DEVELOPING SOMALI HERITAGE LANGUAGE THROUGH EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES: A CASE STUDY EXPLORING PERCEPTIONS OF SOMALI ORIGIN PRIMARY PUPILS AND THEIR PARENTS.

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Abstract

Pupils learning a second language, while maintaining their home language (heritage language) for academic purposes, often experience an advantage in classrooms. However, in England, generally, there is a lack of any policies that aim to develop heritage languages in schools, and this may create an academic disadvantage for these pupils. This qualitative case study explored ways to reverse this disadvantage by looking at: 1) how teaching heritage language literacy to 13 KS2 pupils in an English primary school, who were all (except one) born in England and whose dominant language is English, can be beneficial for them and their parents; and 2) how teaching heritage language literacy to 7 of these pupils' parents can empower them with confidence to support their heritage language literacy and English literacy at home.

Cummins' (1978) threshold, language interdependence and linguistic transfer hypotheses (1976) were employed as the analytical framework for the study, to examine how heritage language literacy learning by pupils may impact on their grammar achievement in the classroom. The study also aimed to understand how concepts learned in English might be transferred to heritage language during the intervention sessions, and how learning heritage language literacy in general impacts pupils and parents.

Through the use of surveys, semi-structured interviews, a reflective diary, language assessments and intervention sessions, the trajectory of the participants' heritage language literacy learning journey was mapped out. The three themes ascertained from the semi-structured interview findings suggest that pupils believe that learning heritage language literacy is important for: 1) identity; 2) cognition; and 3) communication. The themes from parents' pre and post study interviews mirror this with an addition of a fourth theme: 4) strategies and barriers to maintain heritage language literacy. Based on the findings of the study, results-driven recommendations were given. Limitations of the study included gender representation disparity of pupils (8 boys and 5 girls) and parents (only mothers), and time constraints. The thesis outlines the implications of the study and

recommendations for further research, concluding with the author's reflection on what he has learned personally and professionally from carrying out this study.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS	
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
EAL	English as an Additional Language
HL	Heritage language
KS1	Key Stage 1
KS2	Key Stage 2
L1	First language
L2	Second language
DfE	Department for Education (for England)
SATs	Standard Attainment Tests.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Research

Hendershott (2009), citing the work of Douglass (2006), postulated that it is much easier to build strong children than to repair them when they are broken. This is the philosophy behind my decision to carry out this study. As the study is about understanding the role of Somali heritage language (HL) literacy in creating cognitive advantage and the importance of parental involvement in children's learning, these topics will be discussed against a background of my personal experience. This is to enable the reader to understand the rationale and the long journey that brought me towards undertaking this doctoral degree. The Chapter will also examine the context of Somalia as the heritage country of the study's participants and my personal and school contexts. Finally, the research question and research sub-questions will be explored, before concluding with an overview of this study.

In this dissertation, I use the term 'Somali heritage pupils' to mean pupils who were born in the UK and have parents of Somali origin. Within the English educational context, Somali heritage pupils receive academic instruction in a medium other than their HL (i.e. English rather than Somali) during their schooling. Although, prior to beginning Foundation Stage (Nursery and Reception) learning, pupils generally have oral HL skills, it is often the case that this is weakened due to exposure to English and socializing in English with their peer group at school (Sousa, 2011). This potentially results in the diminishment of their HL, which may mean that they learn English language at the expense of the HL. This is believed to lead to cognitive disadvantage, whereas if the pupils had maintained their HL, they might have experienced cognitive advantage (Cummins, 1976). At the end of the Key Stage 2 Standard Attainment Tests (SATs) assessment in 2013, the attainment of Somali heritage pupils in Bristol in combined reading, writing and maths was 54.6%, whereas the equivalent attainment of all pupils in Bristol was 76.0% (Mills, 2014). I believe that this attainment gap between Somali heritage pupils and all Bristol pupils could have been mitigated by developing the pupils' HL literacy alongside their English literacy. This, in turn, could have facilitated developing their English literacy competence in the classroom (Schleppegrell and Colombi, 2002; Cummins and Swain, 1986).

Regardless of whether they were born in Somalia or England, the rate at which primary age Somali heritage pupils lose their HL cannot be underestimated. For example, at the beginning of the academic year 2013–2014, prior to joining the Reception class at my school, pupils are visited at home by the Reception teacher to facilitate a smooth home-school transition. In my capacity as a translator, I once accompanied the class teacher to visit a Somali family. Prior to our visit, the future Reception pupil, a talkative girl in nature who had just come from Somalia, was pre-advised by her parents that an English teacher would visit her. She was not expecting a translator like me and, when I greeted her in the Somali language, she started engaging me in a fluent and mature conversation which surprised me and the Reception teacher as well.

After beginning in Reception class, I was assigned to teach her basic English vocabulary using the Somali language. At that point, her English-speaking skill seemed to be developing rapidly. In fact, at the beginning of the next academic year, 2015–2016, one morning, as I was walking around her classroom without noticing her, she grabbed me by the hand. I said, '*ciid wanaagsan*' – *happy Eid*' (the Muslim celebration which had just ended). She replied '*heh?*' I repeated it, but she still did not understand. I was surprised, and quickly reverted to speaking in English. '*How come just last year you were fluent in the Somali language and you knew no English words; and now you do not know what I am saying in Somali?*' She giggled (she was always humorous) and said, '*my mum cannot understand me!*' meaning that there was a communication issue at home as her mum, who had come to England at the same time as her, used the Somali language to communicate, while the girl was gradually losing her Somali-speaking competence.

This sentence took me by surprise, and I felt guilty. Whilst the school, the environment and her home had collectively contributed to making the sentence, '*my mum cannot understand me*!' I was unwittingly part of the language shift of this innocent girl. My aim was just the target language, English; even though, during the teaching, I was using HL to support pupil's better understanding. However, this hasty intervention of teaching her English vocabulary had resulted in promoting the English language and creating communication barriers at home, in the community and with the girl's distant relatives.

Reflecting on this incident generated a professional identity conflict inside me. There I was, a Somali heritage man who values his HL and yet, unintentionally, I was supporting the language shift of an English as an Additional Language (EAL) Somali pupil. But what else could I do? Montrul (2008) asserts that children such as this girl, who have yet to reach late childhood are likely to lose their HL in a second language (L2)-dominant environment, because her HL might have been incompletely acquired. This 4-year-old girl came from Somalia to a second language dominant environment, Bristol; her Somali grammar may have not developed fully and began learning a second language, English. I had been acting in what I believed to be the best interests of the pupil by enabling her to access the curriculum in English. Additionally, my job role was to use HL to develop the EAL student's L2, English. However, still it seems that there was no justification for me in answering the question *what else could I do?* Perhaps what I could do was to raise with her parents the importance of maintaining the pupil's HL at home, by reducing the time she spent watching English language TV, to avoid the possible ensuing cognitive disadvantage. Somali heritage pupils in England's mainstream education need to be rescued from the potential underachievement that may be caused by them losing their HL, which could then further de-motivate and lead them to fail academically.

I understand the experience of educational challenges personally too. The experience of failure, the deep anguish, sorrow and the frustration I suffered in primary school in Mogadishu, Somalia, still haunts me; and it morally compels me to try to avert students' academic failure where possible. My own experience taught me that a less threatening learning environment, along with academic support from parents, can give children fresh impetus to realise their academic potential. My desire to support children's learning evolved from my own childhood, because of an unforgettable experience that I went through – I failed in the end of Year 3 exam and had to re-sit Year 3. At the time, I was neither at the top nor at the bottom of the class in terms of academic ability. I can still vividly recall one of the test questions: *write twenty-five cent as a figure*, to which I gave my answer as *25* rather than as a decimal, *0.25*. When the exam result was published, I was unable to come to terms with the reality of my failure, and nor could my mother, who joined me in claiming that the test was unfair. She further assured me that my father, who was a high-ranking military officer,

would visit the school to question the validity of the test and would not listen to any concocted explanation the school might offer. This revived my hope for a short period, until my father refused to do as my mother suggested and claimed that I was very young and still had an opportunity to learn. I could not understand how my father could do that and hurled myself into bed, cried profoundly and refused to eat lunch with the rest of the family.

After lunch, my father came up to me and explained why it was unnecessary for him to visit the school; and reaffirmed to me that I would move to the top of the class through his teaching at home. Later that day, he bought a blackboard and chalks and began teaching me Arabic and maths. This bore fruit when I was awarded the top place in my class the next year. I was delighted and felt energised due to enhanced self-esteem and motivation. It was the first time I had believed that I could learn in every lesson. This, in turn, proved to be beneficial for the local children as, because of the award, some neighbourhood parents asked my mother if I could support their children, who were younger than me.

Reflecting on that previous traumatic year, my father's reassurance that my learning would improve, the physical closeness and relationship with my father when he was teaching me, and the security of the environment in which I was learning might have all contributed to my rapid academic attainment that year. I wonder what my outcome would have been at the end of the academic year if my dad was illiterate and unable to support me? Or if he reacted indifferently to my underperformance? Or, worse still, if he had abused his military authority to demand that I must progess into Year 4? Or what if my mother had been a lone asylum-seeker or refugee who was unable to support me with my academic lessons in one way or another? Certainly, it would be most unlikely that I would be writing this dissertation now.

After gaining a newly found motivation, my quest for challenges unfolded over subsequent years. The government changed its education policy to introduce the Somali language as a medium of instruction in the primary school system, which proved to be a significant opportunity and advantage for me. Whilst retaining the Arabic language as a subject of its own and for teaching for spiritual purposes, I believe that the introduction of Somali as the medium of instruction relieved an

immense burden from my shoulders and empowered me with unprecedented ability, especially in understanding the written problems in maths. For example, in the previous Arabic curriculum what I found particularly challenging was understanding which mathematical operation would be chosen for the following examples:

1. *A man bought 235 goats. Each goat costs Sh.45. How much money would the man have to pay?*
2. *If there are 450 plants and 50 plant pots, how many flowers will be planted in each pot?*

In the above questions, a multiplication operation is needed to solve (1), whereas a division operation is needed for (2). I found that this conceptual deficiency was a trivial problem when using the Somali language because I could focus on the problem solving instead of on the language. Thus, what would have happened if I had first learned the Somali language, and was then asked to solve the above problems in Arabic? I strongly trust that it would have been much easier as I would have just needed conceptual transfer from Somali language (L1) to Arabic (L2) (Cummins and Swain, 1986, p.3, citing the work of McLaughlin, 1984). The illustration above is one example of how the Somali language could help me by giving me a cognitive advantage and by equipping me with a conceptual appreciation that made it possible for me to tackle the ever-challenging problem (conceptual understanding) during my schooling period many years ago. Furthermore, the account of my Year 3 experience provides an example of parental involvement in children's learning, which can be counted as a positive tool for accelerating the children's academic progress.

After that long journey, now here I am, dedicated to improving the life chances of Somali pupils at my school by attempting to support them with their academic attainment through developing their HL. I hope that this will facilitate conceptual transfer from HL to English literacy and vice versa. However, the scarcity of literature on simultaneously developing Somali pupils' literacies in HL and English in schools is regrettable. This is because the evidence shows that children who are deprived of their HL and culture in the classroom, and are learning a second language as beginners, will find their learning process slowed down, as they are struggling to grasp new skills and ideas '…through …[a] medium of a barely understood language'

(Whitehead, 2007, p.26, cited in Brooker, 2002). The importance of HL is cited in Baker (2011, p.45, citing the Sicilian poet Buttitta, 1972):

> Shackle a people, strip them bare, cover their mouths: they are still free. Deprive them of work, their passports, food and sleep: they are still rich. A people are poor and enslaved when they are robbed of the language inherited from their parents: it is lost forever.

Because of limited HL literacy competence, the Somali pupils in England are likely to find themselves in a difficult situation academically. Thus, this research project was undertaken to fill the current gaps in literature on developing the HL literacy of Somali pupils in an English primary school. This was carried out by developing their HL literacy, alongside that of their parents, who were expected to gain confidence to support their children's learning.

1.2 Background Context

Somalia, a country in East Africa, shares borders with Kenya in the South West, Ethiopia in the West, Djibouti in North West, the Red Sea in the North and the Indian Ocean in the East. Its population was estimated by the United Nations to be around 7.7 million in mid-1991 (Fitzgerald, 2002). The origin of Somali can be traced back to the Cushitic group of languages, which are spoken in Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, Kenya and Tanzania (Dalby, 1998). Whilst the Cushitic family consists of more than 30 languages spoken in Eastern and North Eastern Africa, Oromo (40 million) and Somalis (7 million) are the largest two groups that use a Cushitic language *(*Tosco, 2000)*.*

At the Berlin Conference in 1884-85, Somalia was divided into five colonies: North West (now Djibouti), North Somalia, South Somalia, South West (the Northern Frontier District, NFD – now part of Kenya), and West (now part of Ethiopia) (Milner, 2009). In 1960, Somalia gained independence and the blue Somali flag, with its five-pointed white star in the middle, was hoisted. The five points represent the five colonies. After nine years of independence, power was seized by the military. The military junta, *The Supreme Council of the Revolution,* outlawed the constitution and

ruled the country until early 1991. During this military rule, perhaps the most remarkable thing they achieved was the introduction of the Somali orthography in late 1972, which was later spread throughout the schools in 1973. In 1974, reading and writing of the Somali language was further introduced into nomadic areas. Elementary, secondary and university students were mobilised to implement this, and they travelled and stayed with the Somali nomads in their areas to teach them how to read and write the Somali orthography. However, in 1991, the military regime was overthrown. The country was then plunged into a chaotic situation and civil war erupted in the capital city, Mogadishu. This saw the destruction of infrastructures and the displacement of many Somalis, who were dispersed to the world's seven continents. Most of them emigrated to Western countries, including England. The civil war negatively impacted upon the development of the Somali orthography in Somalia due to a lack of educational institutions with effective education policies. This also affected the Somali adults who used to benefit from evening classes which provided education in Somali literacy in informal settings.

Many immigrants of Somali origin found themselves in England, where their children attend schools. This clearly presented a challenge to England's educational system, as extra support had to be provided for these incoming Somali-origin pupils, along with other pupils whose heritage language was different from English. To facilitate the effective inclusion of English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners in mainstream education, the UK government launched a discretionary grant through the existing Section 11 of the Local Government Act 1966. Finance gained through this measure enabled schools to provide the required support for EAL pupils. This included recruiting extra staff from ethnic minority backgrounds as teachers, to reinforce the successful inclusion of these disadvantaged pupils (Tőzűn and Hatt, 2013) because these efforts and provisions were directed at developing English as the second language, the idea of promoting and maintaining pupils' heritage languages in the classroom or through extra-curricular provision appears to have been overlooked. This might have contributed to EAL pupils' underachievement, including those from Somalia.

1.3 Personal Context

Since moving to England from the Netherlands in 2004, I have been working with primary schools in Bristol. When I was in the Netherlands, I found that learning the Dutch language presented more challenges for me than when I was learning Arabic and English in Somalia. Whether this was because I was learning Dutch in later life, or because of the anxiety of being an asylum-seeker remains an open question. I became more aware of grammar's pivotal role in understanding the meaning of sentences. However, one of the grammatical structures that posed a challenge for me was knowing how to use the word '*omdat*', meaning *'because'*. In Dutch, it is often the case that two words are used for reasoning: *'want'* and '*omdat*'. The difficulty seems to evolve from how the sentence structure changes when using *'omdat'*; which I had never seen before. For example:

   a) *Ik wil eten, want ik* **heb** *honger (I want to eat because I* **have** *hunger).*
   b) *Ik wil eten omdat ik honger* **heb** *(I want to eat because I hunger* **have***).*

As I was grappling to learn the Dutch language in an asylum-seekers' centre, I volunteered to support the Somali asylum-seekers' children there with their maths homework, using the Somali language. Children were collected by bus to attend schools outside the centre. Supporting exclusively Somali children presented me with a moral dilemma, as it excluded the children from other ethnicities who had shared the same traumatic experiences as the Somali children. However, considering many factors such as: 1) sharing their cultural background and easily accessibile by communicating them with Somali language; 2) the level of psychological distress of Somali asylum-seekers in the centre as a consequence of previous traumatic experiences; and 3) the psychological distress that was possibly caused by living in another country with a different culture and climate, where seeing snow falling was a first-time experience for most of the asylum-seekers, I decided to support only Somali children. Nonetheless, teaching these children proved to be a challenge as they had no previous formal education. So, they were restless and constantly tempted to explore their new environment. I was unable to pinpoint whether this

restlessness was in reality a reflection of my emotions or attitude, which I was unaware of, since I had also gone through the same hardship as them.

1.4 Local Context

Since coming to England after living in the Netherlands for 10 years, I was employed by the Bristol Ethnic Minority Achievement Service (EMAS) and deployed in different schools to support EAL learners. My current school is the second post I have taken since Bristol EMAS was restructured in 2008. In my current school, a primary school in the South West of England, where most of the pupils are from ethnic minority groups, nearly eight out of 10 pupils speak English as a second language and the proportion of disadvantaged pupils supported through the pupil premium is above average (Ofsted, XXXX).

During my career, working with newly arrived Somali pupils in England, I have found that they, as well as Somali pupils who were born in England, often committed grammatical mistakes, possibly because of their subtractive bilingualism. This means that they were often learning the English language at the expense of their HL for different reasons and thus, were often unable to express themselves in their HL. This transition process of learning English may have also caused them to lack experience of creative writing skills, perhaps because of the lack of HL vocabulary in their repertoire or the inability to retrieve it. In 2005, I discussed this issue with a member of the schools' Senior Leadership Team (SLT). However, the SLT member appeared to be satisfied to believe that, as the children were used to reading and speaking English in school, they would naturally grasp the grammatical competence skills of English without teaching them explicitly. Perhaps she was thinking about Noam Chomsky's idea of a language acquisition device (LAD) (Rovee-Collier and Lipsitt,1995, p.229) or perhaps this was a desired wish at the time as EAL pupils spoke a language other than English and needed explicit teaching of grammar. I believed that this could have enabled them to effectively master the English language.

The recently introduced National Primary Curriculum for England (NPCE) 2013, explicitly instructs that:

The grammar of our first language is learnt naturally and implicitly through interactions with other speakers and from reading. Explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language (National Curriculum in England, English Appendix 2, p.1).

Whilst the point that '*Explicit knowledge of grammar*' may be important, especially for EAL pupils, the idea of '*The grammar of our first language…*' is less clear. This is because the EAL pupils do not share the '*our*' and the '*first language*' with the host society. These words seem to be distinctive for native British pupils, who may enjoy superiority in English literacy. For example, in question 4 of the Key Stage 2 English grammar 2016 test (2016 National Curriculum tests, Key Stage 2, English grammar, Punctuation and Spelling Paper 1, p.5), pupils were asked to do the following:

Draw a line to match each sentence to the correct determiner. Use each determiner only once

Sentence   **Determiner**

| At the zoo we saw _____ owl. | | A |

| There was also _____ cute baby penguin. | | The |

| I thought it was _____ best day ever. | | An |

KS2 SATs Test 2016.

To be able to solve this question correctly, pupils may need to understand that: (1) the English determiners come at the beginning of a noun or an adjective; and (2) the distinguishing features of the determiner '*the*' on one hand, and determiners of '*a*'

and '*an*' on the other hand. Also, it is important that pupils understand *when* and *why* '*a*' is used in some cases and '*an*' in others.

In contrast to the English determiners above, the Somali language has no indefinite determiner: just the base word is written. The main definite determiners of Somali language are: '*ka*' and '*ta*'. Both are in the form of a suffix (attached at the end of the word), unlike the English where the determiners precede the noun or the noun phrase. In the Somali language, the '*ka*' determiner serves to connote the male noun, whereas the '*ta*' determiner is for female nouns:

<div align="center">

Nin ⟶ a man   nin**ka** ⟶ **the** man

naag ⟶ a woman   naag**ta** ⟶ **the** woman

</div>

Moreover, depending on whether a noun is male or female in the Somali language, other determiners which come under the umbrella of each of these two determiners are also used like '*ga*' ,'*da, 'sha*' etc.

Thus, clarifying how the determiners of the English and Somali languages differ demonstrates how Somali heritage pupils, who begin to learn Somali at an early age, may be an extra bonus for answering the above SATs questions effectively and overcome barriers to comprehension of English grammar.

