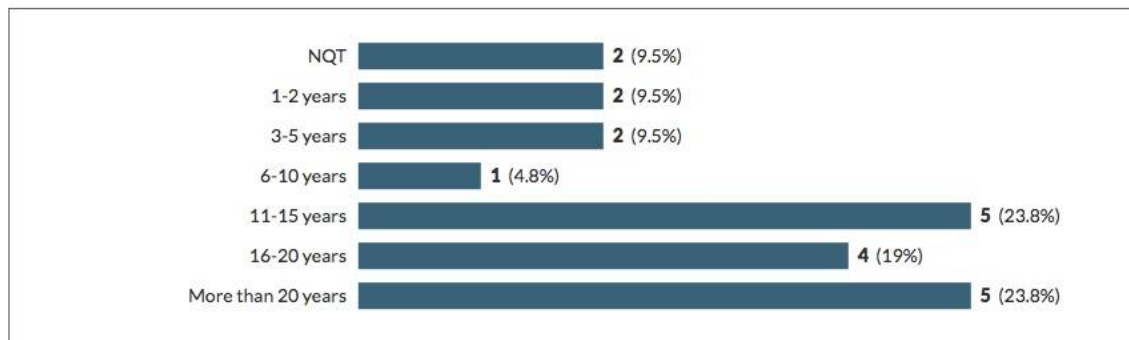*No responses*

34.b Email:

No responses

34.c Tel:

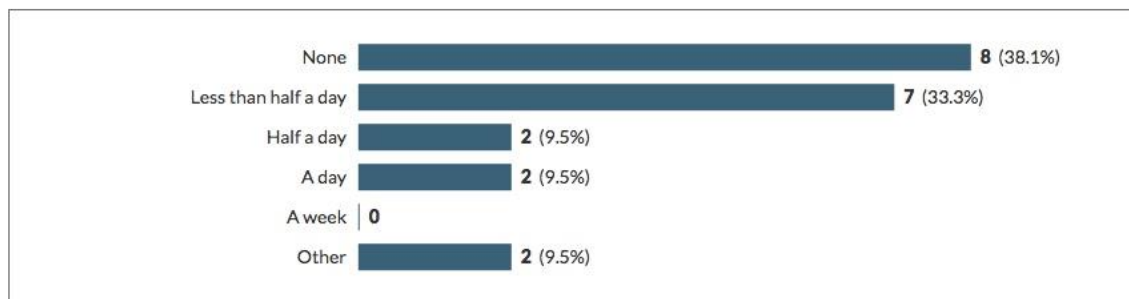*No responses*

Appendix 4: Example of survey frequency tables

2 Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?

NQT	2 (9.5%)
1-2 years	2 (9.5%)
3-5 years	2 (9.5%)
6-10 years	1 (4.8%)
11-15 years	5 (23.8%)
16-20 years	4 (19%)
More than 20 years	5 (23.8%)

3 Approximately how much training did you receive during initial teacher training on dyslexia?

None	8 (38.1%)
Less than half a day	7 (33.3%)
Half a day	2 (9.5%)
A day	2 (9.5%)
A week	0
Other	2 (9.5%)

5 Approximately how much training did you receive during initial teacher training on dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language (EAL)?

None	20 (95.2%)
Less than half a day	0
Half a day	0
A day	1 (4.8%)
A week	0
Other	0

5.a If you selected Other, please specify:

No responses

6 Have you completed any post-qualification professional development courses in the last 18 months on the following (please check any that apply):