1.5 Government Policy: KS2 Grammar
The UK Department for Education (DfE, 2013) stipulated that English language grammar is learned implicitly through interacting with others and from reading texts. However, the DfE (ibid) also stated that an explicit knowledge of grammar is crucial for conscious control over the choices an English learner makes; so, it should be realized through a focus on grammar within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking. Five areas feature in the statutory requirements of KS2 grammar teaching for pupils: *word, sentence, text, punctuation* and *terminology* (DfE, ibid). As my research was partly concerned with teaching participants HL grammar, it is useful to comment on the differences between Somali and English grammatical structures, as

this may help to anticipate opportunities and challenges that participants may face when involved in HL grammar learning.

Year	Terminology for pupils
Year 3	Preposition, conjunction, word family, prefix clause, subordinate clause, direct speech, consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter, inverted commas (or speech marks)
Year 4	Determiner, pronoun, possessive pronoun, adverb
Year 5	Model verb, relative pronoun, relative clause, parenthesis, bracket, dash cohesion, ambiguity
Year 6	Subject, object, active, passive, synonym, antonym, ellipses, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet point

Table 1.1 Year 3 and 4's terminology contents (adapted from DfE, 2013).

1.6 Structural Differences between Somali and English Grammar

The Somali alphabet has 21 consonants and 5 vowels. The phonetics of the consonants are the same as those in English except for the letters *X (sounding), KH, DH, C* and *Q*. Although there are the same number of Somali and English vowels and they are pronounced phonetically, the 5 vowels can be stretched:

a   aa

e   ee

i   ii

o   oo

u   uu.

Words with short vowels do not necessarily have the same meaning when extended into long vowels when used in words, as Table 1.2 shows.

Short vowel word	Long vowel word
T**a**g *Go*	T**aa**g *Strength*
B**a**r Teach or spot (on the body)	B**aa**r *Bar* (café) or *tip* (the tip of a plant)

Table 1.2 Somali language short and long vowels.

Determiners

Unlike the English articles of *a, an* and *the*, the Somali language has two main articles: *ka* and *ta*. The male form is *ka* while the female form is *ta*. There are no indefinite *a* or *an* articles in Somali. Somali definite articles are added at the end of words:

Nin   nin**ka**
A man   **the** man

Naag   naag**ta**
A woman   **the** woman

The male article of *ka* can change into *ga* and *ha*:

buug   buug**ga**

a book   **the** book

Wade   Wada**ha**

a driver   **the** driver

The female article *ta* can change into *da* and *sha*:

Irrid   irrid**da**

a door   **the** door

il   i**sha**

an eye   **the** eye

Pronouns

While English pronouns are always present in a sentence, Somali pronouns can be omitted, as in (b) below:

a) **Isagu** wuu tagey   **iyada** wey tagtay   i**yagu** wey tageen   **annaga** waan tagnay

b)   ---- Wuu tegay   ----- wey tagtay   ----- wey tageen   --- waan tagnay

c)   **He** went   **she** went   **they** went   **we** went

Adjectives

Where English adjectives come before nouns, Somali adjectives come after nouns:

   a) Ey<u>ga</u>   **madow**
   b) The dog   **back**
   c) Eyga   **weyn**   ee   **madow**
   d) The dog   **big**   of   **black**
   e) The big, black dog.

The order of the position of the size and colour can be swapped with each other without changing the meaning of a sentence, so d) can also be written in Somali as:

   f) Eyga   **madow**   ee   **weyn**
   g) The dog   **black**   of   **big**

Adverbs

In the Somali language, a word is often used to describe how an action has happened, whereas in English, '*ly*' is often added to the end of the word to achieve this:

   Wiilka   wuxuu u socday   **si** tartiib ah

   The boy   walked   slow**ly**

Active and passive sentences

The pattern of forming active and passive sentence in both English and the Somali appears to be quite similar:

Active sentence

   a) Wiil**kii**   wuxuu arkay   nin
   b) **The** boy   saw   a man

Passive sentence

   a) Nin**kii**   waxaa arkay   wiil**kii**
   b) **The** man   was seen by   **the** boy

A slight change occurs to the word 'w**ux**uu' in a), when forming a passive sentence, as in a) 'w**a**x**aa**', to indicate who saw whom.

My research aimed to shed light on these kinds of structural differences between Somali and English; and equip pupils with the skills needed to navigate between the two languages for their own academic benefit. It also intended to empower parents to feel confident about supporting their children's schoolwork at home.

1.7 Research Questions

As this research aimed to address a social problem: how HL literacy learning impacts pupils and their parents in my school, I needed to ask questions that would ascertain ways to develop HL. It was also imperative that these questions should help me to determine the boundaries of the territory that I would cover (Blaikie, 2007). This is because, according to Blaike (ibid), in designing research methods, the most crucial element of any research is the research question which renders the problem researchable. Clough and Nutbrown (2007, p.27) illuminate that formulating research questions carefully '…is [the] key to the realisation of a successful research study', noting that research questions should be differentiated from the questions asked in the field. This is because research questions mark the limits of the study. Punch and

Oancea (2014) explain that there are two questions which students confuse: the research question and the data collection question. The first is the general question that the research attempts to answer, whereas the data collection question is the question asked for the purpose of collecting data. Creswell (2009) postulates that, as research questions establish the direction of the research, their focus should be narrowed down to a point which makes answering a specific question feasible. Alvesson and Sandberg (2013) suggest that research questions should be formulated such that they are theoretically and practically conceivable. Regarding this study, theoretically the research question concerns an area which seems to be overlooked by the literature; and practically, this area may be an important issue because a substantial number of Somali pupils are in England's mainstream primary education. This study was informed by the following central research question and three research sub-questions**. The central research question is: *In what ways can the learning of reading, writing and grammar skills of heritage Somali language be beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a primary school in England?*

1.7.1 *Research Sub-questions*

The central research question can be further understood through the following sub-questions:

- *Research sub-question 1*: in relation to pupils and parents' views of learning HL:

  What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar?

- *Research sub-question 2*: in relation to the opportunity for conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages by pupils and parents:

  Does learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar help the pupils and parents with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?

- *Research sub-question 3*: in relation to developing pupils' and parents' Somali language literacy:

How can the Somali language reading, writing and grammar skills be maintained and developed among the Somali pupils and their parents?

The methodological aims of this study were to use a multi-method approach incorporating first a survey, semi-structured interviews, and a reflective diary, followed by language assessments, to provide sufficient data to allow themes to emerge for qualitative analysis.

1. 8 Aims of the Study

Cargan (2007) noted that social research aims to study different social processes with the view of improving our understanding of social issues by discovering new perspectives. However, this does not mean that the newly-discovered perspectives will remain unchanged. Sharma (1997) emphasizes that the value of previously conducted social research will not diminish if later research proves the perspectives discovered to not be new. The research I undertook, through seeking to understand the impact of HL literacy upon pupils and parents, aimed to:

a. Enhance the English literacy attainment of KS2 Somali heritage pupils at my school, by developing their HL literacy skills.

b. Develop the HL literacy of parents to give them the confidence to support their children's HL and English literacy at home.

c. Understand how the outcomes of the above impacts upon:

    i. Pupils' classroom literacy,

    ii. Parents' HL and English literacy,

    iii. Parents' confidence in supporting their children with HL and English literacy.

d. Use the findings to inform and influence primary education providers, Bristol's Somali community, educators and policy-makers in England.

1.9 Significance of the Study

As second-generation English citizens, Somali heritage pupils are often not competent in their HL literacy (Kruizenga, 2010). This can be accounted for by the fact that their HL is weakened because of beginning school and socializing with peer groups. The lack of competency is likely to create a difficulty for them to function in English literacy adequately (see Cummins' threshold hypothesis, 1978). Thus, by developing pupils' literacy through HL, it is hoped that it will equip them with concepts which they will be able to transfer across the Somali and English languages.

In the literature, Cummins' Threshold Theory (cited by Baker, 2011) asserts that, if a learner develops a second language (L2) whilst retaining their HL, this can positively contribute to their cognitive advantage; that developing either their HL or L2 may induce neither advantage nor disadvantage; and that developing a L2 at the cost of the learner's HL may create a cognitive disadvantage. Demie et al. (2015) stressed that Somali pupils' academic underachievement could be attributed to their lack of English competence. Kenner et al. (2008) explained that, although the use of HL alongside English in classrooms is recommended, only English language is exclusively used as a medium of instruction in mainstream education settings in English-speaking countries. However, in the current literature, there is no examination of how developing the Somali HL literacy of pupils might be used to improve their English language competence. Thus, this study is intended to contribute towards filling in this gap in the current literature, by exploring how to develop the literacy of Somali pupils in an English primary school through developing their own HL literacy, as well as their parents' HL literacy.

1.10 Overview of this Dissertation

Chapter 2 reviews literature pertinent to this study. This includes the areas of HL, bilingualism, social capital, and the importance of parental involvement in their children's learning. It also explores some earlier Somali language studies in the context of England, Sweden and the USA. These themes formed the basis of the conceptual framework of the study, which informed the methodology used to collect primary data. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology, by first focusing on the

ethical considerations and the ethical dilemmas encountered. It outlines the paradigmatic choice of using qualitative research as an exploratory methodology, then explains the research methods selected: a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, a reflective diary, language assessments and intervention sessions with participants. The choice of a purposive sample is also justified, before describing the approach taken to the data analysis process. Chapter 4 explores the findings from pupils' and parents' language assessment data while Chapter 5 will focus on the analysis and discussion of pupils' and parents' semi-structured interviews data in relation to the central research question and the three research sub-questions. The results of the collected data are analysed and discussed in line with the central research question and the three research sub-questions, before the final Chapter, Chapter 6, concludes the study by summarising the main findings and outlining their implications for the researcher, for teachers, parents, policy-makers and other stakeholders. Results-driven recommendations are given, along with suggestions for further research to be carried out, before the dissertation closes with a personal reflection.

1.11 Definition of Key Terms

Much misunderstanding may arise in communication as a result of people bringing different meanings to the words they use in speaking and writing (Thomas and Brubaker, 2000), so it is important for me to clarify what I mean in this thesis by certain key terms. Calmorin and Calmorin (2007) postulate that defining key terms can be approached in two ways: either conceptual or operational. In conceptual definitions, the meaning of terms are cited from published materials, while in the operational case, the definition of the concept is based on an observed characteristic and how it is used in the study (Calmorin and Calmorin, ibid).

The key terms employed in this study include both conceptual and operational terms. **Heritage language (HL)** follows Kwon's (2017, p.495) definition that HL is the language that the '…immigrants and children of immigrant parents have a historical and personal connection [with]'. In this case, the HL is the Somali language that people use in Somalia. The following concepts are defined operationally: **this study** means the research being reported in this thesis. **HL literacy** means the speaking,

reading, comprehension, listening, writing and grammar of the Somali language. **Participant pupils** refers to the 13 KS2 pupils of Somali heritage at my school who participated in my research. **Participant parents** means the seven parents of the participant pupils who participated in the research. **Classroom literacy** involves KS2 grammar lessons which are part of England's National Curriculum framework; particularly the topics of pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and determiners that my research intervention sessions covered. **Intervention sessions** mean the Somali language lessons that participant pupils and participant parents took part in at my school for data collection purpose. **Basic English grammar** refers to KS1 and KS2 grammar of the England's National Curriculum framework. Finally, **Somali heritage pupils** refers to the children who were born in England, or moved to England before the age of 11, and whose both parents were born in Somalia.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

Efron and Ravid (2019, p.1) discuss the literature review as a process that informs the researcher of what is already known about the topic and identifies 'areas where new knowledge is needed'. The main 'focus' in question in this research is the benefit of learning Heritage Language by the participants of the study on their social and academic skills. The Chapter will therefore deal with the major theoretical framework and review major studies in the three areas: Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency theory (bilingual theory), parental involvement, and social capital theory. The rationale for the choice of these theoretical frameworks relates to my belief that they will connect me with the existing knowledge around the benefits of learning HL literacy by participants.

The review of these studies identifies gaps in the literature concerning the purpose of learning HL literacy by Somali pupils and their parents and, it provides me with evidence from which I can develop my research methodology. I will begin by

discussing the underachievement of Somali pupils in Bristol and UK with the hope that this could establish a context for understanding the importance of conducting this research.

2.2 Underachievement of Somali Pupils in the UK

In the context of Bristol, the Somali pupils living in Bristol have been underachieving when compered to other Bristol pupils. The pupils mainly attend schools around the Bristol city centre. Fig. 2.1 shows the underachievement of Somali pupils in the Bristol as depicted by Mills (2014). Mills (ibid) made the point that the Somali community in Bristol is demographically concentrated in and around the city centre and there has been evidence of pupils' underachievement at the end of KS2 (Table 2.1).
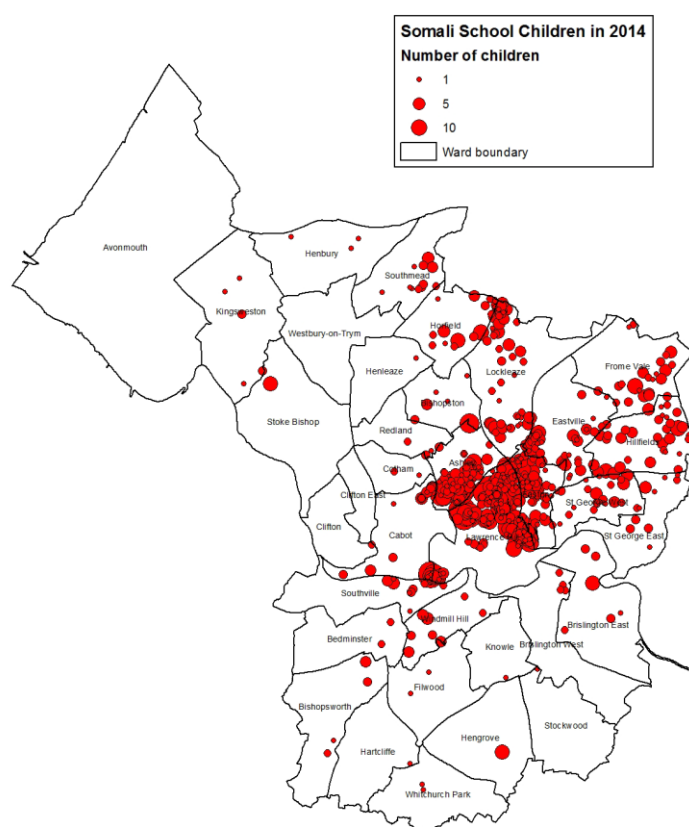
Figure 2.1 Demography of Somali school children in Bristol (adapted from Mills, 2014, p. 3).

Levels of Achievement at Key Stage 2 in 2013 – 84 boys and 79 girls		Reading	Writing (teacher's assessment)	Maths	Reading, Writing and Maths	
Girls	Somali	64.6%	65.8%	67.1%	49.4%	
	Bristol	88.0%	89.0%	85.0%	80.0%	
Boys	Somali	69.0%	65.5%	75.0%	59.4%	
	Bristol	83.0%	78.0%	83.0%	72.0%	
All	Somali	66.9%	65.6%	71.2%	54.6%	
	Bristol	86.0%	84.0%	84.0%	76.0%	

Table 2.1 Percentage of pupils achieving Level 4 or better in Key Stage 2 in 2013 – Somali compared to average Bristol pupils (adapted from Mills, 2014, p.6).

Defining the term 'underachievement' is fraught with problems because it is hard to quantify and it is sometimes conflated with the term 'attainment' (Kahin and Wallace, 2017). For clarity, I will use the terms 'underachievement' and 'attainment' synonymously to mean Vamadevappa's (2006) definition of underachievement: that is, how high or low an individual performs in respect to average learners in English schools.

Meunier, Gutierrez and Vignoles' (2013) study focused on the academic achievement in a primary school of second-generation immigrant children in the UK since ethnic minority pupils in England continue to achieve lower levels in mainstream primary schools. For data collection, the study used the British Cohort Study 1970 and argued that it was a good source for analyzing the education achievement of second-generation immigrants. The findings showed that children born to South Asian or Afro-Caribbean parents had lower levels of cognitive achievement in both language and mathematics in primary school although children born to South Asian parents showed tendencies to catch-up later. However, the study findings should be treated with caution because 1) the study relied on a sample that was based on all children who were born in the UK during one week in April 1970; and related this data to parental birthplace with the assumption that there were

relationships between parental cognitive skills, parental place of birth and the children's cognitive skills from 5 years old until up to 10 years old; 2) without assessing to a meaningful interaction with parents, the study draws on human capital theory and production function literature for the study's theoretical framework.

According to the authors, the framework suggested that resource inputs are needed to invest in the child to produce human capital. This seems to suggest that parental cognitive skills have a direct impact on the child's cognitive skills. Tan (2014; citing OECD, 2001) relates the concept of human capital to the productivity of wealth embodied in labor, skills, and knowledge, and in this sense, academicians severely criticized it because of its '…negative connotations with slavery' (p.412); 3). The study acknowledged the problematic issues related to how to measure the children's cognitive skills as there were different measurement tools involved in the assessment procedure. While the study attempted to capture the true picture of academic achievement by the participants, its validity can be questioned. This is because the different measurement tools in the assessment procedure may create the impression that the findings of the study might not accurately represent the academic achievement of the British Cohort Study 1970.

Meunier, Gutierrez and Vignoles' (2013) further explained that, since the end of the 1970s, UK policy makers have been preoccupied with ways of improving ethnic minority children's academic attainments. In 1972, Margaret Thatcher, the then-Prime Minister, commissioned Alan Bullock to inquire into the teaching of reading and other uses of English. In his report, Bullock noted the importance of ethnic minority children retaining their culture and language when starting school:

> No child should be expected to cast off the language and culture of the home as he [sic] crosses the school threshold, nor to live and act as though school and home represent two totally separate and different cultures which must be kept firmly apart. The curriculum should reflect many elements of that part of his life which a child lives outside of school (Bullock, 1975. p.286).

Considering *The West Indian Community* report of 1977 which investigated why West Indian children in the UK were under-performing at school, the Labour government established a committee headed by Anthony Rampton in 1979. The commission was tasked with exploring the educational needs of children from ethnic minorities, as well as the related factors of their lives outside of school, how to keep reviewing the relevant institutional arrangements, and the most effective use of resources to improve ethnic minority children's education. Rampton's job was frustrated partly because there was no agreement as to the cause of the underachievement, and partly because of the strong views of his multiracial committee.

Modood and May (2001) explained that the problem was that the Rampton Committee's Report (1981) focused on teacher racism. This caused considerable controversy and led to Anthony Rampton resigning due to the pressure from the then-new Conservative government. Rampton was replaced by Michael Swann. This new committee was asked to give immediate and particular attention to the educational needs and attainments of pupils of West Indian origin and to make interim recommendations. Modood and May (2001) claimed that the Swann Report shifted its focus away from overt anti-racist strategies towards an inclusive multiculturalism indicated by the report's title, *Education for All*.

The Swann Report, published in 1985, considered multicultural education to be a way of enabling all ethnic groups – both minority and majority – to participate fully in shaping British society. Modood and May (2001) further explained that, although the linguistic diversity in schools was acknowledged as a positive asset, the idea of developing bilingual education (except in a transition to English) was rejected. The Policy Paper of Cultural Education (2012) encouraged schools to integrate cultural education into lessons however they saw fit and to use the existing provision as a way to employ a variety of teaching and learning styles. This paper asserted that cultural education consisted of six areas: 'Cultural opportunities for all pupils, Nurturing talent and targeting disadvantage, A high-quality curriculum and qualifications offer in arts subjects, Excellent teaching, Celebrating national culture and history, Creating a lasting network of partnerships to deliver our ambitions, now and for the future' (Policy Paper of Cultural Education, 2012). Although these areas

are important for cultural development, what was missing and would have been helpful was developing bilingual education to encourage cultural pluralism. It can be concluded from this brief overview of education policy development that, while the UK has no overall official policy on multilingualism, the EU promotes trilingualism: learning a home language, another EU language and a world language (Cumberland Lodge, 2012).

To promote the inclusion of EAL learners, DfE's National Curriculum in England (2013) instructs teachers to enhance the English language skills of pupils who speak English as an additional language, with the aim of enabling them to take part in the National Curriculum. However, prior to any actual teaching, it is important for schools' ethos to be as welcoming places where exciting teaching and confident learning happens for all pupils, as Gurney (2000) observed. This may be achieved through, firstly, reaching a common understanding of the concept of inclusion. Currently, a paradox exists in this regard, because '…one person's view of inclusion can equate to another's concept of exclusion' (Kinsella, 2018, p.2), so these divergent views may lead to '…pervasive disparities in resources, opportunities to learn, and attainment that disadvantages [EAL pupils]' (Sullivan, 2011, p.317).

However, while Bullock in the 1970s advocated a role for HL that is not the case today in England, the National Primary Curriculum in England (NPCE, 2013) appears to implicitly instruct the promotion of the English language to support classroom learning where the medium of instruction is English. Thus, perhaps one can question the '… extent to which students are capable of understanding the academic input…' (Cummins and Swain, 1986, p. 80) when a language they are unfamiliar with is used to make sense of contents written in the form of the same strange language. From the NPCE (2013) instruction, it can be deduced that the academic attainment outcome for a learner at an early stage of English acquisition is insecure when a second language (English) input is used with the aim of promoting the same second language's outcome. This insecure academic instruction foundation may then further exacerbate the learner's academic attainment in a negative way. This inescapable condition places the EAL learners under pressure which is created 'through language policies that clearly positioned English as the prestige language…' (Keh and Stoessel, 2017, p.110).

Strand et al. (2010) produced a report comparing the academic attainments of three groups in the UK – Bangladeshi, Somali and Turkish pupils – to examine why the Bangladeshi pupils were closing the academic attainment gap while the Somali and Turkish pupils were still underachieving. Strand et al. (ibid) explored the educational experiences of pupils, their schools' characteristics and policies and their parents' support, considering the fact that, in 2005, it was estimated that:

> …29% of Somali students achieved 5 + A* – C grades against a Bangladeshi average of 55% (DfES, 2006). In 2007, it was estimated that 24% of Somali students achieved 5 + A* – C including English and mathematics against 41% of Bangladeshi students and a national average of 45%...

One of their conclusions was that the academic underachievement by the Somali pupils was because of their lack of English comprehension and use of academic language. Similarly, report conducted by Mousa for the African Educational Trust and Evelyn Oldfield Unit Report in 2012, entitled *Why do Somali Pupils Achieve Lower Grades in School?* attempted to ascertain the underlying factors behind Somali pupils' underachievement. Their findings showed that two of the main reasons for Somali pupils' underachievement were the language barrier experienced by pupils, and their parents' inability to provide support for their academic activities. Mousa (ibid) recommended that extra support in the form of after-school and weekend classes should be made available for Somali pupils, and that Somali bilingual staff should be employed to facilitate home-school links.

While Mousa's (ibid) recommendations were significant and helpful for understanding how to develop Somali pupils' academic attainment, the use of the Somali heritage language today still appears to be restricted to facilitating home-school links rather than being used as a powerful instruction tool to enable pupils' academic attainments. This thesis aims to demonstrate the value of using HL as a powerful instruction tool and, in so doing, contribute to a gap in understanding grammar L1 and L2 concepts.

In summary, the importance of culture and maintaining the HL language was recommended as far back as 1975, in the Bullock Report. However, the recommendations have not been implemented practically. Doing so could have positively contributed to the academic attainment of minority pupils, particularly Somali pupils in England. Mills' (2014) report indicated that Somali boys and girls who live in the Bristol city centre area are by far the lowest attaining group in Bristol's KS2 SATs. Both Strand et al. (2010) and Mousa's (2012) reports strongly attributed the cause of Somali pupils' underachievement to a language barrier. This elucidates the importance of learning English as a second language whilst also maintaining the HL. While these findings clearly align with the Cummins' notion of CALP, which needs more time to master than BICS, they are also significant for my research, because they show that pupils' HL literacy learning is believed to positively contribute to their academic attainments, in respect to Cummins' threshold hypotheses and linguistic interdependence, 1978,1976 (Cummins, Baker and Hornberger, 2001).

2.2.1 Heritage Language Literacy Maintenance

Montrul (2010) examined the development of heritage language learners' linguistic and grammatical knowledge, from their childhood to adulthood. Her article in the context of North America, explored the conditions in which successful or unsuccessful HL occurs, such as strategies used by parents for discourse, how the community value the language, the availability of a community that use the language beyond an individual's own family, people's attitudes towards the language and the use of the language in education. The article raised three important points. Firstly, heritage language learners are a particular category of language learners whose partial language knowledge presents challenges to language practitioners. Secondly, although there are proponents of maintaining minority language in the policy-makers circle who recognize it as a national resource, the focus needs to be on how to maintain minority languages, rather than suppressing or ignoring them. Thirdly, the development of children's metalinguistic skills occurs after the age of five. These three points were particularly relevant to this study because they suggested that: 1) understanding the positive impact of my research intervention hinged on partnership efforts between home, school and the wider Somali community; and 2) language

policy which aims to promote the Somali language, among other community languages, could be deemed vital for Somali heritage pupils' academic attainment.

Montrul (2010) discussed three perspectives of language acquisition: universal grammar; innate and cognitive; or neurolinguistic perspectives. Her article argued that language acquired innately is stored in a person's procedural memory, whereas language acquired through cognition is stored in the declarative memory. Access to knowledge stored in the procedural memory is automatic, in contrast to declarative-stored knowledge, which depends on demand. As Parkin (1993, p.40) had commented earlier, procedural memory is '…characterized as being consciously inaccessible'. This may mean that a task is executed automatically, without the need to recall experience – such as the skill of riding a bike.

On the other hand, Paradis (2009) noted that the declarative memory sustains what is consciously acquired. The central point here is the accessibility of information which, in turn, has ramifications for 'age', especially when it comes to remembering from experience. According to Bauer (2010), infants are unable to engage in a meaningful verbal communication in order to recount their experience because they suffer from a lack of declarative memory capacity. When it comes to language learning, Ellis (2015) explained the concepts of implicit and explicit learning; and noted that implicit learning involves the acquisition of knowledge without conscious operations whereas the explicit learning is a more conscious operation. Montrul (2010) questioned whether HL learners access implicit or explicit learning when learning HL. Perhaps the most significant point that Montrul's article raised was the warning against blindly applying pedagogies from L2 learning to HL teaching, suggesting that it is time to evaluate the extent to which those methods work.

Montrul's (2010) three points were pertinent to my research because of: 1) understanding participant pupils as a particular category of language learner; 2) acknowledging that there is insufficient understanding of the importance of HL from political actors; and 3) identifying the period during which children's metalinguistic awareness develops. I was convinced that all of these ideas might shed a light on how to approach my research's central question and three sub-questions.

Montrul (2010) suggested that, although most studies that investigated the sociolinguistic situation of minority languages might be abundant and provided a comprehensive picture of some of heritage language learners' linguistic academic abilities, psycho-linguistically orientated studies of adults were needed in order to find out how they process HL input and their different skills; and also to conduct more longitudinal studies of children from the beginning of school until adolescence to enable tracing precisely the demise of home language skills due to using dominant language in school.

Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky's (2015) paper discussed a common reality around many cases of multilingualism, heritage speakers and simultaneous or sequential bilinguals who shifted early in their childhood from one language to another (dominant language). It showed how the study of multilingualism can be enriched by using diverse case studies which profile certain speakers' abilities and deficits. The authors asserted that there are at least three possible outcomes for HL speakers, who deviate from the baseline grammar of native speakers: '*transfer* from another grammar*, divergent* attainment*,* and *attrition* over the lifespan' (Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky, 2015, p.3).

I will now consider each of these outcomes in turn, calling on other academics where appropriate. *Transfer from another grammar* – the paper argued that, although the literature provides evidence for L1 grammar influences on L2, research into bilingualism demonstrates that the reverse is also possible: that L2 grammar encroaches on L1 grammar; (Dal Pozzo, 2015, p.91) this happens whenever '… "the influencing language" …is the superset of the affected language'. This notion is in line with Montrul's argument that not all languages acquired in a '…bilingual context[s] develop in the same way into adolescence and beyond' (Montrul, 2016, p.4). One reason why languages may not all be acquired in a uniform way is because of the similarity or dissimilarity of those languages, which will influence the ease of learning a second language (Biddle et al., 2014).

Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky (2015) claim that it is common that, as a child socializes with the dominant language, their HL input and use are reduced, resulting in it becoming structurally and functionally weak – what they call *divergent* attainment

for simultaneous bilinguals. Battle (2012) described the simultaneous bilinguals as the learners who acquired two or more languages at the same time during their childhood. According to Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky (2015), this can lead to a developmental delay that begins in childhood and continues into adulthood. Thus, as a child becomes older, their grammar becomes less developed and lags behind that of a normal adult's competence.

This phenomenon is described in literature as 'incomplete' acquisition. Montrul (2008) explained that this incomplete acquisition could be attributed to the child's age at which the child starts to learn L2. This incomplete acquisition should be treated cautiously because according to Silva-Corvalán (2018; citing Otheguy, 2016) the studies that claimed the incomplete acquisition were psycholinguistic experiments and data from sociolinguistic studies that may have suffered from methodological faults. Silva-Corvalán showed that it is not an incomplete acquisition but a reflection of some aspects of the language input that were reduced due to exposure and production of a minority language in an environment of simultaneous bilingual acquisition. Page and Putnam (2015), in their chapter book titled: *Researching Moribund Germanic Heritage languages: theoretical and Empirical Challenges and Rewards,* focused on the grammars of moribund (weak or non-active) Germanic heritage languages used in the Midwestern United States and Manitoba Providence of Canada. They provided an alternative explanation, arguing that, as the L2 that is being acquired lacks the properties of the L1, the child learner may find it difficult to retrieve the required properties. This incomplete acquisition or inability to retrieve vocabulary has been expanded into their competence in 'accent' by Young-Scholten (1993, p.1), who argued that even adults who reach an advanced level of their second language acquisition '…will be unable to get rid of their "foreign accent"'. The different views of heritage language development by Montrul (2008), Page and Putnam (2015) and Silva-Corvalán (2018) show that 'incomplete' acquisition phenomenon is debatable and that accepting one view without critical reflection can be problematic.

The third possible outcome Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky's (2015) described was L1 *attrition*, that is, losing L1 linguistic skills in a bilingual environment when the grammatical structure already reached full mastery prior to suffering erosion due to

less input or disuse over several years. According to the authors, two types of language attrition changes can be observed in first-generation immigrants. One affects the structural aspects of HL because of a language shift or the less frequent use of HL. This happens when it encounters another language (Dessing, 2001). However, Bhat (2017) claimed that it is not only internal factors that influence the children of first-generation immigrants' language attrition, but also sociolinguistic variables such as age, bilingualism, gender and language shift. In any case, language attrition can occur earlier, resulting in '… more dramatic effects on the integrity of the grammar' (Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky, 2015, p.4).

These three aspects of *transfer from another grammar, divergent attainment, and attrition over the lifespan* are relevant to my research because pupil participants may show these symptoms of grammatical transfer across the Somali and English languages. They may potentially display divergent attainment as they socialize with other non-Somali pupils when they start school, whose language is the dominant language. Moreover, they might have suffered from HL attrition because of less input or lack of using of HL since beginning school.

Montrul (2010) observed that there are disadvantages associated with children losing their HL up to the age of 4, when a child's metalinguistic ability is in the process of developing. Montrul (ibid) claimed that losing HL at this age can disrupt the emergent literacy and continue at school, where a child is expected to learn literacy. Furthermore, Montrul (ibid) pointed out that limited access to HL (frequency of exposure) and limited context, whether at home or in other community situations, from early years to puberty, can contribute to an incomplete acquisition of HL. However, Montrul (ibid) asserted that this dilemma can be mitigated when parental and community efforts play a crucial role in HL maintenance. Guardado (2018) remarked that language loss in early childhood has implications for identity and can cause a sense of alienation between children, their parents and grandparents, because it is not only the language that is lost. Perhaps what Guardado meant *by not only the language that is lost* is that children also lose their metalinguistic ability which is needed to make sense when acquiring L2 language by using the HL.

In conclusion, while Montrul's (2010) article was concerned with devising strategies for developing HL by combining the efforts of school, home, and the wider community, Scontras, Fuchs, and Polinsky's (2015) main argument seemed to signal that it may be common for a child who socializes with their peer group using their dominant language to experience a reduction of HL input and use which can then result in language shift. As it is generally inevitable that children learning another language where the dominant language is different than their home language socialize with peers, Montrul's (2010) suggestion of combining the efforts of school, home, and the wider community to develop and maintain the HL may be helpful.

The pupil participants in my study had lost their HL when their metalinguistic ability was developing at the time they started school or pre-school, at 3 or 4 years old. Consequently, this might have disrupted their emergent literacy and continued when they began at school. The following Section reviewes some literature on bilingualism because, when researching HL, previous findings from bilingual research should be used to complement and '…enrich them with the study of a particular speaker profile' (Flores, 2015, p.252). This thesis refers to Somali studies in the context of England, USA and Sweden to shed light on the opportunities and challenges of re-learning HL.

2.3 Bilingualism Theories and Studies

The definition of bilingualism is contested (Skutnbb-Kangas, 1981; Reichholf-Wilscher, 2006; Chin and Wigglesworth, 2007; Weinreich, 2011; Lee, 2012; Vald and Valdes, 2014; Keh and Stoessel, 2017). Baker (2011) relates the term 'bilingualism' to a person with two languages. This definition may invoke ambiguity since intuitively, every human being in the world may know a word from a second language. Reichholf-Wilscher (2006, p.14) was critical of the general definition of 'bilingualism' stating that it is a common condition of the human being which enables the person to function 'in more than one language'. Furthermore, Reichholf-Wilscher (ibid) asserts that it is unclear which of the four language skills – written, oral, comprehension and speaking – is covered by the phrase 'in more than one language'.

This makes it essential to precisely define the term 'bilingualism' here, to ensure clarity for policy makers and educators when planning activities for bilingual pupils. Another term which may cause confusion with bilingual learner can be the English as

additional language learner (EAL). Conteh (2015) argued that the EAL is used as an umbrella term to describe any students whose culture and language are different from the majority students, arguing that these students bring this wealth of culture and language with them into the classroom. However, while Baker (2011) classified bilinguals in terms of their bilingualism status as individuals living their own lives, Conteh (2015) classified them, as pupils in school contexts, into six categories which mainly related to how established they are in England (Conteh, 2015, p.15):

- advanced bilingual learners: second- or third-generation learners from an established community,
- children new to English: learners who have recently arrived in England with or without previous schooling,
- sojourners: learners whose parents are working in England temporarily,
- isolated learners: leaners with less prior experience of bilingual learners asylum seekers and refugees: learners whose education has been disrupted by wars or other traumatic events.

While this classification helps educators and policy makers understand that the term 'EAL' cannot be used only to refer to pupils who are new to English schools, it may also help them to introduce an effective policy plan with the aim of promoting the learning of EAL pupils.

What is also important to note is that heritage language can be regarded as part of bilingual studies. Shin (2013), in her book: Bilingualism in Schools and Society: Language, Identity, and Policy, notes that there are between about 6000 and 7000 languages spoken in the world and around 190 countries to accommodate them. Thus, this may indicate the inevitability of living in a place by people using different languages. This fact of living in a multicultural society using different languages may in turn lead to the need to classify these languages as dominant and less dominant languages. The language of the host society can often be the dominant and the less dominant language may be referred to as the heritage language. According to Valdés (2005), heritage language is a minority language spoken by groups known as linguistic minorities; and he termed those who are engaged in studying, maintaining, and revitalizing their minority language as heritage language learners. Valdés (2005)

attempted to reconceptualize and expand the second language acquisition (SLA) field by examining how SLA and the teaching of heritage language (HL) intersect. The main argument that Valdés (2005) raised seems to be that there is a fundamental relationship between second language acquisition and the teaching of HL. This, according to Valdés, is because, on the one hand, it responds to Cook's (2002) proposal to researchers to change the perspective of second language acquisition by including second-language speakers; and on the other hand, it enables a meaningful relationship between the two areas which would in turn challenge criticisms about the '… narrowness of SLA…by focusing on the complexities of heritage language speakers…' (Valdés, 2005, p.410).

 Furthermore, Valdes notes that heritage language learners may acquire and use two or more languages to satisfy their everyday communicative needs. Valdes called this group of people circumstantial bilinguals. Baker (2011) asserts that circumstantial bilinguals must become bilinguals to operate in the majority language society. While Shin (2013), Valdés (2005), and Baker's (2011) statements can be understood that heritage language is part of bilingualism studies, García, Zakharia, and Octu (2013) explained that it was not before 1999, when the first National Conference on Heritage Language was held in the USA, that the term Heritage Language education was adopted as bilingual education which faced greater restriction in its efforts to educate bilingual students.

Baker (2011) explained the context – the environment in which immigrants may find themselves – commenting that bilingual pupils' 'bicultural competence' in adapting to the mainstream society's culture is another distinction from monolinguals. The context factor is the most important and pertinent to my study. This is because it emphasizes how the environment in which bilinguals live affects how pupils' HL develops or regresses. It can be subtractive or additive bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism refers to situations where the majority language is favoured through the politics of the host country and, as a consequence, the minority language is neglected or suppressed (Baker, 2014). The term 'subtractive bilingualism' originated from Lambert's (1977) study. Cummins and Swain (1986), citing Lambert (1977), noted that subtractive bilingualism is a phenomenon which is faced by bilinguals when they aim to advance their L2 learning at the cost of their L1.

However, the term needs to be approached cautiously as the underlying assumption can be a comparison of two languages and the abandonment of the less important one. In the context of the United States, Genesee (1999) notes that transitional bilingual education is the most common bilingual education for students in the United States. This provides instruction in literacy and academic content through the student's home language along with English oral language development. Flores (2017) notes that if the goal of transitional bilingual education is using the students' home language as a temporary tool for supporting them in developing the proficiency of the dominant language of a particular society, then the assumption may be that, for students using minority language to become full members of society they must give up their home language for the standardized national language. Pliiddemann (2013, pp. 20-21) emphasizes that the notion of subtractive bilingualism appears to conflate student's achievement with program types and a particular mode of thinking because it treats language as a '…monolithic, global cognitive proficiency…' rather than a set of oral and literacy practices that occur in a social context and are determined by relations of power. The underlying assumption from both Pliiddemann (2013) and Flores (2017) can be inferred as: if the aim of bilingual education programs is to maximise the achievement of bilingual learners, educators need to refrain from using the term subtractive bilingualism.

In contrast to the subtractive notion, the term 'additive bilingualism' is used to express a context in which bilingual pupils learn L2 whilst also maintaining their HL (Cummins and Swain, 1986). Additive bilingualism is relevant to this thesis because the premise of my research was that pupil participants may benefit from comparing and contrasting HL and English concepts in the classroom.

Baker (2006) pointed out that bilingualism is sometimes attributed to language delay or late talking. Roos and Weismer (2008) defined late-talking toddlers as those who demonstrate a delay in expressive language progression when compared to age-specific developmental benchmarks. This view seems to construct the problem of late talking within the child. This may be because, according to Martin (2009), speech and language difficulties are understood from perspectives that regard the problem

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as being within the child rather than co-constructing the phenomenon as existing between the speaker and listener.

Camarata (2014) explained that there are many reasons as to why children begin to talk late, not a one-size-fits-all explanation because, these children may have intellectual disabilities, autism or other conditions. Thus, Camarata (ibid) stated that late talking may be a stage that some children pass through, while it may be a sign of significant problems for others. Wooles, Swann and Hoskison (2018) suggested that the focus should be on exploring any family history of hearing loss and late talking to understand a child's late talking. They further highlighted that consideration should be given to pregnancy and postnatal circumstances, such as hearing loss, maternal drug exposure, conditions such as meningitis, head trauma, seizures, exposure to toxic drugs or deprivation and neglect. Although each of these factors is important in identifying the cause of late talking, Roos and Weismer (2008) emphasized that it is difficult to pinpoint which late talkers are likely to continue to experience challenges with language through to adolescence.

Rescorla (2009) conducted a longitudinal study to examine whether late talkers identified at 24 to 31 months continued to have weaker language and reading skills at 17 years old, compared to typically developing peers. The late talkers of the study had typically developed language but it was identified as delayed when they were toddlers. This was because they had a limited vocabulary and were not able to combine words into phrases. The late talkers' recruitment process was through newspaper advertisements, notice to pediatricians, and a local infant laboratory. They were compared with 23 children who matched them, at the beginning of the study, in terms of age (24-31 months), socioeconomic status (SES), and nonverbal ability. Rescorla found that the former obtained significantly lower vocabulary, grammar, and verbal memory factor scores than matched peers at age 17. Rescorla (ibid) also found that slow language development at 24 to 31 months was associated with a weakness in language-related skills which continued into adolescence, in comparison to typically developing peers.

However, the study findings might have been robust if some limitations were addressed such as 1) the homogeneity of the two groups, late-talkers, and

comparison; 2) socio-economic status and its intersections with ethnicity; 3) the suspicion that the late-talker group received fewer support services which could have increased the difference between the two groups; 4) the impact of the intervention could be studied, and 5) if all the study participants could be seen at the age of 17 years (at the end of the study). The reviewed literature showed that understanding the cause of late talking maybe just as much of a challenge as predicting which children will continue to experience language delay into adolescence. Although late talking is not necessarily an issue specific to bilinguals, one participant of my study had experienced late talking, so it would be interesting to see how his HL develops in future.