Dyslexia	9 (34.6%)
EAL	6 (23.1%)
Dyslexia in children learning EAL	2 (7.7%)
None of the above	9 (34.6%)
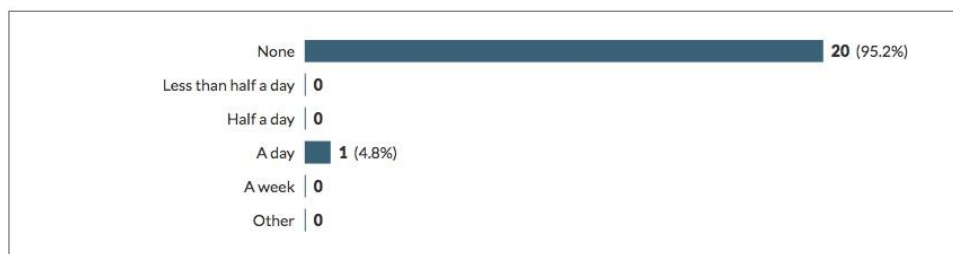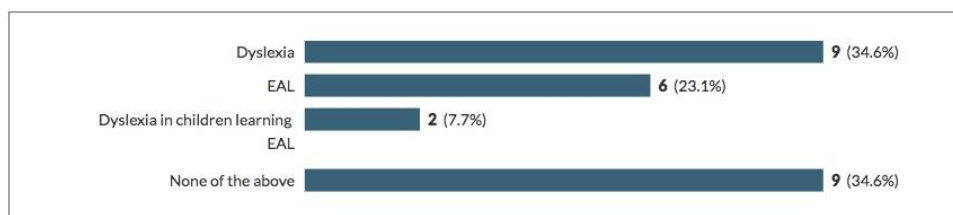
Appendix 5: Example of survey free-text data

6 Have you completed any post-qualification professional development courses in the last 18 months on the following (please check any that apply):

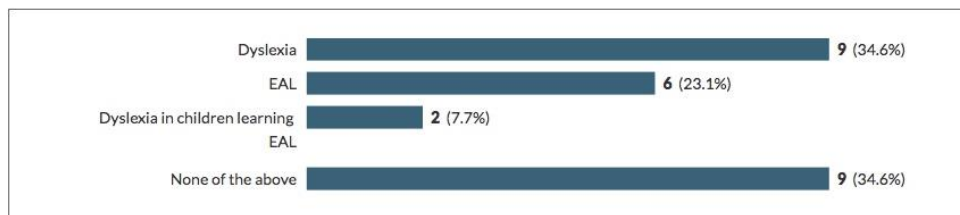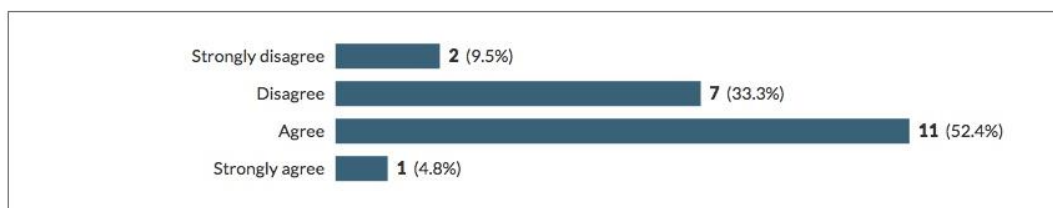|	
Dyslexia	**9** (34.6%)
EAL	**6** (23.1%)
Dyslexia in children learning EAL	**2** (7.7%)
None of the above	**9** (34.6%)

6.a Add further comments if you wish:

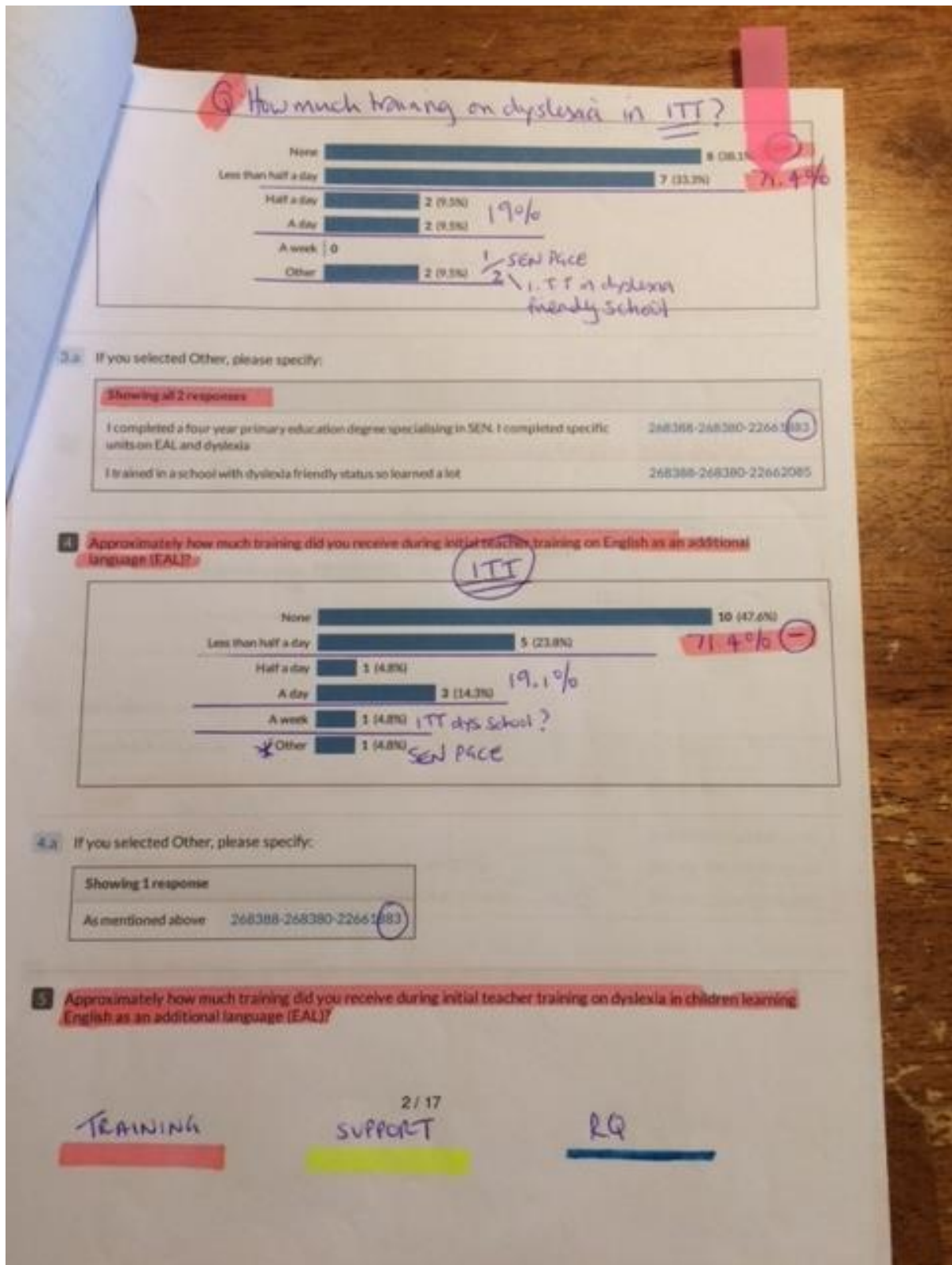| Showing all 4 responses	
I am the EAL and English lead and have completed course specifically for children with EAL and SEN	268388-268380-22661883
INSET through our school staff meetings	268388-268380-22896745
Whole school training in being a dyslexia friendly school	268388-268380-23170609
We have had some staff meeting on dyslexia and support with in 18 months.	268388-268380-23308563

8 To what extent do you agree with this statement: I feel I have had sufficient training in teaching children with dyslexia.

Strongly disagree	**2** (9.5%)
Disagree	**7** (33.3%)
Agree	**11** (52.4%)
Strongly agree	**1** (4.8%)

8.a Add further comments if you wish:

Showing all 5 responses	
Dyslexia is an umbrella term and each child with dyslexia may have different needs. I feel I have sufficient experience to identify when a child may have a specific learning difficulty with reading, writing, spelling or speech. I would seek further support from the SENDCo if I had concerns that a child had a specific difficulty.	268388-268380-22617706
As a Dyslexia friendly school we constantly retrain staff to ensure their knowledge if up to date	268388-268380-22896745
This has not been something training has focussed upo. It tends to be an add on during literacy training.	268388-268380-22997683
I have only recieved tarining when covered as part of our staff development rather than attending any external courses.	268388-268380-23210843
I would always like to know more to best support children as there is still a wide range of issues / difficulties that they may experience with dyslexia.	268388-268380-23308563

Appendix 6: Example of open coding survey data

Q: Feel they have had sufficient training in EAL

Strongly disagree — 4 (19%)
Disagree — 6 (28.6%)
Agree — 9 (42.9%)
Strongly agree — 2 (9.5%)

47.6% ⊖

52.4% ⊕
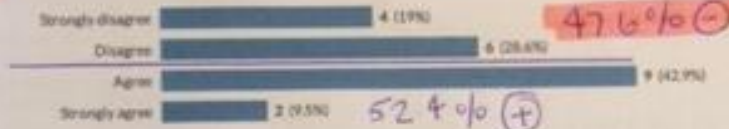
7.a Add further comments if you wish:

Showing all 5 responses

I would have preferred to put neither agree or disagree. I have not attended courses about teaching EAL children however I have been able to talk to an EAL expert in school who has given advice. During my time in the classroom I have only taught EAL children twice. My first experience was with an a year 2 child who had come from Germany and whose mother was Italian. She very quickly picked up the language and was soon top of the class. My next experience was with several year 3 and year 4 pupils from Poland and India. They needed to be pre-taught to ensure that they understood the concepts. The school had a high percentage of EAL pupils and employed a specialist EAL teacher and teaching assistants to support their pupils.

268388-268380-22817706

No training — good in-school support.

My first school was a very high eal school so I learned a lot on the job.

'on the job' training ✳

268388-268380-22658762

As the EAL coordinator I have had more training and sharing information than other teachers

268388-268380-22896745

I spent 7 years of my career working in Tower Hamlets where the training was excellent. ⊕

268388-268380-22997683

I attended a day's course on EAL about 5 years ago but apart from this have had very little training. ⊖

268388-268380-23210843

II To what extent do you agree with this statement: I feel I have had sufficient training in teaching children with _dyslexia._

Strongly disagree — 2 (9.5%)
Disagree — 7 (33.3%)
Agree — 11 (52.4%)
Strongly agree — 1 (4.8%)

42.8% ⊖

57.2% ⊕
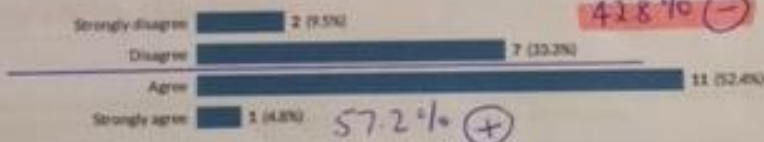
8.a Add further comments if you wish:

TRAINING

SUPPORT

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...ve enough additional trained support in my classroom on a daily basis to to create a successful inclusive ...rning environment for children with dyslexia.

• Dyslexia

Strongly disagree	1 (4.8%)
Disagree	5 (23.8%)
Agree	14 (66.7%)
Strongly agree	1 (4.8%)

28.6% ⊖
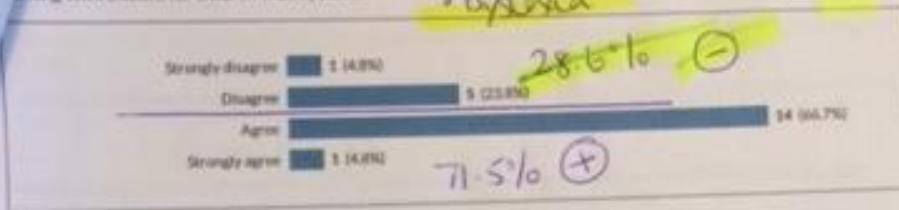
71.5% ⊕

12.a Add further comments if you wish:

Showing all 4 responses

I'm not teaching so this is difficult to answer. In my opinion you don't necessarily need to have additional support to provide a successful and inclusive learning environment. There are many strategies that can be employed. Clearly it will depend on other variables such as the number of children in the class, the number of children with SEN in the class and the nature of the needs pupils with dyslexia need.

268388-268380-22617706

Neither - TAs are trained but time is limited

268388-268380-22661883

We do not have any other person IN the classroom, just the main teacher. However, children are given additional support by 'native speakers' in their native tongue. These teachers also have dyslexia training.

268388-268380-22662731

As above

268388-268380-22896745

13 I have enough additional trained support in my classroom on a daily basis to plan for the language development and learning needs of a child learning English as an additional language with dyslexia.