2.3.1 Common Underlying Proficiency

It is generally acknowledged that research needs to have a conceptual framework. This is to avoid: 1) the research being conceptually ambiguous; 2) the researcher's conceptual framework being frail, which can lead to a weak methodological argument; and 3) the researcher being overwhelmed by their empirical work (Ravitch and Riggan, 2017). Thus, as my research involved Somali-heritage pupils whose HL was believed to have become weak due to learning L2, I decided to situate my work within the framework of Jim Cummins' three bilingual hypotheses: the threshold hypothesis (1978), the language interdependence hypothesis (1976), and the transfer hypothesis (1978). I was sure that these theories would have a direct relation to my pupil participants because they examine the relationship between the HL competence of a learner, their competence in L2 learning and their cognition, which is important for academic attainment (Cummins, 2000).

Although the participants in my study were learning HL literacy and Cummins' theories were centred on people learning L2, there was a lack of alternative HL-learning theories. Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky (2015) suggested that the existing multilingualism studies needs to be enriched with diverse case studies which would profile the speakers' abilities and deficits. Thus, my research was designed to profile the participants' HL literacy abilities by involving them in language interventions and assessments which aimed to improve their HL literacy.

2.3.1.1 The Threshold Hypothesis

Cummin's (2000) rationale for the threshold hypothesis and the language interdependence hypothesis (see below) was based on his research data, which showed that bilingual learners who were submersed in second language-only instructional classes experienced academic failure and achieved low-level literacy when their first and second languages were not well developed. The origin of the threshold theory can be traced back to Cummins' (1978) work on bilingualism, which focused on mitigating the inconsistencies of the cognitive advantage of bilingualism with previous research. It compared research conducted prior to and after Peal and Lambert's (1962) study. Cummins claimed that research conducted prior to Peal and Lambert's, which focused on bilingualism and cognition, concluded that bilingualism had a negative cognitive advantage and that, under test conditions, bilinguals often under-performed in comparison to the monolingual students. Based on this finding, it was assumed that bilingualism had an adverse effect on cognition (Cummins, 2000).

However, Cummins (ibid) explained that Peal and Lambert's (1962) study actually showed the positive outcomes of bilingualism because it involved balanced bilinguals who had attained L2 competence while maintaining their L1. On this basis, Cummins hypothesized that the elements that speed up cognitive development are likely to come into operation only when a child reaches a certain level of proficiency in their L2. Thus, bilinguals should have to reach an L1 and L2 threshold to avoid cognitive disadvantage. This hypothesis may mean, for example, that a native Somali-speaking child learning English may only experience a cognitive advantage from bilingualism when they have reached a certain level of proficiency in English (L2).

2.3.1.2 The Language Interdependence Hypothesis

As stated above, reaching desired levels in both L1 and L2 appears to be a beneficial condition for achieving positive cognitive advantage. It may also be important to establish how developing an individual's level of proficiency in L1 relates to their L2 development and proficiency. Cummins (1981) remarked on the need to examine two issues: 1) to clearly define what is meant by language proficiency; and 2) the

effect of developing L1 on L2. Cummins went on to propose a distinction between proficiency in literacy language from that of other social language proficiency.

Cummins (2000) analysed 400 teacher referrals and psychological assessments of students in Canada who were learning English as their second language. The students were under-performing academically despite being fluent in English. Cummins thought that these observations were superficial and there was a need for deeper investigation to understand the cause of the under-performance. He argued that, in Canada and the USA, minority students who developed English proficiency within a short period could not cope with the classroom demands. This, he concluded, often resulted in frustration for both students and teachers and '... risk [ed] creating academic deficits in these students' (Cummins, ibid., p.5).

Based on these observations, Cummins proposed two types of language: social language and academic language. He labelled the first as a social interaction language, termed Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and the latter as an academic language: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). He also suggested how long it may take for a learner to master each of these two language types. Cummins postulated that it may take 5 to 7 years for minority language students to acquire the language proficiency required to undertake academic tasks (CALP); and up to 2 years to be able to engage in social interaction using L2 (BICS). Cummins attributed the shorter time it takes for a learner to master BICS to the social facilitating cues that exist when using BICS, such as face-to-face communications and body language, which are absent in the context of academic language.

Cummins (2008, p.9) argued that various scholars had criticiseed his BICS/CALP distinction as being oversimplified (e.g. Scarcella, 2003; Valdés, 2004); reflective of autonomous rather than ideological notions of literacy (Wiley, 1996); an artefact of 'test- wiseness' (Edelsky et al., 1983; Martin-Jones and Romaine, 1986); and a 'deficit theory' that lays the blame for academic difficulties on a bilingual person's low CALP (e.g. Edelsky, 1990; Edelsky et al., 1983; MacSwan, 2000). Cummins (2008) responded by pointing out that: 1) the construct of CALP is independent from needing test scores to support its validity or its relevance to education; and 2) it

sheds light on how schools construct academic failure among disadvantaged students.

Cummins claimed that criticism of the BICS/CALP distinction was based on taking the construct out of its original dialogical context, instead cited the contribution it could make to policy and practice. This included: 1) the need to provide time-bound funding to support EAL learners; 2) identifying the types of instructional support that EAL students need at each stage during their acquisition of conversational and academic English; 3) determining the inclusion time of EAL learners in national tests; and 4) ascertaining the validity of psychological testing of EAL students when using L2. The importance of the BICS/CALP distinction was echoed by Pereira and De Oliveira (2015) when they encouraged teachers to become able to distinguish between the BICS and CALP for educational instruction.

Cummins (2008) further considered the argument that intensive English is needed to remedy where there is English deficiency, as some researchers had claimed. This, in his view, implied that the two languages, L1 and L2, have a separate underlying proficiency. Cummins (1981, p.36) presented a balloon metaphor picture (a brain with two separate balloons in it – one for L1 and the other for L2) and argued that blowing up the L2 balloon would not make the L1 balloon inflate, or vice-versa. He argued that the two languages would both have different paths but stem from a common place, which he called common underlying proficiency (described in the next paragraph). Stressing the interdependence of L1 and L2 principles, (Cummins, ibid) stated that the instruction of any language, Lx, is only effective and can promote proficiency which can also be transferred to a second language, Ly, if there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or another environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly.

This illustrates the transferability of one language across to another language and the facilitating role that both languages can play in developing pupils' academic attainments. Cummins and Swain (1986) discussed the argument that only fluency in the English language can account for academic success in the UK, and that a learner's first language plays no role in it. They noted that such an argument may

imply that fluency or proficiency in L1 is separate from proficiency in L2, English; and that there is a direct relationship between exposure to a language (at home or in school) and achievement in that language. The authors termed this scenario a Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP).

In terms of L2 learning, this may mean that the contents and skills of one language cannot be transferred to the other language. Cummins (1981) rejected this hypothesis and offered instead a different perspective – Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). He depicted this as an iceberg with separated two-pointed triangles which are joined beneath the surface line, to demonstrate that the linguistic knowledge of one language can be transferred to another language. However, Baker (2011) criticized Cummins' balloon/iceberg picture-based theories used to illustrate the distinction between the separate or common underlying proficiencies, because of their lack of research-based evidence. Nonetheless, Baker (ibid) supported Cummins' (1980, 1981) Common Underlying Proficiency notion, agreeing that concepts learned in one language can be easily transferred to another language.

2.3.1.3 The Transfer Hypothesis

According to Cummins (2000), Elizabeth Thompson's Introduction to MacDougall's '*The Emigrant's Guide to North America* book of 1841, painted a picture of how pupils in Scottish education had suffered discrimination, not only through the scarcity of schools in Scotland, but also by refusing to use the Gaelic language in the school curriculum up to the nineteenth century. Cummins commented on Thompson's observation that, as the situation changed, and pupils began to learn Gaelic, it was discovered that they could learn to read English more easily if they had learned basic Gaelic grammar and literature. On the basis of this claim, Cummins argued that, where a student had attained high-level literacy language proficiency skills in their L1, they were likely be able to transfer those skills to L2 literacy.

Cummins' argument advocates bilingual education and the need to develop literacy in L1 prior to coming into contact with literacy in the form of L2. However, not everyone was content with this. As Cummins (2000) noted, Rosalie Pedalino Porter (1990) had questioned the effectiveness and outcomes of bilingual education. Instead of waiting for students to reaching certain proficiency levels, Porter proposed

the maximum exposure or time-on-task hypothesis as an alternative to bilingual education, postulating that early and intensive exposure to L2 results in competence in L2. In response to Porter's claim, Cummins (2000, p.174) counter-argued that:

> ...if time-on-task or maximum exposure to English is the determining factor in English academic achievement, then all forms of bilingual education will dilute instructional time devoted to English and will result in significant adverse effects.

Where Cummins (ibid) stressed the importance of developing both L1 and L2 in a parallel way, Porter argued that reaching a certain L1 proficiency level did not cause proficiency in the L2. In other words, transfer of languages is not important, but the time the learner spends being exposed to L2. The underlying assumption of Porter's hypothesis of maximum exposure or time-on-task hypotheses on L2 learners may be interpreted as the following: if a Somali student is in the process of learning English (L2), the maximum L2 input they receive will be the determining factor for achieving positive gains in their L2 proficiency. This may mean that there is no role in HL aspects that they can transfer across to L2 to maximize their outcomes in L2. This contradicts my personal experience over many years, as I have been using HL not only to maximize positive outcomes for English language learners, but also to shorten the time needed for English learning.

Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005) study examined the role of bilingualism in early literacy acquisition for children whose two writing systems have different relations to each other and involved 132 children comprising four groups of children in first grade: 3 groups were bilinguals representing a different combination of language and writing system: Cantonese–English bilingual, Hebrew–English bilingual, and Spanish–English bilingual and a group of English monolingual. The study examined the role of bilingualism in early literacy acquisition for children whose two writing systems have different relations with each other. The study found that the facilitating role of bilingualism in early reading depends on the relation between the two languages and their writing systems.

This is important as it may signal that there is a common underlying proficiency for both languages which enables transfer from one language to another. Furthermore, the study notes that, as there is a differential development of the prerequisite skills for monolingual and bilingual children, the expectation was that bilingualism influences literacy acquisition. Thus, according to the study, the three skills that are crucial for literacy acquisition are oral proficiency, metalinguistic awareness, and general cognitive development. These three skills will be considered below.

The study acknowledged the influence that oral vocabulary had on children's acquisition of literacy. However, it was postulated that there is often a gap in the level of vocabulary knowledge between monolingual and bilingual children which advantages monolinguals as the consequence of their English use at home. The study further emphasized that the gap did not close until the fifth grade. One of the key arguments of the study is that the lower level of vocabulary knowledge may disadvantage bilingual children in early literacy acquisition when compared to monolingual speakers.

Although the focus was not on literacy, a similar study that raised the importance of vocabulary knowledge was that of Trakulphadetkrai, et al.'s (2020) study in the context of England. It was participated in by 35 children with English as an Additional Language (EAL) and 31 children with English as their first language (FLE) of (9–10 years old). The study aimed to understand how language competence, reading comprehension, and working memory contribute to mathematics achievement among children with English as an additional language (EAL). It raised the importance of vocabulary knowledge for solving mathematical problems. It also noted the importance of learning the vocabulary used in mathematics such as mathematical jargon and abstracts.

According to the study, this is because a problem arises when the gap between mathematical jargon and abstracts (which are specific to this subject like the functions of tangent, cosine, rhombus, and trapezoid), and vocabulary knowledge becomes blurry. The study offered a lexically ambiguous term as an example: the word 'odd' which can be assumed to describe something strange in the context of the

language used daily, but in mathematical terms, it is expected to be understood as concerning its '… relation to numbers… to describe any integer that cannot be divided exactly by 2.' (Trakulphadetkrai, et al., 2020, pp.473-474). The study concluded by suggesting that bilingual learners need to receive more targeted language support, including help with specific language knowledge needed to understand and solve mathematical word problems.

Burgoyne, et al (2009) study explored the reading- and comprehension-related skills of children learning EAL relative to their monolingual peers and was participated by 46 monolinguals and 46 Year 3 bilinguals. Children completed standardized measures of reading accuracy and comprehension, listening comprehension, and receptive and expressive vocabulary. The study demonstrated that children learning EAL have difficulties in understanding written and spoken text when compared to monolingual peers; and the reason for this was attributed to not by poor decoding skills but the lower levels of English vocabulary knowledge that many children learning EAL experienced which place significant constraints on their comprehension skills.

 Despite identifying knowledge of vocabulary as a crucial factor for second language literacy acquisition, the above studies seem to be less clear as to elaborate on what strategy to use to enhance the EAL vocabulary knowledge. A suggestion may be pre-tutoring sessions where EAL students learn the second language vocabulary needed for the text in their first language. Furthermore, since the three studies involve bilingual children learning English as an additional language, the underlying message of the studies may be understood to be that vocabulary learned in one language may be easily transferred to another language and that it may facilitate the comprehension of the second language.

Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan (2005) noted that metalinguistic awareness research has repeatedly confirmed the importance of phonological awareness for alphabetic reading. However, research often reports a bilingual advantage for 5-year-olds that disappears by age 6 when children begin reading instruction. In Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005) study of monolingual and bilingual children between 5 and 7 years

old, they found only limited evidence for bilingual advantages on some tasks. According to the study, there was no clear evidence that bilinguals were more advanced in developing phonological awareness than monolinguals. Metalinguistic awareness will be further considered in Section 2.3.3.

In terms of cognitive development, Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan (2005) emphasized that there are cognitive levels that can be related to literacy achievements and some of these levels may differ between monolinguals and bilinguals. Cognitive development refers to, (citing Oakley, 2004, p. 10), the study that examines the '…changes and development that occur in the thinking and reasoning in the child.' Thus, Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan (2005), note for monolingual and bilingual learners, at least there are reasons as to why literacy may proceed differently. Firstly, bilinguals develop many background skills for literacy which is different from the monolinguals; and secondly, there is the chance for bilinguals to transfer the skills required for reading in one language to reading in the other.

Jarvis (2011) reviewed six studies where two of them dealt with categorization processes in the domain of lexicalized concepts which reflect word meanings, and four studies which explored the event construal (how an individual conceptualizes an event which is manifested in a language). Jarvis attempted to clarify the difference between a concept and conceptualization. He explained that a concept is the mental representation of an object, event, action, or any perceivable or imaginable aspect for which the mind creates a mental category; whereas he referred conceptualization as the selection process of concepts and organizing them together to represent a perspective of a given situation. This may mean that, in linguistics, labeling an object can be termed as a concept and the process that enables it to represent a given situation by organizing its concept may be termed as conceptualization. From this perspective, it can be inferred that the conceptual transfer of language can be expected from children as well as adults.

Bagherian's (2012) study which was situated within the framework of Jarvis' (2007), aimed to understand the conceptual transfer between the Persian and English languages and how concepts that one language lacks or used broader than the other

language affects the languages. Data were collected from 100 participants (70 females, 30 males) who were studying English as a foreign language in an English Language School in Mobarakeh, Isfahan, Iran. Participants were divided into two groups: the elementary (14-17 years, 60 in total) and intermediate (15-17 years, 40 in total) learners. To assess their proficiency in English, two proficiency tests; Nelson English Language Test and two proficiency tests 050 B and 250D were administered to the two groups to establish their homogeneity at each level. For the conceptual transfer measurement, a three- parts (A, B, and C) questionnaire was used each consisting of 10 items. The questionnaire required the participants to fill in the blanks based on the sentences in Persian, translate some sentences from Persian to English, and select appropriate options in 'two-choice' items.

The main argument that the study raised seems to be that conceptual transfer may lead to conceptual errors due to the assumption from the English as second or foreign learners that, concepts in their first language and the English language are most of the time identical and that it is possible to transfer without consideration is being given the possibility of cross-linguistic conceptual difference. The study found that significant cases of conceptual transfer from the Persian language to the English language. It was also noted that the participants' level of English proficiency played a significant role in their transfer of concepts whilst their age did not. This shows the existence of common underlying proficiency as the participants' proficiency in the second language, English, facilitated the conceptual transfer across the languages regardless of their age.

Vâlcea's (2020) study analyzed the errors that Romanian students produced when they were in the process of translating tense-based sentences from Romanian into English. the aim was to establish if the errors arise from the consequences of transferring grammar knowledge of the students from their first language on the second language or not. First Year engineering students who chose English as their foreign language participated in the study without taking a formal English assessment upon admission. Students were of mixed abilities and levels in English: ranging from total beginners and advanced users of English. The author selected sentences that contain differences when in the process of comparison to check the interference between Romanian and English. This, in the view that where there are

interferences between Romanian and English, it would be a confirmation of the known theory of linguistic interference. The students were asked to translate six short and simple sentences as the sentences were deemed to lead to either positive or negative transfer between Romanian or English. although it can be argued that six sentences may not be sufficient to understand the interference between Romanian and English, they nevertheless, contained aspects that were dissimilar in Romanian from English.

It was also assumed that students might make errors when using their knowledge of Romanian when translating into English. The study found that students relied heavily on their first language (Romanian) when translating it into English. This was attributed to the fact that when participants were dealing with English, they used Romanian as a facilitating tool. This potentially indicates that there is a common underlying proficiency as the Romanian language facilitated the understanding of another language, English.

Siu and Ho (2015), in the context of Hong Kong, explored the roles of different dimensions of syntactic skills in predicting reading comprehension within and across two languages with contrasting structural properties: Chinese and English. A total of 413 Hong Kong Chinese students ages 6 years 6 months to 10 years 5 months (186 boys and 227 girls) participated in this study. The focus of the study was threefold: comparing the predictive effects of word order and morphosyntactic skills on reading comprehension in the first language (Chinese) and the second language (English) among bilingual students in grades 1 and 3; exploring the role of first language syntactic skills in second language reading comprehension; and testing the mediating effects of second language syntactic skills and first language reading comprehension to explore the mechanisms underlying the L1-to-L 2 syntactic transfer.

The research question that the study explored was whether syntactic skills in the L1 were transferable across languages to facilitate reading comprehension in the L2 which could be considered under the linguistic interdependence hypothesis of (Cummins,1979). The materials and procedures used by the study included four syntactic measures (word order correction and morphosyntactic correction in

Chinese and English), two oral vocabulary measures (vocabulary in Chinese and English), six literacy measures (word reading, sentence comprehension, and passage comprehension in Chinese and English), a standardized test of nonverbal intelligence, and a working memory task.

Although the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test Fourth* Edition (PPVT–4) to measure Chinese vocabulary was not standardized in Chinese because the items and their presentation order might not apply to test other languages or cultural groups than English, the study suggested that the findings should be interpreted with great caution. The results of the study indicated that L1 syntactic skills positively contributed to L2 reading comprehension in both first and third-grade pupils after the age, nonverbal intelligence, working memory, oral vocabulary, and word reading were taken into consideration. It was concluded that the study supported Cummins' (1979) linguistic interdependence hypothesis of a transfer of linguistic skills across languages.

Considering that there was conceptual transfer from Persian language to the English language in the case of Bagherian's (2012), and the reliance on Romanian when translating it into English in the case of Vâlcea's (2020) and the fact that the syntactic skills of the first language can positively contribute to second language's reading comprehension, as Siu and Ho's (2015) study shows, indicates that skills learned in one language may positively be transferred to another language.

The advantages and disadvantages of bilingual education have been deliberated by (Cummins and Swain, 1986) when they examined the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive functioning. They focused on two-sided arguments regarding bilingual education, specifically reviewing the opponents' argument. Whilst the latter view claimed that bilingual education leads to confusion because it creates a condition of having two words for one concept, the proponents' counter-argument asserted that having two words for a concept leads to conceptual enrichment and the ability to identify linguistic ambiguities (Cummins and Swain, ibid).

 After evaluating the arguments of those opposing bilingual education, (Cummins and Swain, ibid) came to the conclusion that studies showing the bilinguals' negative

cognitive functioning effect included methodological faults, demonstrating that the measures of dependent variables which were supposed to measure the metalinguistic or cognitive functioning aspects were different, as they focused on either identifying structural ambiguity in limited sentences or on testing intelligence using Piaget's method. To summarize the argument, Cummins and Swain (ibid) concluded by citing McLaughlin's (1984) assertion that, where the child has competence in two languages, they have an advantage over monolingual children.