EAL + dyslexia

Strongly disagree	4 (19%)
Disagree	12 (57.1%)
Agree	5 (23.8%)
Strongly agree	0

76.1% ⊖

23.8% ⊕
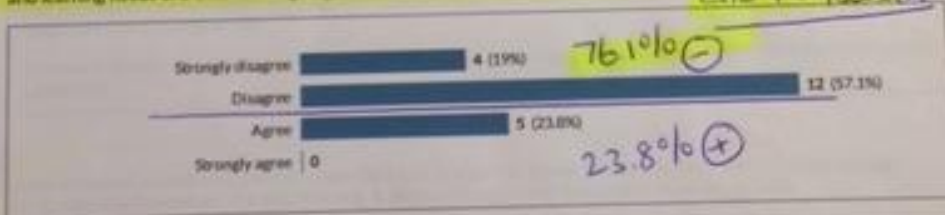
13.a Add further comments if you wish:

SUPPORT

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RQ: main challenges in identifying dyslexia in EAL

Showing all 21 responses

Until a child has a good understanding of English it is hard to be clear on signs of dyslexia. — 268388-268380-22601341

It is more of a problem what do do once you have identified the problem. *support actions* — 268388-268380-22618034

I do not have sufficient experience with EAL children to comment. *experience* — 268388-268380-22617706

It would be difficult to assess what areas of support is needed by the child due to a possible language barrier and also by differences in spelling across the different languages. *(lang)* — 268388-268380-22624964

English level, parents English level, age of the child, whether their first language is in a different script. — 268388-268380-22658762

Getting the children to understand what it is they are seeing or not understanding. — 268388-268380-22659878

The barrier of language when children are just starting to learn the basics of English *lang* — 268388-268380-22665883

Language barrier using the various tools. *language + assessments* — 268388-268380-22662085

I do not see it as a challenge as I have a link with colleagues who will advise and support. — 268388-268380-22662733

As I understand it, in order for dyslexia to be diagnosed, the pupil needs to have a certain level of English already, because of the randomness of mistakes in a dyslexic child, it would be very hard to distinguish between dyslexia and normally recurrent syntax errors if the pupil is new to the English language. *(VOC)* — 268388-268380-22676354

I believe that it is the amount of time it takes to collect the evidence. Alongside this parental support or lack of it can hinder the information gathering. *parental support* — 268388-268380-22896745

language barrier. home support in learning English *parental lang support* — 268388-268380-22902186

Is the language being acquired relative to other EAL children or are blocks to learning. — 268388-268380-22958664

Not confusing with other SEND needs. Especially around memory and speed of processing. — 268388-268380-22997683

Knowing if it is a language barrier or a specific learning difficulty as the two can be confused in signs. *lang or SEND* — 268388-268380-23065736

The language barrier *lang level* — 268388-268380-23064866

The language barriers, have children got difficulties in English or their own language? — 268388-268380-23161595

Getting the right people to come in and carry out the assessment. *Access to right support* — 268388-268380-23170609

Children with EAL can find it more difficult to complete writing tasks e.g. tenses and spellings of words.
Reading - EAL children may not fully understand what they are reading and therefore it can be difficult to accurately assess his/her understanding of what has been read. *lang* — 268388-268380-23210843

It is hard to know if the difficulties they have are down to the amount of English they have acquired / developed of due to a specific learning difficulty especially when they first join school. *lang level* — 268388-268380-23308563

Understanding what they know in their own language to identify dyslexia. If they no little, this makes it more difficult to assess. *lang level* — 268388-268380-23310825

Please comment on what you believe to be the main challenges in the day to day support of a child learning EAL

16 / 20

Student language level

evidence / assessments

support

Q3b: (if received training) In terms of the training you have received, what do you feel has been useful and applicable? And what do you feel could be improved?

Q4: Can you describe an experience that stands out for you in terms of a child learning EAL with dyslexia, or whom you suspected to be dyslexic?

Prompt: Or with a child learning EAL that was not making as much progress as expected?

Q5: In your opinion, what do you perceive to be the main challenges you face when identifying a child learning EAL with dyslexia?

Q6a: Could you describe to me the type of support that you have access to for children learning EAL with dyslexia?

Prompt: How does it differ, if at all, to support for monolingual children with dyslexia?

Q6b: How do you think support could be improved for you as a practitioner and ultimately these learners?

Prompt:
- More training for teachers in EAL (language acquisition) and SEN
- More in-class staff support
- Changes to curriculum expectations
- More time to lesson plan and differentiate

Thank you for your time.
Is there anything you would like to add?
Do you have any questions you would like to ask me?

Appendix 9: Transcription extracts

Extract from Interview A

Interview A	
Participants	**Interviewer [LS]** **Teacher A – Respondent [Resp. A.]**
Date	**Thursday 8th June**

1.	LS	OK, so, thank you for agreeing to take part in this follow up interview.
2.	Resp. A.	Not a problem.
3.	LS	So, the purpose of this interview is to gain a deeper understanding, through your perspective, of the challenges primary school teachers face when identifying and supporting dyslexia in children learning English as an additional language. The interview should take no longer than 20 minutes and you will be recorded on two devices: a mobile phone and a digital recorder, if you could just verbally confirm you are happy for me to do that?
4.	Resp. A.	I'm happy.
5.	LS	Thank you very much. And please be assured that at no point will I be identifying you or your school…
6.	Resp. A.	OK that's fine.
7.	LS	…during this research. So, can we just start with how long you've been a primary school teacher?
8.	Resp. A.	Err primary school teacher….16 years now.
9.	LS	16 years?
10.	Resp. A.	**Laughing** It's a long time.
11.	LS	And do you have any additional roles or responsibilities?
12.	Resp. A.	Yes, I'm currently the EAL coordinator for the school, I'm also the assistant Head with responsibility for Key Stage 1 and reception, and also teaching and learning across the school.
13.	LS	Just a few…
14.	Resp. A.	Just a few things…. **Laughing**
15.	LS	…..to add on to that **Laughing** And can you tell me roughly how many children you have learning EAL in this school?
16.	Resp. A.	Err…..roughly…we're probably up to sixty-four sixty-five percent across the school. So that is roughly, I think it works out at one hundred and….fifteen ish. Fifteen sixteen ish.
17.	LS	OK.
18.	Resp.	Um, I've just had an email this morning from our office manager saying

	A.	there's another 3 children enrolled for September in Key Stage 2, which are three additional EAL children.
19.	LS	OK, and how much of a, um, how much background information do you get on those children before they start?
20.	Resp. A.	It depends on the families, to be honest, and it depends when they start, um, so for instance one of the new children starting in September in year…Key Stage 2, we have a bit more information because they are currently at another primary school in XXXX, so we can gather a bit more information. One of the other children is coming straight from XXXX and we will know nothing until they arrive.
21.	LS	OK
22.	Resp. A.	Basically.
23.	LS	And so I guess you have your own assessments in place for when they do arrive?
24.	Resp. A.	Yes. The EMAS team that works with county send out assessment tracking sheets that we can use, and what we tend…what we do for county is we do an initial assessment using their assessment tools, and then after six months we do a review to see the progress etc.
25.	LS	OK, great. And can you tell me about any specific training you've had with EAL and dyslexia?
26.	Resp. A.	There has been nothing specifically for EAL and dyslexia. We have had separate EAL training and separate dyslexia training, and during our recent EAL training it was pointed out, I think by one of our members of staff, the similarities between…suitable resources for dyslexic children and the EAL children, and how similar the training we had for EAL was from, to, a dyslexic training we'd received a couple of week previously.
27.	LS	That's great, so you made those connections….
28.	Resp. A.	Yes….
29.	LS	…yourself, that's brilliant. And thinking back to the training, the separate training, what was the most….erm….applicable from the training and what could have been improved?
30.	Resp. A.	Err…the most applicable would be something that we constantly use anyway, which is visual, real life experiences, practical learning, um, because, as we've discovered being a dyslexic friendly school and an EAL rich school, practical real life is where children need to be. Um, sometimes the not helpful side of things is the focus on the assessment…
31.	LS	Yea.
32.	Resp. A.	…because as all primary teachers are aware, until children are settled, and confident, and happy in their surroundings, assessment and academic progress is secondary. Um, and so for some children, it takes them years, and years and years, to become settled, happy children. And then so the assessment can be quite…difficult, and…not necessary.
33.	LS	Would you say it's particularly useful?