As well as reinforcing Cummins and Swain's (1986) assertion of the advantage of bilingualism, Ramírez and Kuhl's (2016) report compared key developments in bilingual and monolingual language acquition. The report made a case for simultaneous exposure to two languages as it can be related to several cognitive benefits. The report also justified the concern that bilingualism causes confusion and explained that it is a reflection that bilingual children and adults often know certain words in one language rather than the other. Furthermore, the report also identified the optimal age and environment for people to become bilingual, comparing the extent to which major milestones in bilingual and monolingual language acquisition supported the bilingual advantage claim. It found that 'optimal learning' is achieved when the learning of two languages begins at an early stage, around 3 years of age, in an additive environment.

The main messages relayed by all of the above studies were that bilingual education's advantages are threefold: 1) its positive effect on cognition, metalinguistic awareness (defined below) and its ability to stimulate the central executive functions; 2) it may be an advantage for social purposes such as language brokering (defined below): the interaction order that mainly occurs between a child and their parents with the aim of facilitating understanding; and 3) it can be useful for self-awareness: the individual's identity. All of these factors can be related to the cognition and metalinguistic awareness of the pupil participants, which is necessary for their classroom tasks, their communication skills at home and their self-awareness.

2.3.2 Social Advantages (Cultural, Brokering, Identity)

Introduction

Baker (2011, p.158) postulates that bilingualism '…connects cognition with interpersonal relationship.' As it goes beyond the skills of the bilingual's mind to that of their social skills. This is important as it may shed light on the fact that learning HL by pupil participants in the study may not be beneficial for the cognitive skills needed in the class but goes beyond that to the family and the wider society that use their heritage language. In this section, studies on language brokering, language orientations and self-identity will be reviewed with aim of illustrating the importance of knowing another language for social benefit.

2.3.2.1 Language Brokering

Weisskirch (2017, citing Tse,1996) explained that language brokering is a process in which children act as interpreters for their parents, using two languages. This suggests that the act of language brokering occurs between three people when two of them are unable to understand each other because of cultural and linguistical difference (Lee and Corella, 2017). De Abreu and O'Dell (2017, p.1) attempted to theorize a child's language brokering by drawing on Goodnow, Miller and Kessel's (1995) conceptualization of the word 'practice', which they defined as the usually expected, desirable and widely-shared actions of a community. The underlying message of Weisskirch's (2017) and Lee and Corella's (2017) definition of 'language brokering' and its conceptualization by De Abreu and O'Dell (2017) can be understood as a sign of the important role of bilingualism in facilitating communication which, in most cases, is vital for the routines of daily life.

Lee and Corella (2017) examined immigrant parents' language brokering practices for 18 months (2008–2010), studying 12 families (mothers only) of Spanish-English bilinguals living in the USA. Their data analysing process was based on two observational videos: 1) where parents were engaged in brokering practices; and 2) interviews in which parents described the brokering practices. From their findings they identified two types of brokering: interlingual and intralingual brokering. The first practice refers to translating, interpreting and paraphrasing across two languages

and cultures; whereas the latter practice involves the translating, interpreting and paraphrasing that happens within one language. Moreover, Lee and Corella (2017), argued that there were three goals of intralingual brokering: 1) setting forth communication when the broker suspects communication breakdown; 2) keeping the flow of communication when the broker anticipates an abrupt communication interruption; and 3) the broker accepting the brokeree's request for help. The authors concluded that most intralingual brokering was found in parent-child interaction, where a parent corrects and guides their child.

Both these types of language brokering were relevant to my research because: 1) in the home context, parents may guide and correct children when there was a misunderstanding and clarification was needed as the parents' dominant language was the HL (intralingual brokering); 2) pupils were most likely to have been engaged in facilitating communication between their parents and other non-Somali speaking individuals in different contexts such as shopping or dealing with public service providers (interlingual brokering). Despite most of the pupil participants having acquired the English language much faster than their parents, in the UK context it is deemed unacceptable to use children as translators in health care situations because of the ethics and regulations around children (De Abreu and O'Dell, 2017). However, the denial of children's language brokering can potentially be translated as ignoring the reality in which the Somali immigrant parents survive in their new environment (Weisskirch, 2017). In any case, De Abreu and O'Dell (2017) reminded us that there was substantial evidence showing that language brokering competence is unstable and depends on the frequency of translating.

2.3.2.2 Language Orientations

Cummins (2000) observed that Ruiz's (1984) framework for language provided two language orientations: 1) language as a problem; and 2) language as a right. Ruiz (ibid) described viewing language as a problem as seeing the minority language as a deficit, due to the child's lack of speaking skills when beginning school. In contrast, viewing language as a right sees the minority community as being a right for a child, which needs to be maintained when learning another language. A similar dichotomy was raised by Gallagher (2008), who elaborated that the language as a problem view

preoccupied schools, which were preoccupied with thoughts of fixing a 'problem' which they regarded to be the child's fault. Gallagher (ibid) claimed that they did this by focusing on collecting data regarding what a child cannot do when acquiring L2 after placing them in a remedial group. On the other hand, Gallagher (ibid) explained that the right of the minority community child to retain their HL is enshrined in international organisations such as the United Nations, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the Council of Europe and the European Community. Thus, schools that perceive language as a right and set out to promote it are informed in their practice by the benefits of bilingualism in the classroom (Gallagher, ibid).

Cummins (2000, p.171) stated that Ruiz was unsatisfied by both of these orientations because they were insufficient for language planning and '…hostility and divisiveness are often inherent in these orientations.' Thus, Ruiz proposed what seemed to be a neutral third orientation: that of viewing language as a resource. This orientation would enable the HL to be considered as a resource, and no effort should be spared to nurture it in a multi-cultural society (Cummins, ibid).

Both Cummins and Gallagher's key arguments about language orientation can be summarised in three ways: 1) HL should be viewed as a resource, in order for the minority community to use and maintain it effectively; 2) HL should be viewed as a right for an individual's culture and identity, so should be respected, maintained and not suppressed; and 3) HL should not be viewed as a problem, because knowing another language can be an advantage for the individual and wider society. In the case of my research, taking a language is a right and language is a resource orientation could mean untapping a '…national resource provided by [Somali language] heritage learners' in England (Martinez, 2012, p.68).

2.3.2.3 Self-Identity Awareness

Providing one precise definition of identity is a daunting task (Lawler, 2014). However, Walker and Leedham-Green (2010) posit that identity can be determined by an individual's attitude and reaction to others. This expands the notion of identity beyond an individual to wider society. Tajfel (1978, p.63) defined social identity as:

> …that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his [sic] knowledge of his membership of a social group… together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership.

However, the awareness and warmth of identity only becomes apparent when it is missing, in crisis, or there is a need to distinguish between 'them' and 'us' (Oyserman, Elmore and Smith, 2012; Verkuyten, 2014). The word '*us*' signfies a group that is bonded together in some way and shares some characteristics. This closeness can originate from home, where the child-parent relationship mostly evolves. Kung (2013) considered the home environment as an important factor where identity, culture and communication between relatives is fostered.

Walker and Leedham-Green (2010, p.1) associated identity with 'immunology – the biology of recognizing self and non-self…' Setting this association argument forth, Marrack (2010) explained that, to defend certain creatures from others, they must have two things to hand: 1) a mechanism to defend themselves; and 2) a way of identifying the others. To relate this to human beings, Lawler (2014) asserted that there are three types of identities, namely personal, social and ego, which are unstable under certain conditions because of the changes that occur to society socially, politically, economically and culturally. This means that identity is a socially-fabricated or constructed phenomenon, so it has ramifications for people's conditions at a certain time and in a certain way. By 'people's conditions, I mean what their status is: like immigrants etc; and by certain way, I mean how they are perceived by the society in which they live. Moran (2016) argued that, since identity is a socially fabricated concept, it will undoubtedly affect immigrants in a negative way as they migrate from their native country to a new land. As a result of this, they often undergo an identity crisis because of the social, political, economic and cultural changes which may sometimes even pose life-threatening challenges.

Since my research involved first- and second-generation immigrants as participants, they may have experienced identity crises from living in England because of the social, political, economic and cultural changes they had been undergoing. I aimed to capture the magnitude of this crisis by the way my participants viewed learning their

HL literacy, asking research sub-question 1: *What are the Somali pupils' and their parents' perceptions of learning reading, writing and grammar of the Somali language?*

2.3.3 Academic Advantages (Metalinguistic Awareness, Concept Transfer)

Metalinguistic awareness may be defined as an individual's ability to think and reflect upon the nature and functions of language (Lanza, 2004). As such, bilingualism may provide an advantage as it stimulates the way children think about language when they are learning two languages (Rodriguez, Carrasquillo and Lee, 2014). Further, Rodriguez, Carrasquillo and Lee emphasised that all children are cognitively, emotioanlly and linguistically connected with the language they use at home and teachers need to utilise this language as it is crucial for making meaning of new concepts. According to (Hoff, 2014; Roehr-Brackin, 2018), for children, such advantages also include having the ability in the classroom to compare how two or more languages work. Cummins and Swain (1986, p.11) argued that bilingualism can play a nuanced role in stimulating a person's analytical orientation and '…increase(s) aspects of metalinguistic awareness'. This awareness provides the ability to distinguish meaning from form, to identify phonics, to distinguish between reality and perception (Hoff, 2014). An example of distinguishing meaning from form is a three-year-old child's ability to understand that the word 'caterpillar' contains more letters than 'train', even though a train is longer than a caterpillar (Lightbown and Spada, 2013). They also explained that the outcome of all the morpheme acquisition studies show the influence of first language on the second language acquisition sequences. For instance, if the learner's first language has the possessive ('s), the learner acquires the English possessive form earlier than other learners whose first language has a very different way of forming the possessive.

Meunier, Gutierrez and Vignoles' (2013) study was informed by the human capital theory and the education production function literature framework. The framework posits that what produces human capital is the resource input invested in a child. In other words, a child's academic performance depends on how much effort is invested in them, as the '…family background is an important determinant of educational outcomes' (p.107). Their study argued that immigrant children may

display lower cognitive development skills than their middle-class peers, as immigrant parents may be unable to provide resource input due to their socio-economic background.

Although Meunier, Gutierrez and Vignoles' (ibid) argument regarding the role of socio-economic background in academic attainment may be to some extent credible, relating socio-economic background and cognitive development skills appears to be a simplified argument because : 1) if socio-economic disadvantage automatically leads to lower cognitive development skills, it would be a challenge to account for the bright pupils in schools who are from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds and yet outperform pupils with a middle-class background who have managed to '…overcome the effect of deprived home environment' (Kishan, 2008, p.13); 2) while parental input can be a potentially beneficial factor for enhancing academic attainment, one of the positive advantages associated with bilingual learners is their ability to adapt to the context in which they find themselves. This is because they bring with them the '…cognitive, linguistic, academic and cross-cultural benefits of bilingualism in any context' (Rodriguez, Carrasquillo and Lee, 2014, p.5).

Ikizer and Ramirez-Esparza's (2017) study focused on bilingual pupils' social flexibility and language, and cognition skills. The authors noted that although previous studies showed that bilinguals have an advantage over monolinguals in cognitive flexibility which was termed as the ability to shift between different mental sets, this study attempted to explore whether bilingualism provided an advantage in social flexibility, by which the authors meant: 1) the ability to switch and adapt easily between different social environments; and 2) the ability to accurately read social cues in any environment. A total participant of 465 monolinguals 265 bilinguals who, through survey, completed a self-report questionnaire that assessed their level of proficiency in speech, reading, writing, and pronunciation in their native and second language. Both monolingual and bilingual participants were Mechanical Turk users who lived in the USA or Canada. Participants were directed to an online survey via Mechanical Turk which was an internet crowd-sourcing site used by the University of Connecticut, USA, that connected interested participants with paid research studies.

Their study was in alignment with previous research, concluding that bilingualism had a positive impact on cognitive and social skills.

These findings are particularly important for a classroom setting, where linguistic competency is '…essential for successful performance of almost every aspect of academic tasks…' (Naudẽ, 2004, p.123). It can also be inferred from Ikizer and Ramirez-Esparza's (2017) study that, since bilingualism can be associated with the ability to adapt between different environments, activities in the classroom can feature as part of this adaption ability because language facilitation happens in different contexts.

Reflecting on: Rodriguez, Carrasquillo and Lee's (2014) argument that teachers should utilise the children's home language because of its importance for making meaning of new concepts in the second language; Lanza's (2004) definition of metalinguistic awareness as the nature and functions of language which may be understood in relation to how another language functions; Lightbown and Spada (2013) findings that all studies on morpheme acquisition showed the influence of first language on the second language acquisition sequences and finally, Ikizer and Ramirez-Esparza's (2017) finding that bilingualism may positively impact on cognitive and social skills, the key message here seems to be that the concept learned in the home language can be transferred to a seoncd language concept. The studies tend to support Cummins's (1979) linguistic interdependence hypothesis of a transfer of linguistic skills across languages.

2.4 The Importance of Heritage Language

This Section of the thesis sets out to explain the importance of HL for an individual's social and academic achievement and the challenges that can delimit HL's literacy development. First, I will examine the current definitions of HL, as this may inform and alter understandings of the term (Hart, 2018). Although, this thesis has already used the term heritage language, HL, Saville-Troike and Barto (2017) have reminded us that many concepts are used to explain the language learned during early childhood, seeming to suggest that there is no consensus on the definition of HL.

Leeman's (2015) article in the context of the USA examined the recently conducted research on identity and heritage language education in the USA by discussing the simultaneous development of heritage language education as a field of its own; critically examining the term heritage language, the learner of heritage language; and reviewing the empirical studies conducted within the past five years. The studies examined by Leeman employed survey-based research and qualitative and ethnographic approaches. Leeman explained that one of the reasons for this lack of consensus relates to the inability to establish whether the focus of this term is on a language, society or an individual's linguistic competence. In addition to this, Leeman emphasized that different researchers used various definitions, for example, according to the term's conformity with socio-political status (such as Duff and Li, 2009) whilst researchers who focused on curricular and education policy inclined to attach importance to linguistic proficiency and cultural connections.

The research recommended that additional research needed to be conducted which focuses on the process through which learners of heritage language socialize into other communities and the changes that occur on their subjectivities over time. From this recommendation, it can be deduced that the heritage language speaker is a constructed identity and susceptible to change due to socializing into different communities with different languages.

Edwards (2009) has observed, multilingualism is a daily reality all over the world that cannot be ignored. The Canadian Education Association (1991) also found it difficult to define the term 'heritage language', stating that many terms such as *language of origin*, the *first language*, the *language of one's ancestors* and *minority language* are commonly used to determine it. Fairclough and Beaudrie (2016), citing Wiley (2001), explained that the difficulty arose because the terms used to define heritage language mean different things to different people. Thus, it is important to clarify which definition a researcher is using. As I noted earlier in the key terms Section 1.11 of Chapter 1, I have adopted Kwon's (2017, p.495) definition that HL is the language of '…immigrants and children of immigrant parents [who] have a historical and personal connection'.

Slabakova (2016) explained that what differentiates human beings from other animals is their ability to produce and understand language. Bialystok (2017, p.233) asserted that this production ability is crucial for human survival as 'language use [is] the most intense, sustained, and integrative experience in which humans engage'. Whilst Slabakova's (2016) explanation of HL may be understood as referring to an understanding among a homogenous society that relies on language as communication for survival, Bialystok's (2017) emphasis can be inferred as interactions between different societies which need intensity, sustainability and engagement. This distinction is important to note in the context of this dissertation, because both pupil and parent participants can benefit from HL when communication interruptions occur due to pupils' lack of HL understanding.

Alfehaid (2014) and Guardado (2018) argued that globalization has created a world without boundaries that has enabled people to communicate and interact freely. Alfehaid's (2014) discussion paper was about exploring what has made English a global language and, focused on the effects of globalization on English language teaching (ELT). It examined the positive and negative effects of globalization on ELT. According to the study, this was because of the serious influence that globalization has on the field of ELT throughout the world as the consequence of the world becoming a space without boundaries. It concluded by cautioning that it was possible that the global ELT may introduce some forms of culture that were not suitable for a particular ELT context.

Whilst Alfehaid's (2014) paper was about the effects that ELT has on communities learning English as an additional language, Guardado's (2018) focus was on what seemed to be the effect of globalization on the heritage language as the consequence of the world becoming more interconnected and that people continue to add new languages to their repertoire. Guardado further postulated that as well as parents, policymakers, and educators are preoccupied with understanding how to efficiently cater to the increasing multilingual classroom in a sensitive and pedagogically sound manner. Guardado suggested that by identifying goals and designing programs suitable for a cultural response, the stakeholders may be able to effectively address the educational desires of multilingual families. From both Alfehaid (2014) and Guardado's (2018) underlying message, it can be understood

that since learning a new language is inevitable due to globalization, the teaching and the learning of the new language should occur in a culturally sensitive manner.

Globalization can also be described as meaning the way that people create a world society that strives to do things, in generally the same way (Lechner, 2009). This might include, for example, integrating the economic, technological, cultural, social and political aspects between different countries (Hamilton, 2009). Guardado (2018) postulated that, due to intensifying global movements, both linguistic minorities and host societies are currently preoccupied with the question of how families, communities and governments deal with minority languages. Guardado (ibid) further explained that settling into another country prompts parents to wonder which languages (majority and minority) their children should learn, which will enable them to fit in whilst also maintaining their identities.

In the context of immigration, it can be assumed that language use is crucial for immigrant students' success in the classroom. Showstack (2017, p.271) postulates that how successful students use HL within classroom 'discursive practices' is closely related to their ability to negotiate the '…relations of legitimacy, authenticity, and social difference regarding their own identities…' The underlying assumption may be understood as suggesting that the loss of HL can lead to social and academic disadvantage because of the student's inability to co-construct a worldview. This may further cause the problem to become the unexpected in the expected and '… thereby hinder the process of negotiatited perspective' (McGarry, 2012, p.43).

Thomas and Collier (1997) presented a USA-based summary of an ongoing collaborative study that was intended to be national in scope and practical for immediate local decision-making in schools. The study included findings from five large urban and suburban school districts in various regions of the United States attended by large numbers of minority language students. It analysed over 700,000 student records collected from 1982 to 1996. They found that students who had emigrated to the USA after having received several years' schooling in their native country made greater progress than similar groups of students who had emigrated to the USA at a younger age and received all their schooling in English only. They further observed that all minority language groups benefitted greatly in the long-term

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from doing academic work in their HL. Consequently, they advised that the more children develop their HL academically and cognitively at an age-appropriate level, the more successful they will be in academic achievement in their L2 by the end of their school years.

However, Thomas and Collier (ibid) also argued that students need to be challenged academically across the curriculum through their HL. This could be done by involving them in cognitively complex school tasks in their HL. In the English context, as bilingual education may not be effectively happening in classroom, this research provides an innovative contribution, as I worked with pupils and their parents outside of the school day, but still on school premises. I found it easier to develop HL by working at the school site because I knew the participants, the environment and colleagues due to my employment situation, so I was able to gain easy access to them and resources.

The importance of HL for an individual's education and identity development has also been internationally acknowledged. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 1953, p.11) noted that:

> It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his [sic] mother tongue. Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium.

Similarly, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989, p.11) Article 30 instructed nations where minority communities live to safeguard their culture, religion, and language. In doing so, both United Nations institutions signal that maintaining HL is an inherent factor in an indiv
idual's daily social life and personal identity.

However, immigrant children who are born or who grow up in an environment where their HL is the non-dominant language and they need to learn L2 for academic

purposes face challenges. In the USA context, Goodwin, August, and Calderonc's (2015) study, which was part of a larger longitudinal study, explored the development of literacy in Spanish-speaking English Learners (EL) under instruction-as-usual conditions in the context of three school districts in three regions of the United States. The study made an important contribution to the knowledge of understanding how children approach reading in their native language compared to their second language. Particularly in cases where multiple theories such as the orthographic depth hypothesis and linguistic grain size theory (small grains assessed via phonological decoding and large grains assessed via morphological awareness), the simple view of reading, and the common underlying proficiency model) were simultaneously used.

Ellis et al (2004, citing Katz and Frost, 1992) note that the orthographic depth hypothesis explains that shallow orthographies can be assumed to be easier to read by using word-recognition processes of the language's phonology. In terms of grain size theory, Ziegler and Goswami (2005) emphasized that when students are reading opaque orthographies such as English, they use larger grains because in opaque orthographies there are more orthographic units: there is some disparity in numbers between the words and syllables, syllables and rhymes, rhymes and graphemes, and, graphemes and letters. Gough and Tunmer (1986) notes that the simple view of reading suggests that the reading skill can be described as the product of decoding and comprehension.