Appendix 10: Example of open coding interview data

109.	LS	[No, should be fine] Um, could you describe an experience that stands out for you with a child learning EAL who's either dyslexic or has not been making as much progress…?
110.	Resp B	Probably, thinking back to my teaching days, cos I did work in a school right in the middle of XXXX which was a lot of EAL children, um, it was actually getting the advice that we needed, because often, y'know, not being very knowledgeable in the area myself, not knowing how to help a child with EAL, y'know obviously, y'know, they've got to start speaking English, but its how do you, y'know, before I became a SENCo, I really didn't know about those sorts of, y'know, techniques to use, um, so I think for me it was, it was trying to get information of how I could actually support those children.
111.	LS	So access to outside support services?
112.	Resp B	I think so, yes, um and the SENCo we had at the school wasn't particularly, um…proactive because they were teaching for, y'know in a huge school, four days, and then the SENCo for a day, so we had very little support in terms of, y'know, where do we go from here, um, so I think that was the frustration really…
113.	LS	And how did you manage that then?
114.	Resp B	I mean, we had access to EMAS, but its…they're very limited aren't they in how much support they can offer, um and actually the man that was doing it at the time, I think his job became…y'know, redundant, um so there was quite a lack of resources I think in…particularly in North Somerset, um, in this school now we've obviously got Anna who works with our EAL children and she has quite a good relationship with a lady who works at EMAS…[I don't this its called EMAS anymore is it?]
115.	LS	Yes…I think so…
116.	Resp B	Um, and she, she is able then…we work fairly closely together and we're obviously in the same office, so we're able then, to sort of discuss children and she'll say well I can ask so and so to come in and assess and, um so I feel we've got better access now and I know where to go, whereas I think before probably not knowing how to access that service, um, and having to do it through a SENCo that wasn't really…there…
117.	LS	Yea.
118.	Resp B	…y'know, um…
119.	LS	With regards to sort of improving that situation for all teachers, um, do you think possibly changes to initial teacher training where EAL and language acquisition is, is included?
120.	Resp B	I mean obviously I, I trained a long long time ago and I don't think we had any EAL training at all back then, I don't know what it's like now, um, it's certainly not, not a bad idea to be y'know, to be up in that subject and to know what you can do and strategies to use especially as a newly qualified teacher I would think that was probably a really important aspect of teaching, because now more and more aren't we, y'know we've got more and more children in this country that are EAL.

EMAS support

TRAINING

SUPPORT

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38.	Resp A	Yep, not a problem. Um, we've currently, we only have one child, one EAL child, who is diagnosed dyslexic. Um, he is a Year 4 child who we've had since reception. Throughout reception, Year 1, Year 2, we had very challenging behaviour, behaviours we didn't ...didn't know where they came from. We had back history of the child who'd been in an abusive household, he has siblings ranging....he was the youngest of four siblings, his older brother was, is now 24, and so there were lots of different, different, um, family members, that we didn't know of. He lived with mum and his siblings and his grandparents, and so there were a lot of social issues. So throughout Key Stage 1 and reception his behaviour was very challenging. He refused to communicate, he couldn't communicate in Polish, his home language, or in English, um, and so what we found until he became himself, and more settled, and more confident in his surroundings, the learning was secondary, and so we focussed on his emotional social, um, education. Then, as he moved through the school we realised quite, quite quickly how far adrift his academic work was, um, from where it should be. So we contacted the EMAS team to come in and do assessments because our assessments weren't showing us what we needed to do. Their assessments said yes there is a problem but we're not sure whether it's with the home language, whether it's with English, or whether it's something else. So, then we needed to contact the educational support team who said he needed to be on our SEND register before they would get involved, so it was a long process, um, only recently, since the diag....not since the diagnosis but since near the diagnosis has he become calm enough to be ready to work. Um, and as I said, he's currently in Year 4, so he's had five years in the school of...not much education.
39.	LS	How long do you think that process took then from you raising concerns to...
40.	Resp A	Oh, concerns were raised in reception.
41.	LS	OK.
42.	Resp A	And he was always on our...probably our watch list, but we were passed from service, to service to service, nobody...really...wanted to get involved.
43.	LS	Right. In your opinion then, what could be improved throughout that process?
44.	Resp A	I think communication between external services, definitely um, and also support for external services I know for instance the EMAS team were here basically to assess language, um and not learning, whereas the learning team were here to asses learning and not language acquisition, so neither team knew whether it was their remit, if that makes sense?.
45.	LS	Yea. Yea.
46.	Resp A	Um, and us as a school, all we could say was he's not progressing how he should be, and we're concerned, and our Polish support worker has done extensive work with the family to try and... to make that easier, and not so much of an issue, there's always gonna be baggage with the family but not so much of an issue, and so when, we realised when that was... happier and more content and the other things weren't progressing, there was a bigger issue.