Goodwin, August, and Calderonc's (2015) study examined how 113 fourth-grade Spanish-speaking children learning English approached reading in their native language Spanish, a transparent language as compared to their second language of English which is opaque. The main argument that the study raised was that English learners (ELs) enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 in U.S. schools face a challenging task. They must become literate in two languages: the home language (L1) and the classroom language (L2). It was noted that as part of learning to read English, the children should deal with variations in the features of these orthographies. To illustrate the variations, an example was provided: English is regarded as an opaque language since its word reading involves different expectations to grapheme rules whereas Spanish is considered a transparent

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language because of its fewer expectations. Throughout the article, the decoding and morphological systems of the two languages were compared.

Goodwin, August, and Calderonc (2015) noticed that prior research was limited in establishing that the monolingual reader's approach to reading various orthographies was different and did not go as far as to explore how the English learner's approach to the reading of their L1 and L2 when the language of instruction differs and the orthographies have distinctive features (p. 597). Goodwin, August, and Calderonc (2015) considered the issues from different viewpoints and avoided committing to premature conclusions and therefore grounded their claims in extensive justification. Instead, they often stated their argument first in the form of a statement and then proceeded to provide a compelling literature review. The following strong stance is taken: When reading for comprehension, the English learners seem to depend on both small and large grains (phonemes and morphemes), when reading in their native language of Spanish for comprehension they depend more on the larger grains (morphemes) when reading in English for comprehension.

The study's limitation in terms of modeling reading comprehension included the use of a simple view of reading which created the uncertainty of whether the use of other mediators such as inferencing, which the study did not measure separately from other comprehension skills, would support the reading comprehension or it '…would be supported by larger-grain analysis' (p.642). However, the study clarified how English-speaking Spanish 4th-grade students approach reading comprehension by noting how small versus large grain analysis contribute to reading comprehension (p.624). The study appears to have relevance not only to Spanish- speaking English learners but learners in general whose language orthographic system is transparent and learning the English language.

Welch-Ross' (2010) summary workshop Report on the (Role of Language in School Learning: Implications for Closing the Achievement Gap) focused on the extent to which group differences in school achievement might be attributed to language differences, and whether students after 3rd grade can be helped with language-related instruction to close gaps in achievement and cope with language intensive

subject matter. Welch-Ross (2010, p.69), citing Labov and Hudley, (2009) highlighted two ways that language difference could be associated with academic achievement:

1) The *structural difference*: phonemic inventory and grammar rules that may interfere with the learning; and

2) *Symbolic influences* that relate to the social and psychological effect as a result of teachers and other people's perceptions of the ability and performance of students speaking another language.

The structural differences, in this case, regard the effect that children's first language dialect has on their logical expression and the reading and writing errors that these children make. According to the report, this can be attributed to the mismatch between, on one hand, the vernacular that was perfectly acquired and, on the other hand, the standard language of the classroom that was imperfectly acquired. In terms of symbolic, social, and psychological influence, citing (Labov and Hudley, 2009), the author listed different areas of linguistic variation that were observed in African American vernacular such as grammar and phonology, the difference in the discourse, cultural patters, differences in vocabulary and how an individual self-presents through language. Further, the author continued that, as the difference between the structural and symbolic mismatch between students' language and classroom language (English) becomes greater, this affects the students' reading performance in the classroom, teacher's perception of students' abilities, performance on standard assessment and causes low achievement and low occupational skills.

This indicates that separate educational provision, in the form of differentiated instruction, is needed for particular pupils in a mixed classroom. This is because not all pupils operate at the same level of ability in the classroom (Tomlinson, 2001). However, this can be a challenge for the teachers of mixed-ability classrooms, as the native speakers may not receive the enrichment they need, which then creates the impression that what is regarded as a language opportunity can also be a language challenge for the teacher (Baker, 2006). Thus, a way to resolve this dilemma may be providing extra classroom resources that will enable the unity approach to be

adopted: where the classroom develops the national language whilst, simultaneously and in parallel, preserves the nation's multicultural values (Spring, 2016). Developing both languages in tandem may help the maintenance of HL, which is regarded as being vital for both attaining quality in the classroom and providing potential leverage for academic success (Schniedewind and Davidson, 2006).

Stoop (2017) conducted a comparative study about children's rights to HL education in a multilingual world by comparing the language policy and education of South Africa and Germany. The rationale put forward for the study was that HL education is not only beneficial for developing countries but also developed countries. Furthermore, both countries' constitutions regard language as a right; although the provision for language rights is made comprehensive by the South African Constitution and the German Constitution also makes language as a right though not as comprehensive as the South African Constitution.

Stoop's (2017) study aimed to encourage and promote HL education using certain models with a focus on achieving equality and liberation in a multilingual world. Stoop (ibid) made a case for the importance of HL for learners' cognitive and social skills. Hamers and Blanc (2000) explained that, according to (Wong Fillmore, 1989), this could be because of three types of processes that interact when it comes to language learning: cognitive, linguistic and social. Cognitive process has been explained by Hamers and Blanc (2000) to involve the learner's use of memory, their ability such as perception and making inferences in order to learn a language; the linguistic process can be explained as the adjustments made by the speaker to facilitate and promote the learner's understanding; and finally, the social process is defined as the efforts made by both the speaker of the target language and the learner to create an environment which makes the communication in target language desirable and possible.

Stoop (2017) also highlighted the relationship between language and identity, noting that maintaining HL can be a sign that an individual belongs to a particular group. However, she acknowledged that efforts to introduce the use of HL into the mainstream education system was difficult in practical terms because of a lack of funding, skilled educators and sufficient resources. The study concluded by

encouraging the use of HL in education, whilst also warning about underestimating its importance. This warning can be important because, in the study, Stoop identified HL as an intrinsic part of the individual's right as it has been cited in the study's conclusion statement 'Language is the blood of the soul into which thoughts run and out of which they grow' (p. 27).

The challenges such as lack of funding, resources and skilled educators for HL development raised by Stoop (ibid) can be significant, particularly in the context of immigrant pupils. This is because these pupils are required to learn a second language in order to be able to access quality learning. Quality learning (meaningful learning) here means the expectation that learners will make sense of the information they received, interpret it and apply it in the future (see Crebbin, 2004).

This is different than the rote learning. According to Malone (2003), in role learning, the material is being learned by memorizing it without thought and understanding. However, Novak (2010) notes that, in the meaningful learning, what is learned can be applied to new problems or context which means that the transferability of knowledge is hight. Madziva and Thondhlana's (2017) ethnographic study focused on a group of the first cohort of Syrian refugees in the UK. Their study argued that quality education can only be realized through the collaboration of three intersecting environments, among other factors: the wider policy, the school and home. Madziva and Thondhlana (ibid) recommended that an improvement should be made as to how school resources are allocated so that the process of teaching and learning would not be hampered.

Although the study's recommendation is concerned with pupils learning a second language, it could be argued that the opposite is true: pupils learning or aiming to maintain their HL also need appropriate resources. Chumak-Horbatsch (2012) pointed out that devaluing minority pupils' home languages by only paying attention to the classroom language may negatively influence their developing sense of identity.

This lack of resources was also echoed by Seals and Peyton (2017), who argued that, in the context of America, the use of HL in classrooms is not valued, and that pupils learning English are designated as either being English language learners,

limited English proficient or non-native English speakers. Seals and Peyton (ibid) also asserted that, although community-based HL schools face challenges such as lack of resources, funding, space and maintaining effective teachers, yet they are strong and have been maintained over long periods.

The lack of resources was also reiterated by Heller and Martin-Jones (2001), when they articulated the disparate ways in which linguistic resources are distributed. Heller and Martin-Jones (ibid) claimed that, since education is expected to play a role in producing and reproducing social and cultural behaviour, it could also equally be regarded as a tool for producing social differences and social inequality. This may be done in the context of the classroom through distributing classroom resources unfairly. As a solution, Heller and Martin-Jones (ibid, p.11) proposed that the existing conventions of how classroom resources are distributed should be contested as, in the social order, there are gaps '… where it is possible to invent new ways of doing things…'. All of the above studies discussed the importance of HL in the classroom, agreeing that classroom linguistc resources are vital for the academic success of minority pupils and HL literacy maintenance.

Stoop (2017) advocated the use of HL in mainstream education. On the other hand, Madziva and Thondhlana (2017), Seals and Peyton (2017) and Heller and Martin-Jones' (2001) arguments all focused on inequality, in terms of resource allocation and hegemonic policies that directly or indirectly exacerbate inequality by producing and reproducing it. Thus, it can be inferred that, if education intends to remain accessible for ethnic minority communities, steps need to be taken to: 1) enable the introduction of HL into mainstream education; 2) introduce, enact and implement policies that advocate for equity of learning; and 3) review the existing conventional establishments' practices in order to make recommendations for improvement.

2.5 The Importance of Parental Involvement in Children's Learning
Latunde (2017) postulated that the definition of parental involvement is contested and has affected how policy has been used to support the practice. According to the Office for Standards in Education, Ofsted (2011), parental involvement can be a powerful tool for raising a school's attainment and this may mean untapping the

potential resource that parents can positively contribute to learning in schools. It may also mean that parents can play a role in facilitating teachers' understanding of the environment in which pupils live. Without this understanding, educators risk working in isolation, without a partnership with parents, which can have an adverse effect on pupils' academic achievement (Epstein, 2011).

Epstein et al. (2002) revised the handbook in the context of the USA, translated lessons learned from more than 20 years of research, and fieldwork into practical solutions for program development. Although not explicitly elaborating the reasons, Epstein et al. (2002) argued that, despite the robust agreement on the importance of parental involvement, most schools and districts in the USA still needed help in terms of developing comprehensive programs for family, school, and community partnership. Epstein et al. (2002) produced a model of six types of ways schools can involve parents in their children's education: 1) *parenting:* help parents establish a shelter where they can support their children; 2) *communicating:* creating an effective school-home and vice versa method of communicating with parents; 3) providing an opportunity for parents to contribute to school development on a *voluntary* basis; 4) *supporting parents* to understand how to help their children at home with curriculum-related activities; 5) encouraging parents to become involved in the *decision-making process*; and 6) collaborating with *the community* in general to access their resources which can be beneficial for the school.

Hornby and Lafaele (2011) emphasized four main aspects which are fundamental to parental involvement in children's schooling: *family, child, parent-teacher relationships* and the *community*. Moreover, they remarked that there is a gap between the rhetoric and the reality of parental involvement, so they offered a model which clarified the barriers that parents face. The model consisted of four areas, factors that concern: an individual parent and family, child, parent-teacher and societal. Parental and family barriers included parents' beliefs about their school involvement, their current life contexts, their perceptions of opportunities for school involvement, class, ethnicity and gender. The child factors involved their age, their learning difficulties and disabilities, their gifted and talented status, or their behavioural problems. Parent-teacher factors were termed as focusing on differing

agendas, attitudes and language used. Finally, societal factors were explained to be historical, demographic, political, and economic issues around the school.

Hornby and Lafaele (ibid) argued that their model would: 1) enable educational professionals to gain a greater understanding of the barriers to parental involvement in schools; and 2) act as a precursor for developing more effective parental involvement in their children's education. Epstein et al. (2002) and Hornby and Lafaele's (2011) studies both stressed the importance of maintaining effective communication between teachers and parents to avoid wasting a lot of time, particularly if the parents are from an ethnic minority community.

Christine and Matthiesen's (2017) article focused on how teachers at Danish public schools and their principals conceptualize the Somali diaspora's parenting practices and how that affects their interaction with the children in classrooms and the home-school communication. The study reported that the teachers and principals drew on a deficit logic to make sense of Somali diaspora parental practices. It was also noted that this kind of perception led to either teachers allotting valuable time to attempt to educate parents or compensate for the perceived deficiencies. The authors concluded that these strategies had led to marginalization, as 'difference' was understood as 'wrong' or 'inadequate'. This shows that a knowledge of minority pupils' culture is an important tool which can circumvent misconceptions about parental behaviour. However, what is also important is an effective education policy which respects the language, culture and identity of minority ethnic pupils, as Wang (2011) observed.

Mahuro and Hungi's (2016), study focused on a case of Iganga and Mayuge districts in Uganda where the data was from a larger study carried out in two eastern Ugandan districts (Iganga and Mayuge) in 2014. The previous study involved all public and private schools located in Iganga–Mayuge. The data for the Mahuro and Hungi (2016) study was extracted from a cross-sectional survey of 2669 grade six students from public and private schools located in Iganga–Mayuge districts in Uganda. The two types of the Epstein framework (Epstein, 1995) that the study adopted were: *parenting* where consideration was given to the preschool attendance and monitoring of student absenteeism and *communication*, in which the focus was

on checking the student's performance records, how often parents visited schools when their children progressed in grades, when the child stays after school, distance to school and provision of basic learning materials.

The authors noted that, parenting and communication were in the second of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals, Universal Primary Education. The study reported that Ugandan parents were less interested in engaging in their children's education, possibly because of the disjunction between the country's national policy guidelines and what the school's heads were doing in practice. The paper noted that, while the Ugandan national policy instructed parents to contribute basic learning materials such as pens, books and erasers, the school head teachers were pressing parents to pay in cash and non-cash items for exam fees, the parent-teachers' association, security and tuition. It also outlined that this contradiction of what policy makers identified as the parental requirement for provision and what the school administrators were requesting from parents had made parents confused and disempowered. In conclusion, the study advised policy makers to review their decision by rephrasing the policy in straightforward, concise language and clearly differentiating between the schools' and parents' roles by creating a mechanism that would attract parents to participate in the education system.

That study concluded that there was an obvious mismatch between the policy at a national level and what was happening practically at a local level. This could lead to questioning whose fault was that there was little parental involvement in their children's learning. While the scarcity of basic learning materials provided to the district schools in Uganda was understandable, it was illogical to discriminate against parents for not providing what lay beyond their financial capacity. This may lead to the conclusion that, where there is a mismatch between national policy and schools' practices, parental engagement in their children's education will reduce.

Despite the study clearly articulating its methodological process for collecting the data, perhaps what may also be helpful would have been to avoid the expectation of policy implementation by both the public and private schools in the same way. This is because they were two different entities and private schools were privately funded

schools. In the context of private schools in Uganda, Kisira (2008, p.169) noted that 'The owner charges school dues as prescribed by the …[school] Governors.'

In the UK context, Ofsted's (2011) report, which was based on their visits to 47 schools between 2009 and 2010, focused on how effective the partnership between schools and parents was. One of their key findings was that schools' evaluation of their working practices with parents was poor. Subsequently, Ofsted (ibid) recommended that the schools should better evaluate how far parental involvement impacted upon academic improvement. Typical recommendations given by Ofsted (ibid) to promote parental engagement with the schools' activities included:

- Working as volunteers on school visits, including residential visits
- Listening to pupils reading, helping pupils to change their library books or supporting guided reading in lessons
- Helping with school drama productions: organizing make-up, lighting or scenery
- Supporting or leading activities outside the school day
- Helping with practical activities such as art, design and technology, science, and information and communication technology

Although these recommendations were perhaps helpful in promoting parental engagement with school activities to support their children, they appear to be aimed at parents with fewer communication issues. In general, this may not be the case for the Somali community in the UK, because of their potential language barriers and lack of formal education, which might put them in a difficult position to support their children's learning. Thus, educators' high expectations of parental involvement may create 'cultural confusion' for Somali parents, as they are '…expected to move onto territory formerly occupied exclusively by school' (Kahin and Wallace, 2017, p.38) without a clear understanding of their responsibilities and school expectations, or ability to provide what they are being asked to contribute.

Grayson (2013) conducted a rapid review of parental engagement in education, focusing on closing gaps in the attainment of disadvantaged pupils. The review attempted to extend the evidence-based review outcomes by Goodall and Vorhaus

(2011), conducted for the Department for Education. It specifically focused on the key messages from research on the links between parental engagement and narrowing the gap in attainment for disadvantaged groups; and, distilling what was important for the practitioner audience to know about engaging with disadvantaged families to improve achievement. The review considered the evidence of Goodall and Vorhaus (2011) under three headings: school-home links, support and training for parents and family and community-based interventions.

Grayson's review (2013), like Goodall and Vorhaus (2011), found that parents highly valued home-school communication, and she recommended adopting communication strategies which suit individual parental circumstances. The review findings match with those of Goodall et al. (2011) in two ways by stating that: 1) family learning, literacy and numeracy programmes positively impact upon disadvantaged families and their benefits last longer than the intervention period; and 2) there is a need for advocacy to involve multi-agency groups to facilitate parental understanding of how to draw on a range of external expertise. The review concluded by emphasizing that '… parental engagement can improve outcomes for children…' (Grayson, ibid., p.23). However, Kahin and Wallace (2017, p.46) argued that, if parental involvement is measured by counting the number of parents who attend a school event, then the Somali parents '…score abysmally badly.' They asserted that, despite the Somali parents' desire to be involved in school, this was because of barriers at both individual and community levels which can be classified into '…logistical, institutional/structural, linguistic, cultural and attitudinal' (Kahin and Wallace, ibid., p.46).

The main findings of Grayson, Goodall and Vorhaus and Kahin and Wallace's studies can be summarized as: the importance of involving parents in children's learning to realise positive outcomes. Their studies suggested that this could be achieved, among other things, through four common factors: 1) parental literacy programmes, which were identified as a huge success; 2) tailoring school parental communication methods to suit individual circumstances; 3) ensuring an awareness of cultural sensitivity of parents' cultural backgrounds to enable tapping into their potential support for learning; and 4) the importance of understanding the parental barriers that impede them from school involvement. The inference that can be made

from these four factors is that perhaps an individual with the knowledge of cultural sensitivity and shared parental language would be best placed to conduct school literacy programmes, to maximize parental involvement and children's academic outcomes. This is precisely what my study set out to achieve.

2.5.1 Symbolic and Ethnic Capital

Borjas' (1992) paper explored the extent to which the skills of an ethnic group can be transmitted across generations by presenting a theoretical and empirical analysis. For empirical analysis, the paper used the General Social Surveys and the National Longitudinal Surveys of Youth. Borjas hypothesised that the link between the skills possessed by parents and their children arises because parents invest in their children's human capital in the context of migration. Further, Borjas (ibid) explained the important role that ethnic capital plays in the intergenerational transmission process when parents are newly arrived in the host country.

Basit and Modood (2016) noted that the concept of ethnic capital refers to a form of resources present in many minority ethnic families who hold education in high regard and desire upward social mobility through education and career routes. Zhou (2009) conceptualized ethnic capital as the interaction between such capitals as financial, human and social within a specific community. According to Borjas (1992), the skills of the next generation depend on: 1) parental inputs; and 2) the quality of the ethnic environment in which parents make their investment. Borjas (ibid) further postulated that ethnic capital is likely to play a more influential role when both parents are members of the same ethnic group than when only one parent is a member.

Postepska's (2017) paper explored the role of ethnic capital in the inter-generational transmission of educational attainment and found that the transfer of ethnic capital benefitted women most. However, Postepska (ibid) highlighted that Bauer and Riphahn (2007) found no supporting evidence regarding Borjas's (1992) hypothesis of the link between the skills of parents and their children. Further, Postepska (2017) similarly noted that Aydemir et al. (2013) could not confirm the importance of ethnic capital in the context of Canada; and finally, that Nielsen et al. (2003) had not found convincing evidence of the importance of ethnic capital in the context of Denmark.

Borjas' (1992, p.149) empirical evidence is important as it has implications on policy in that government's intervention designed to increase an ethnic group's average skill level '…significantly improves the economic well-being of all future generations.' However, the study which is the first of its kind that analyzed the role of ethnic capital in the labor market ignored addressing questions about the ethnic capital in both the theoretical and empirical study. For this reason, the paper recommended future research to consider the link between residential location and ethnic capital.

Thus, I was interested to see what my research would reveal in regard to the influential role of the link between the parent participants' linguistic skills and their participant children, given Borjas' (1992) hypothesis. This is because all of the mothers and fathers in my research shared same ethnic background. Other interesting questions arising from this review of the literature was whether my study would reflect Zhou's (2009) conceptualization of ethnic capital, and whether a transfer of ethnic capital, HL, from the parent participants would benefit the girl participants more than boys (Postepska, 2017).

Gans' (1979, p.9) definition of symbolic ethnicity was relevant to the participants of my study:

> [a] nostalgic allegiance to the culture of the immigrant generation, or that of the old country; a love for and a pride in a tradition that can be felt without having to be incorporated in everyday behaviour.

Gans' (1979) paper explored the acculturation and assimilation among third and fourth generation ethnics of the children of European origins who came to America at the time of the new immigration. The paper argued that symbolic ethnicity is a new phenomenon that appeared in the third generation although, due to its vintage it may have begun among first immigrants. The fact that the symbolic ethnicity can begin earlier may be important as it can raise self-awareness among the young refugees. It may also encourage young immigrants to challenge the multicultural agenda of their host country, provided that they constantly maintain their identity.

Moran (2016) conducted a study in Australia which drew on Bourdieu's (1986) conceptual framework of symbolic capital. The participants of the study, 6 male and 1 female Sudanese children aged between 10 and 15 who had lived in Brisbane for between 2 and 6 years and were recruited from after-school homework programmes. This particular paper (citing, Reynolds 2010) argued that ethnicity was a positive form of capital that allowed young people to challenge the ideals set out by the Australian multicultural agenda.

Moran (2016) claimed that, sometimes, de-emphasizing the importance of identity for young people from refugee backgrounds motivated them immensely to become consumers of resources found outside the borders they used to live in before their migration. Moran went on to explain that – according to Modood (2004), Shah, Dwyer and Modood (2010), Collins et al. (2000), Nayak (2009), Reynolds (2010), Tabar, Nobale and Poyting (2010), and Weller (2010) – the concept of 'ethnic capital' meant the significant relationship between ethnicity and '… the accumulation of capital for the purpose of education and social mobility' (Moran, 2016, p.711). The author noted that, according to Modood (2004), young people of ethnic minority in the UK demonstrated a higher level of educational achievements than their white working-class peers because of this 'ethnic capital', in which high educational aspiration was transferred from parents to children of ethnic minority background.

2.5.2 Poverty

Poverty is another factor that may negatively impact on the achievements of learners from poor background. Raffo et al. (2010) noted that, although education is considered to offer a way out of poverty, there is a paradox in the educational system of many affluent countries in relation to the way they evade underachievement of learners from poorer backgrounds. Similarly, Rutter (1999) highlighted that social conditions such as poverty and bad housing in which many refugees live have a great impact on children's educational progression and their resilience.

In the context of the Somalis living in the Southwest of England, Evans and Page's (2012) report observed that Somali-born migrants in the UK have the lowest employment rates, 30% of men and 80% of women than other migrant groups in the

UK. However, emphasis has been placed on the fact that such low employment rates were not the case when they were in their heritage country and working in professional occupations such as '…police officers, teachers, diplomats, physicians, journalists, bankers and other graduate roles' (Evans and Page, 2012, p.4). The Somali-born migrants' lack of employment was attributed to relevant UK institutions' inability to verify the authenticity of their certificates. Also, language issues were noted as the most likely key issue stopping Somalis finding suitable work.

Barnard and Turner's (2011) study, commissioned by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation, explained that, although a number of migrants come to the UK with qualifications, they had ended up in lower-paid jobs as a consequence of the failure by UK employers to recognize their overseas qualifications. Phillimore and Goodson (2008) echoed this point by arguing that, despite the claim that migrants can be socially, culturally and economically beneficial for UK society, they face great challenges in reaching a point where they feel that there is a role for them in the UK society. According to Kahin and Wallace (2017), socio-economic deprivation is still an issue for many Somali families because of being on social benefit and living in poor neighbourhoods. Kahin and Wallace (ibid) assert that, as a consequence of this, among other factors, less Somali parental involvement in the school context and limited functional literacy at home may be observed.

The following Section explores the literature on Somali language studies and symbolic and ethnic capital in the context of immigration to identify gaps with regard to developing and maintaining the Somali language with a view of advancing mainstream literacy and supporting a positive sense of identity.

2.6 Somali Language Studies and Symbolic and Ethnic Capital

Arthur (2010) conducted a 10-week introductory ethnographic research project in an urban neighbourhood of Liverpool in early 2000. Ten girls aged between 11 and 12 years of age participated in her study to learn the Somali language in an after-school club. The decision to offer this tuition was made by two Somali community teachers who believed that their Somali skills would be beneficial for the children. The project aimed to understand the communicative and symbolic roles of languages and

literacies in the Somali community in Liverpool. In the study, there were sessions where the participants were asked to read notes written in Somali language with the aim of shaping of participants' language practices. It was also noted that the Somali community lived in an area where, Arthur (2010, p.255), 'Despite the presence of the longest-standing black community in the country…' the Somali community perceive it as one of the most segregated area within theToxteth area.

The study showed that the children had a clear association between the Somali language and their sense of identity, by uttering phrases such as '*my language'*, '*our language*', and '*I need to learn it because it is my language*' (Arthur, ibid., p.260). Moreover, as much as they were proud of their language, the study reported the children's concern about not being able to pass on their HL to the next generation in the future. In conclusion, the study reported that the project had opened up a debate among the Liverpool Somali community over the importance of teaching children their HL as a form of cultural education.

From Arthur's description of the Somali community's living conditions, it was evident that, where there were poverty and a lack of support from the local authority which, Arthur (2010, p. 255), 'could be traced to the'colour-blind' local governance of Liverpool…', this lack of support from local authorities can sometimes inspire the community's literate individuals to take the lead and begin initiatives which aim to develop their own communities. An example of such initiatives may include promoting their cultural identity which may empower the children by learning their heritage language literacy. This would be evidence of Borjas' (1992) ethnic capital concept because the community's literate individuals would pass their skills on to the next generation; and the quality of the environment in which the Somali community live (concentrated in a single neighbourhood) might enable an ethnic capital investment because of the easily available network among the community.

Courtney's (2015) exploratory case study looked at the inclusion practices of a Somali-founded charter school in the USA where the majority of students were Somali refugees. The school, a K-8 school Iftin Charter School (ICS), was in a diverse and low-income area in southern California. It was founded by Somali parents to facilitate the transition to American society by enhancing English language

learning, promoting the cultural values of freedom, responsibility and academic and social success for pupils.

The study aimed to understand whether ICS run by the Somali community could provide educational provision which was equal to other neighborhood schools and whether the school was reflective of good multicultural policy that promoted multiculturalism and inclusion. The study examined the data from the California Department of Education which enabled comparisons to be drawn between the ICS and other neighborhood schools with similar low socio-economic status and high population of English language learners. Furthermore, the students' misconduct and intervention as required by the state and federal laws in terms of discipline, special education, and confidentiality among other factors were examined. Twelve randomly selected parent participants were interviewed using a semi-structured interview to gather anecdotal evidence. Participants spoke English and Somali, they had some knowledge of the ICS and lived in the area.

Although promoting cultural values was one of the ICS's key aims, the school prioritised gaining an education where English remained the medium of instruction, rather than developing the students' HL. In fact, there were no attempts to even teach HL as a subject. However, the study found that ICS performed as well as or better than comparable schools and was not in "program improvement" status. Moreover, its annual performance indicators were noted to be strong and that its English language learners were progressing faster (perhaps) than those in comparable schools. Furthermore, the rate of misconduct was explained to be lower at ICS than similar middle schools. This finding was a significant factor in having parents keep their children at the Iftin Charter School. It was also noted that, the school district board appreciated the school's good academic progress in terms of meeting its aim.

Ganuza and Hedman's (2015) study examined the challenges faced when aiming to legitimize HL instruction in Sweden. Their study noted that the Swedish Education Act (2010) instructs that a child has a right to their mother tongue if two conditions are satisfied: 1) the language they are learning is used in the child's home; and 2) the child has a basic understanding of the language. However, the kind of relationship

between educational policy and classroom practice determines what kind of opportunities exist for students to practise oral skills (Halonen et.al. 2014). Thus, despite the existence of a language policy for minority languages in Sweden, '…the mother tongue instruction is limited and constrained by the prevailing structures' (Ganuza and Hedman, 2015, p.136) of the educational system.

Bigelow and King (2015) conducted a four-month qualitative study at the request of Franken's school principal on the basis of establishing a university-school research partnership. The aim was to find out how written script politics, the use of written Somali language, is enacted in schools in America by Somali immigrants. Somali adolescents and young adults aged 14 to 21 participated in the study. The authors argued that the Somali refugee diaspora adolescents had an unresolved and evolving relationship with their ethnicity and their language for two reasons: 1) they may never have had a chance to become literate in their first language; and 2) Citing Bigelow (2007, 2010, 2011, 2015), they were very keen to maintain their Somali speaking skills. The study revealed that the Somali students were in an advantageous position when compared to some other peer groups when it came to their Somali and English writing skills. This was because the English and Somali languages share the Roman alphabet, which meant that students could transfer between the two languages easily. The study suggested that being an immigrant can cause two things: 1) weak relationship between ethnicity and HL; and 2) a language shift.

In conclusion, whilst Arthur's (2010) study portrayed poverty as the main obstacle to HL development in Liverpool, Bigelow and King's (2015) study illustrated the nostalgia that young Somali pupils had for their HL and how highly they regarded it. However, Ganuza and Hedman (2015) explained that developing a HL is constrained by the prevailing mainstream system, even if a supporting policy is in place. Finally, Courtney's (2015) study showed that, despite not using the Somali heritage language as a medium of instruction, the Somali heritage students progressed academically faster than neighboUrhood schools with a lower rate of misconduct. It can be concluded from this study that where a school's management and the majority of pupils share the same cultural background, a desired outcome of academic attainment and a positive attitude towards learning may be observed.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This Chapter has discussed the importance of learning HL by reviewing major theoretical framework and reviewed major studies in the three areas: Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency theory (bilingual theory), parental involvement, and social capital theory. The reviewed literature highlighted the importance of HL use in the classroom and wider community for social advantage, academic attainment and identity maintenance.

Furthermore, this Chapter has explored the literature on parental involvement in their children's learning. Despite misunderstandings and misconceptions of 'parental involvement', particularly in the context of minority ethnic parents in Western countries, the literature appears to unequivocally agree on the positive outcome of such involvement. Kahin and Wallace (2017) warned schools that their parental involvement models should not be tokenistic but should ensure the academic achievement of the minority ethnic pupils, as well as the mainstream pupils.

The Somali studies Section of the Chapter examined the literature that involved Somali pupils learning their HL in the context of USA, Sweden and the UK. It identified a gap in the literature regarding Somali pupils and their parents learning their HL with the aim of: 1) positively impacting on pupils' mainstream literacy and, at same time: 2) empowering parents to support their children's learning at home by involving them in learning basic HL literacy. Thus, the research I undertook explored how to create an optimal learning condition by fostering an additive environment which would enable pupil participants to recognize their academic attainment potential by concurrently using their HL and the mainstream literacy language; and equipping their parents with the confidence to support their children's learning at home.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter consists of part A and part B. Part A focuses on the ethical considerations of the study, detailing the process used to gain voluntary informed consent from pupils (assent) and parents. Next, it explores the actions taken to safeguard the participants' privacy, discussing the ethical dilemmas that arose during the research and how they were addressed. Finally, the steps taken to express my gratitude to the pupils and parents who participated are explained. All of these actions were carried out to uphold the highest standards of research integrity and to manage the data in an ethical way which is necessary to guarantee the quality of the research (see Nichols-Casebolt, 2012).

Part B describes the methodological process of the study. I describe my positionality as a researcher in relation to the research participants, and how it oscillated because of living in two communities: the research community and the Somali community. As I share the same cultural and ethnic background as the participants, I was conscious of the potential for unconscious bias and aware of how that could affect my work. This was because I am a male who was working in a school whilst at the same time undertaking research with the aim of understanding the perspectives of pupils and their mothers who were developing their HL literacy. Part B will also focus on the actions taken to determine the research central question and three sub-questions, because the processes followed to do this was what distinguishes '…exceptional from mediocre research and the production of a trivial result' (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2013, p.1). This part also explores the complexity of establishing the reality of the research intervention and how my ontological and epistemological assumptions led to a choice of paradigm. It explains my decision to use a qualitative method approach, as the study aimed to explore the subtle nuances in participants' attitudes and behaviours when learning their HL (see Rubin and Babbie, 2009). The sampling strategy and the way the participants were accessed is elaborated. Furthermore, I explore case study as a type of research design (see Gorard, 2013) and, in Section 3.3.8, outline the reasons for choosing this design. This is followed by a description of the data collection methods used in my research and the approach taken to the data analysis process.

3.2 Part A

3.2.1 Ethical Considerations

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.85), ethics is concerned with the principle '… of *primum non nocere* (first of all, do no harm)'. As the research involved me interacting with primary school-age pupils and their parents, I strived to value and respect the dignity and freedom of the participants with the aim of fostering a good relationship with them. This sound relationship is understood to impact on the collection and interpretation of data according to (Grove, Gray and Burns, 2015).

Throughout my research, I adhered to British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011) guidelines, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC 1989) and the UK Data Protection Act (1998), because they provided a framework which enabled me to judge whether a '…behaviour …[is] acceptable …[or] unacceptable' (Rowson, 2006, p.19). The General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) came into force in May 2018, aiming to ensure that the privacy and personal data of citizens in the European Union are appropriately protected (Calder, 2016). Though this extra guidance emerged towards the end of the current study, I will explore how it impacted on my decisions about how to present data in a way that adhered to this new legislation.

To avoid any tension arising from my relationship with participants, consideration was given to how my own reflections helped me to manage my dual role as a learning support assistant and a researcher. Despite aiming to develop a rapport based on trust with participants, I used my experience as a long-time employee at the school under study to question whether I was becoming too close or too much of an 'insider'. This was to prevent my relationship with the participants becoming blurred into a friendship, rather than a professional-pupil type bond, which might have compromised the validity of the study (Mnyaka and Macleod, 2018).

As the study occurred in a school environment, I understood that the school's headteacher as the gatekeeper was pivotal (Tummons and Duckworth, 2013) because they had the power to controlling the access to school (Scott, 2002). This was because while my responsibility as a researcher in the school was only

temporary, the gatekeeper's responsibility was permanent, and they would have to live with any negative consequences that may arise from the research for a long time (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Thus, understanding the '…ethical obligation to fully inform the gatekeeper…' (Oliver, 2010, p.40) about my research prior to undertaking it, I had separate meetings with the school's inclusion manager, my line manager, and the head teacher. I hoped that the outcome of the meetings would be that I would be allowed to carry out my research project on the school premises because of two reasons: 1) due to my daily communication with my line manager, with whom I had developed a good rapport as we both have worked with pupils and parents, and could understand the research's benefit for them; and 2) I already had a good working relationship with the potential participants of the research.

I submitted an ethical application to the University of the West of England's (UWE) Research Ethics Committee. This application was approved on the condition that I would carefully consider the participants' wellbeing and take suitable steps to assure this. I reflect on some of those steps here.

As a trained safeguarding and child protection and first aid provider, I discussed the pupils' health needs with their class teacher. It was agreed that my research teaching sessions would take place when the teacher and the senior leadership team were present on the school premises. In regard to parents' wellbeing, I addressed any concerns they might have by explaining my availability for private discussions around the work. These actions aimed to minimise the ethical dilemmas that could arise during the study and to '…eliminate potential feelings of powerlessness and embarrassment' by the participants (Loo, 1982, p.124).

Conducting the research involved many power-relation challenges. For example, it was possible that I might affect participants through offering them rewards that were not offered to other pupils in the school. This would form a 'power base' which I might exercise over them (Harrison and Dye, 2008). This might lead to a response bais because their eagerness to provide accurate answers to my questions might influence by the power relations between us rather than their true feelings, beliefs and behaviours (Monette, Sullivan and DeJong, 2011). This could further potentially affect the accuracy of the interview data. To reduce any such response bias, I

attempted to avoid presenting the teaching of HL as something I would decide *when* and *what* to learn, but rather as something with mutal aspects that would be negotiated.

Additionally, study participants were deemed to value the learning of their HL and regard it as an aspect of life which they prioritised. Several national and international conventions cover the rights of children's participating in research. Articles 3 and 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989) assert that, in all cases, the child's best interest should be paramount. Thus, the process of continuing children's participation should be an iterative one of evaluating new issues when they arise (BERA, 2018). According to BERA (2011), the guidelines in Articles 3 and 12 of UNCRC 1989 can be extended to adults participating in research if they have vulnerability characteristics such as an asylum-seeker background, limitations in understanding academic research or the fact that English is not their first language. Since the participants in my research possessed these qualities, they could be regarded as vulnerable participants. This recognition encouraged me to treat my research participants not just '...as objects of the study…' – moving towards a more respectful and collaborative approach which valued '…equity in [a] research relationship…' (Aldridge, 2015, p.5).

The term 'vulnerability' can be defined as the characteristics and circumstances of participants within a study that make them susceptible to being adversely affected by the impact of the study (Sobiech, 2013, citing Cutter, 1996). Liamputtong (2007, p.43) explored an innovative ethical approach to protect vulnerable participants, claiming that the 'ethics-as-process' approach was devised by Paul Ramcharan and John Cutcliffe (2001) and encourages '…mutual participation and affirmation between …' (Liamputtong, ibid., p.43) the researcher and researched. This means striving to ensure participants' dignity, safety and wellbeing. One of the major vulnerabilities of the participants in my study related to language barriers, where English was the L2 of most parents, while English was the dominant language for the pupils. To address this, throughout my research, I attempted to communicate in Somali with parents and in English with pupils, to minimise their vulnerability or potential for discomfort.

To ensure operating within the principle of 'do no harm', I followed the recommended process for obtaining participants' voluntary informed consent, ensuring that it was '… ongoing and negotiated between …[me] and …. [the participants] throughout the research process' (Miller and Bell, 2012, p.61). This was based on: 1) how to be open to the participants; 2) how to communicate with them clearly about their right to withdrawal from the study at any time; 3) pupils' and parents' vulnerability; 4) how to respect their privacy (anonymity); and 5) how to express gratitude for their participation in the study. The voluntary informed consent was divided into two parts: pupils' assent, which was further divided into three stages; and parents' consent, which was also divided into three stages. I will outline these processes below.

3.2.1.1 Difference between Consent and Assent

I was aware of the importance of obtaining informed consent from participants once I had given them enough information about the study and the process of their participation in order for them to reach a decision on whether to take part or not: free from coercion (Salmons, 2018; BERA, 2011). However, there was a difference between the adults' and children's consents, relating to their ability to understand the process of giving consent.

Dockett and Perry (2011) have argued that, as there is a change in the perspective of children participating in research – from that of being a passive individual upon whom research is done, to that of an active agent – this change results in the need to refocus on the nature of children's participation in research. Thus, since the pupil participants of my research were too young to consent, I recognized the importance of gaining 'assent' from them instead, which takes into account a child's wishes when participating in research. Pyle and Danniels (2016) termed 'assent' as the process of obtaining consent to take part in research by individuals who have not reached the age of consenting. It can also be described as a strong attempt to convey an understanding of the research process to these individuals. Pupils may need simplified verbal and written forms of consent because of their limited understanding of the process, potentially due to their immaturity. Therefore, I focused on giving pupils an opportunity for discussion, using both verbal and written assents (Appendix

A) whilst also attempting to foster positive relationships with them to avert any ethical dilemma regarding coercion.

3.2.1.2 Pupils' Assent

During the data collection process, pupils' informed assent was needed at three different stages: first, at the beginning of the study; second, one month before the research concluded; and third, at the end of the study. The reason for these stages was to ensure, although as a school employee and I have known them before the research, I had obtained informed consent which began when the first contact was made with a '…prospective subject and continues throughout the course of the study' (Lomelino, 2015, p.149).

While I appreciated that my research participants might have '… invest[ed] potential value, benefit or hope [in the study] beyond its primary purpose…' (Durand and Chantler, 2014, p.144), I also understood that my responsibility involved managing their expectations in an ethical manner, by clarifying to them what could be achieved. This expectation could be described as a form of power relations between me, as the power holder, and the participants, as the research subjects. Balancing this power relation with pupils was difficult because I needed to accommodate their perspectives and ways of thinking which, in some ways, contradicted mine. This was because pupils were free to choose in this voluntary context, in contrast to the usual circumstances of my teaching role, where their choice to participate in learning or not was not as clearcut. My role could be confusing for the pupils to negotiate whether it was worthwhile to communicate with me and take part in my research or not. There are dichotomies relating to student empowerment and disempowerment, which define the '… two ends of a teacher-student power relationship continuum' (Wong, 2015, p.85; see also Arthur, McNess and Crossley, 2016). Acknowledging this point compelled me to regularly examine my subjectivity and shifting power position throughout the research period.

Stage 1

This stage was when pupils were informed about the study. Prior to the beginning of the research, I held a meeting with pupils in their classroom, where I explained what my research was about and its implications for them. I chose to do this in their classroom based on the view that they would feel empowered there, because it was a familiar environment, unlike in another classroom where they might have felt intimidated by another class teacher. I made it clear to them that, when conducting the research, my role as a researcher would be different from my everyday role in the class as a learning support assistant. I gave them an example of this: what I was doing as a researcher was like homework, and I was asking them to help me do my homework.