Handwritten annotations in margins: "older brother", "EMAS Support", "EMAS", "Assess", "Support", "EMAS Support", "EMAS SUPPORT"

Appendix 11: Example of axial coding

Appendix 12: EMA/TES EAL and SEN training

📅 Training / Event Details

EAL and SEN A Guide for Teachers

Outline
This course will be a half day morning session delivered by Suzy Howlett (EMA/TES) and Heidi Humpage (LSS) looking at children with SEN and EAL.

Description
This course will cover the following areas;

- Understand the possible overlap between English as an Additional Language (EAL) and Special Educational Needs (SEN)
- Be more confident in identifying SEN in children learning EAL
- To plan points for action and personalised provision where required.

We will look at case studies related to Somerset children and participants will receive a data stick uploaded with useful resources.

Booking Information
Prices start from £50.00
Please log on to find out your school/setting price

Lunch is not provided on this course.

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23 Jan 2018 09:15 - 12:30

Closing date: 09/01/2018

Book Now → (requires login)

Ethnic Minority Achievement & Traveller Education Service (EMA/TES).
Contact Provider ⊕

Date and Time
23 Jan 2018 09:15 - 12:30

Venue
Brookside School (BROOK / 1), Brooks Road, Street, Somerset, BA16 0PR

View on map →

Trainer
Suzy Howlett

Attachments
No attachments

Appendix 13: Technical tables: findings and discussion chapter

Table 1 – Length of teaching experience compared to experience in teaching children learning EAL diagnosed with dyslexia

Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who have been officially diagnosed as having dyslexia?

Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who have been officially diagnosed as having dyslexia?	Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?							No answer	Totals
	NQT	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years		
Yes	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.76%	4.76%	0.00%	9.52%	0.00%	19.05%
No	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	0.00%	19.05%	19.05%	9.52%	0.00%	76.19%
I don't know	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	4.76%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	4.76%	23.81%	19.05%	23.81%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 2 – Length of teaching experience compared to confidence in identifying dyslexia in a child learning EAL

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Approximately how long have you been working as a primary teacher?							No answer	Totals
	NQT	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years		
Very confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Fairly confident	4.76%	9.52%	4.76%	4.76%	9.52%	4.76%	14.29%	0.00%	52.38%
Not very confident	4.76%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	14.29%	4.76%	9.52%	0.00%	38.10%
Not at all confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	9.52%	0.00%	0.00%	9.52%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	9.52%	9.52%	9.52%	4.76%	23.81%	19.05%	23.81%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 3 – Confidence in identifying dyslexia in children learning EAL compared to amount of training received via continued professional development (CPD)

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

How confident are you in identifying a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Have you completed any post-qualification professional development courses in the last 18 months on the following (please check any that apply):				No answer	Totals
	Dyslexia	EAL	Dyslexia in children learning EAL	None of the above		
Very confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Fairly confident	19.23%	11.54%	7.69%	19.23%	0.00%	57.69%
Not very confident	15.38%	11.54%	0.00%	7.69%	0.00%	34.62%
Not at all confident	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	7.69%	0.00%	7.69%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	34.62%	23.08%	7.69%	34.62%	0.00%	100.00%

Table 4 – How many suspected they had taught a child learning EAL with dyslexia compared to how many had used targeted interventions

Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?

Have you used targeted interventions to support a child learning English as an additional language (EAL) with dyslexia?	Have you taught any children learning English as an additional language (EAL) who you have suspected as having dyslexia?			No answer	Totals
	Yes	No	I don't know		
Yes	28.57%	0.00%	4.76%	0.00%	33.33%
No	19.05%	47.62%	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%
No answer	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Totals	47.62%	47.62%	4.76%	0.00%	100.00%