As I regarded the pupils to be active agents in their life, at the meeting, I used simplified verbal and written explanations in English, their dominant language, so that they could understand them (Appendix A). I also communicated to them the aim of the study, how I would handle the collected data confidentially, and their right to withdraw from the research at any time, in line with the Data Protection Act, 1998 (Appendix B). I am confident that this clarification gave them the opportunity to make an informed decision, without coercion, about whether or not to participate in the research. At the end of the meeting, they were given the opportunity to express any questions or concerns they might have. The next day, I approached them one by one and they gave their verbal assent to participate in the study.

Stage 2

A month before the research concluded, the need to collect extra data became apparent. While I knew that collecting extra data would be distracting, time-consuming and a lot of effort, I recognized that it was necessary and not a choice between '…what is nice to know and what … [I] need to know' (Polonsky and Waller, 2014, p.154). I had become convinced of the importance of understanding pupils' experiences and perceptions of the research – learning how to read and write in their HL – by conducting a semi-structured interview with each of them. I believed that

their account of learning their HL would offer me insights into understanding how they perceived their world (Sargeant and Harcourt, 2012).

Prior to conducting the semi-structured interviews with pupils, I submitted an application to amend the existing ethical approval to the UWE Research Ethics Committee. This application was submitted after receiving approval from the head teacher (the gatekeeper), pupils' parents and the pupils themselves, when I had given them the necessary additional information and consent forms (Appendices C1, C2, D1 and D2).

Stage 3

At the end of the study, in December 2016, the pupils asked me whether they could perform their newly-acquired Somali language skills at the University of the West of England (UWE). The request took me by surprise as it was outside the scope of the study. This presented a dilemma for me because: 1) I had no immediate response to their question; and 2) I did not want to promise them anything I was unable to do. Thus, I told them that I would see what I could do. Fortunately, preparations for an English as an Additional Language and Equality Conference to take place on 5th May 2017 was in process at the university and, after discussing their request with my supervisors, the pupils were invited to perform at the event. Prior to the visit to UWE, I asked if parents would allow their children to participate in the showcase, by giving them verbal information about the event in Somali and a written consent form in English. I also provided further details about the trip during one of the Somali learning sessions (Appendix E). After the pupils' performance, I conducted an interview with them about their experience of the visit (Appendix F).

3.2.1.3 Parents' Voluntary Informed Consent

Managing the power relations with the parents [women] was difficult because, in this situation, there could be a '…subtle tension between…[me] as [an] outsider… and participants as insiders (Yang, 2016, p.43). Additionally, within Somali culture, Somali men and women are separated in mixed public social events, which makes interactions between men and women strained (Liamputtong, 2010). Thus,

throughout my research, I strived to maintain the Somali culture standards by, for example, taking extra care to avoid physical contact when handing out the writing books and pencils. I also gave participants space when teaching them and ensured I did not sit next or close to them when conducting the interviws.

3.2.1.4 Process of Obtaining Consent

Prior to my first meeting with parents, I used an extra communication mode in addition to the verbal communication used for the earlier meeting. Parents were notified of the timing of the first session and reminded about subsequent sessions by sending text messages through the school's central system: an effort that was tailored to meet parents' needs (for tailored arrangements see Froonjian and Garnett, 2013).

The first meeting was only attended by mothers. As an insider in the Somali community, I have some understanding of why this should be so, which was beneficial when conducting culturally-sensitive research. To provide family income and break the poverty cycle, fathers worked during the day and were not able to attend the information session. This was also the case for the subsequent learning sessions. During the meeting, as using the English language would create a barrier, I spoke in Somali. I clearly stressed that my role in the study was different from that at the school, and that they had the right to withdraw from the study whenever they wanted without giving me any explanation. When I had finished speaking, I invited them to ask questions or express any concerns. This might have impacted on informed voluntary consent in at least two ways: because they respected me in my usual role at the school they would be unlikely to say no, and they could see that I was offering a benefit to their children as I was respected within the community. For their part, parents expressed their appreciation for the study and stated the importance of learning the HL themselves, for their children and for the relatives back home.

Next, I asked them which day would be suitable for them and their children to attend the sessions. For themselves, they agreed that their sessions should be held on Wednesday mornings, when they dropped off their children at school. In consultation

with me, we agreed that the children's sessions would be on Thursdays straight after school, as I was busy with after-school clubs on other weekdays. This was confirmed with the school's head teacher.

At the end of the meeting, I distributed all the information sheets and consent forms in both Somali and English languages to ensure clarity and understanding about the study, inviting them to take them home and sign them if they still wished to participate in the study. This was to give them the opportunity to reach informed consent which otherwise might have been difficult if I had asked them to sign the consent forms in front of me. Eight of the 13 KS2 Somali parents were present at the meeting. The other 5 parents received the information and the consent forms via their children at the end of the school day, as that was the normal school communication practice. They all signed the consent forms and the next day, before school began, they told me how eager they were to learn their HL.

Parents' informed consents were needed for three different stages. The first stage was at the beginning of the study. The second stage was when I needed to conduct the extra semi-structured interviews with pupils, and the third stage was at the end of my research period, when pupils asked if they could perform at the EAL and Equality Conference at UWE. These different stages for which consent was needed during the study indicate that the research consent process can be complex and far from static. The repeated request for consent gave my research participants the opportunity to consider all the new information that arose (as detailed by Helgesson and Eriksson, 2011).

3.2.1.5 Privacy

I understood that my participants' privacy included their right to decide when they wanted their data to be collected, where they wanted it to be collected and the extent to which they chose to expose their attitudes and behaviours. This was because privacy is one of the most commonly identified issues regarding the welfare and rights of research participants (Dixon, Singleton and Straits, 2016). I strived to respect my participants' privacy not only during the intervention sessions but also

outside of the research relationship: one of the main points to remember in carrying out research, according to (Young and Temple, 2014).

The US National Academies of Science, Engineering and Medicine (NASEM, 2017) explained that there are two ways in which an individual's privacy can be breached: security threats and inferential disclosure. The first involves data integrity problems (such as data loss). The latter, inferential disclosure, occurs when information that would reveal an individual's identity can be inferred from the data, with a high level of confidence (Hundepool et al., 2012). To avoid such inference from occuring during my research, I omitted some details from the data according to (GDPR, 2018). Breaches of privacy can also occur by giving or requesting individual unwanted information (see Sieber, 2009).

Thus, taking into account the explanations of privacy by Dixon, Singleton and Straits, 2016; Young and Temple, 2014 and privacy breach explanations by NASEM, 2017 and Sieber, 2009 – as a researcher, I recognized my participants' entitlement to privacy as a tenet for conducting sound research. Therefore, pupils and parents were given surnames using pseudonyms preceded by Mr, Miss, and Mrs for the boys, girls, and parents respectively. This was done to ensure the anonymity of participants, in line with recommendations in the Data Protection Act (1998). The numbers assigned to pupils and parents were known only to me. Even when doing session attendance registration, I ticked those present without calling out either their names or codes.

Similarly, I made the point about disclosure clear to pupils as well as parents, explaining that it may refer to a disclosure of any illegal behaviour or abuse to pupils that came to light during the research, which I would be obliged to report to the appropriate authorities (as stated by BERA, 2011). The implication here was of bringing to light something that had previously been hidden from me and could be a cause for concern (Boddy, 2014). If such an issue had arisen, I would have reported it to the school's designated safeguarding lead, despite the fact that this could have contradicted the principles of the informed consent process, in which I had assured pupils and parents of the confidentiality of their information. This was to adhere to standard practice as outlined by the Panel on Research on Child Abuse and Neglect

(1993). However, I knew that the best interests of pupils should be my primary consideration (BERA, 2018). During the initial information-giving meetings with pupils and parents, I communicated this with them in a sincere way and told them that it was a legal obilgation. The pupils and parents appeared to be content with the way their privacy would be managed during my research project.

3.2.1.6 Ethical Dilemma from Pupils

I found that, when conducting research, no matter how well the researcher has planned the research or whether participants have signed the consent forms to agree to participate in the study, unexpected ethical dilemmas in different forms can arise at any stage of the research. One issue that arose during my study was that pupil participants found it difficult to choose between continuing to participate in the research project or commit to other activities. An example of this was two participants who wanted to take part in an after-school football club run by the school. Another participant wanted to enrol in a judo club at community club after school hours. These activities clashed with the intervention slot. All three participants requested me to change the sessions from Thursday to another day so that they could continue to participate in the sessions. It was a difficult situation for me because that day had been agreed with parents and the school head teacher and, changing this for the three pupils could disadvantage the others. This showed that, during the research process, there can be different requests from participants that contest for '…power and seek to overcome the constraints imposed…' by the researcher's norms (Moutinho, 2016, p.20). Thus, I explained to them that it was impossible to change the scheduled time as the date of the sessions had been negotiated and agreed with parents and the head teacher. Nonetheless, I advised them that they could join the sessions at any time they wished.

Similarly, pupil participants leaving the study for an unspecified period of summer holiday in their native country caused an ethical dilemma for me in terms of planning. At the end of the 2015-2016 academic year, a participant left for Somalia and her mother did not let me know precisely when she would return to the UK. I found it challenging to plan sessions for this participant's return, because of two reasons. First, she might be staying in a HL-dominant environment (her native country) for

more than three months, which could result in her gaining better HL-speaking skills than the study participants. Second, as she was there for a family visit, her reading and writing skills might suffer from a lack of HL literacy learning. Thus, re-joining the study at a later stage could pose a problem for her in respect to coping with the literacy activities. In any case, I intended to keep the option open for her in terms of her choice of participation, however, she did not return to the UK. Salkind (2010) explained that, during research, participant drop-out can occur, which affects the sample size but can be compensated for by initially increasing the sample size. For my study, the sample was all the KS2 [Year XX] Somali-origin pupils, so there was no possibility of increasing the sample at the beginning.

Another unexpected ethical dilemma that arose was a sudden change of one pupil participant's attitude towards participating in the study, which happened without any warning signs and was undetected by myself or the other parents. A month before concluding the sessions, this participant approached me and informed me that he wished to stop participating in the study. I thanked him for communicating his decision and reiterated that his right to withdraw. Then, I attempted to understand the underlying causes of his withdrawal to find out whether there was any emotional or other harm which had caused his decision. His response made me feel both relieved and saddened at the same time: relieved, because of his ability to communicate to me that it was his personal wish and that there was nothing wrong with the sessions. I felt sad because he was popular among the participants for making jokes during the sessions. His withdrawal affected the sample size of the study and the integration of his data with the other remaining participants' data (Sargeant and Harcourt, 2012). Anyway, I had to respect his decision. This was a good example of the practices I had put in place to protect participants being successful. At that moment, the most crucial and pressing issue for me was ensuring his wellbeing.

The next day, before school began, I went to his sibling's classroom to meet his mother. I asked whether she was aware of her son's withdrawal decision. She confirmed that she was, and she further explained that, although she had strongly wished her child to continue learning his HL, she nevertheless respected his decision to stop participating. I assured her that it was his right to do so. Reflecting on the

above participant, although I knew that: 1) the child's decision was an informed one; 2) he had exercised his right to withdrawal from the study; and 3) he had communicated his decision confidently without displaying any uneasiness, I was still unable to pinpoint exactly what had led to his withdrawal. In any case, I believe I had done all I could: I had never seen him in a distressed mood and I constantly kept reminding participants of their right to withdrawal from the study at any point.

3.2.1.7 Ethical Dilemma from Parents

Like the pupils, I observed that ethical dilemmas could arise when conducting research with parents. There were times when I was unsure about identifying parents' intentions in relation to my dual role as someone who both supported their children in the classroom and was a researcher. For example, I once met Mrs Abdi, who had missed the first session, when she was dropping off her child at school. She began to apologise for not being able to attend the session, as she had been accompanying another daughter on a school trip. She then continued to assure me that she would attend the next session. This was a dilemma for me, and I wondered whether the apology and the reassurance related to the imbalanced power relationship between us, regarding my expert positionality, or whether it related to my role as a learning support assistant.

On another occasion, it was a swimming day for two KS2 classes. According to the school's health and safety procedure, some parents were requested to walk with the pupils, to ensure an adult-to-pupil ratio of 1:8. As soon as I saw Mrs Farah, who had missed a couple of sessions, she began to apologise for not attending the sessions. She promised that she would attend the next one and would also make up for what she had missed. I did not understand what she meant by 'make up'. Maybe she meant the missed lessons? As other parents were nearby, I acknowledged hearing what had she said by just saying 'OK', but did not continue the conversation, to avert '…potential feelings of powerlessness and embarrassment' (Loo, 1982 p.124) around the other parents. In the meantime, once outside the school building, I met PR07, who also apologised for not attending the last session. I did not know whether these apologies related to how parents perceived my dual role or to our culture, where '…respect of traditional way of life' (Moolla, 2014, p.33) is of importance.

However, throughout the study, I was mindful to regard parents as research partners, and not as objects of the research, as avocated by Wolfendale (2005). I believed that doing this strengthened my insider positionality, whilst also gaining parents' trust. I observed that the research participants' adherence to and valuing of the heritage culture had positively contributed to the process of recruiting them, however, it created a dilemma for me as well, as there were times when participants disclosed intimate and sensitive information to me. For instance, at the beginning of the parental sessions, a motivated mother approached me and confided in me a health issue that had been diagnosed by her General Practitioner (GP). She explained that she was unable to participate in the study due to her health deterioration. I felt sorry for her and wished her a speedy recovery from the illness, assuring her that she could join the study whenever she wished. Thus, undertaking my study contributed to my learning about how to maintain an appropriate professional distance, whilst also encouraging cultural belonging.

On another occasion, a participant who had missed a session explained the reason for her absence. The participant initiated the discussion and recounted that she had experienced a critical incident that had happened in Somalia. I was speechless and astonished by the fact that the person detailing this critical incident, that had happened thousands of miles away, was a female. Critical incidents can take many forms, such as death, illness or injury to close relatives and friends. Anyway, this was the inevitable and inescapable reality in which the Somali diaspora around the world have to live daily because, from time to time, '…immigrants experience some degree of loss, grief and mourning.' (Falicov, 2009, p.274). In 2008, my father passed away in America. It took me about two weeks to come to terms with the loss, even though I had travelled thousands of miles from the UK to Minneapolis and spent the last eight days of his life by his hospital bedside.

Reflecting on the personal information that different participants shared with me, noted above, it was difficult to precisely pinpoint whether their sharing the information with me could be attributed to a power relation that had evolved from my dual roles. This is because, although I shared an ethnicity and language with the participants, I sometimes felt subject to an '…"uneasy balance" between being both an insider and

an outsider', which at times caused me to reassess my personality, my intentions and '…also question the appropriateness of my study' (Dam and Lunn, 2014, p.106). However, due to the close working relationship I had had with these parents for many years, as a result of working in the school, I believe that parents were able to communicate sincerely with me. I honestly believed that participants trusted me, which could also be evidenced from how they daily sought out my opinion on confidential matters happening outside of school life. However, I also remained aware throughout the study that this insider status had the potential to contribute to a confirmation bias which could impact on the validity of the study.

3.2.1.8 Expressing Gratitude

I ensured that any incentives aimed at encouraging pupils to continue participating were commensurate with the good intentions from my side. At the end of each school term, I made a habit of offering snacks such as cakes, doughnuts or cupcakes to the pupils to enjoy. I do not believe that small acts of gratitude such as this caused problems in terms of creating bias when collecting data, as BERA (2011) warns against. Furthermore, due to concerns for health and safety and pupils' wellbeing, prior to them making their snack choice, I consulted with the school diet register to ensure that the participants were not allergic to any of the snacks they would consume. At the end of my data collection period, I sent a letter of thanks to all the parent participants in the study and expressed my sincere appreciation for their help, honesty, motivation and willingness to assist me with the study (Appendix G).

3.3 Part B
3.3.1 Methodological Process: Introduction

> …There is no 'best type' of research. Particular strategies are good or bad to the exact degree that they fit with the questions at hand.
>
> (O'Leary, 2010, p.7).

Methodology is a systematic way of probing and finding an answer to research problems (Devi, 2017). In this sense, I understood that I was taking a journey to find

a solution to my central research question. This journey involved me taking steps by using methods and techniques which I deemed appropriate for obtaining answers.

My study aimed to find an answer to the central research question of: *In what ways can the learning of reading, writing, and grammar skills of heritage Somali language be beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a primary school in England?*

It also investigated the three research sub-questions*:*

1. *What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning reading, writing and grammar of the Somali language?*
2. *Does learning the reading, writing and grammar of Somali language by the pupils and parents help them with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?*
3. ***How can the Somali pupils and their parents' reading and writing skills be maintained and developed?***

3.3.2 Complexity of Reality

Understanding and interpreting a phenomenon – how learning HL and its grammar structure positively impacts on pupils – was my priority. The methods I used to achieve this may be 'classified into three broad categories: experience, reasoning and research' (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011, p.3, citing Mouly, 1978). Understanding through experience, reasoning and research requires a system or a methodology which offers answers for the research questions. This methodology can be understood to be the '…theory of organization of an activity' (Novikov and Novikov, 2013, p.5). In this sense, my aim was to match my research questions to that of the field questions for collecting data (Clough and Nutbrown, 2007).

I am aware that there are many different ways to find answers to research questions. However, what is important is following '…a methodological path that is appropriate for the question[s]…' (O'Leary, 2014, p.106), and the context in which the study was carried out. It is also essential to follow a set of methods '… a procedure [and] a logic' (Blaikie, 2010, p.8). The combination of a methodological path and procedure

will show that the claim of knowledge has been reached objectively (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996) as far as possible, otherwise the quality of the data will suffer.

This logical procedure led me to a crucial question: where should my research process begin? Should I begin with observing the Somali pupils' academic attainment and then collect data that would offer an explanation for this (theory)? Or should I begin with 'theory… which is then tested by making observations…?' (Blaikie, 2007, p.43). In fact, I had been observing the underachievement of Somali pupils for many years so, in this case, the research began with a problem I understood through my professional practice. I could identify Somali pupils' academic levels by closely working with them, however, what I could not identify was the empirical reasoning for this. Neuman (2014, p.17) classified five different types of wisdom: 1) authorities, which relies on what an individual or groups with authority say the case is; 2) tradition: accepting that things should be dealt with the same way they were dealt with in the past; 3) common sense or reasoning: relying on what makes sense to a person; 4) media outlets: relying on TV, newspapers, the internet, magazines etc. and finally; 5) personal experience: what a person has experienced throughout their lifetime.

This is my Education Doctorate (EdD) thesis, and I was expected to work on it independently with limited support, in the form of supervisory assistance, from my supervisors. Considering Neuman's (2014) five options cited above, I decided that there was no one with authority that I could rely on, and who conducted this research previously. Relying on the wisdom of tradition was far from realistic, as I find myself in the UK and belong to a minority ethnic group. Thus, the idea of understanding the phenomenon of how learning HL literacy positively impacts on pupils was traditionally unfamiliar to me. Using my common sense to answer the central question would be problematic because my common sense may be based on misjudging, bias and misinformation or lack of information. Furthermore, in terms of personal experience, I had never encountered or experienced a situation where the impact of the Somali language on the second language's (English) literature had been dealt with. Finally, regarding media outlets, my study concerned pupils and parents of Somali heritage who shared a common culture that differed from the host society, the UK's,

mainstream culture, where mass media outlets may represent Somali culture inappropriately.

Therefore, all Neuman's types of wisdom appear unhelpful for providing a comprehensive answer to my central research question, since they all appear to lack structure, organisation and a systematic way of arriving conclusion. Thus, in contrast to the above wisdom, I adhered to social science research principles to guide my 'process… [which] is much more structured, organized and systematic' (Neuman, ibid., p.17) and also offers me the opportunity of critically engaging with the process and how I arrived at my conclusion .

3.3.2.1 Ontology and Epistemology

Based on the relationship between the 'ological triad' (a phrase borrowed from Holt and Goulding, 2017) referring to ontological, epistemological and methodological, this Section details how my ontological and epistemological beliefs led me to my choice of research paradigm. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.107) defined a paradigm as being '…basic belief systems based on ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions.' In this thesis, ontology is concerned with the reality of the importance of HL for the participants, whereas epistemology is concerned with the ways I came to know that reality similar to (Guba, and Lincoln, ibid; Clough and Nutbrown, 2007; Blaikie, 2007; O'Leary, 2010; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011; Ormston et al., 2014). Thus, my approach to my research was based on the assumptions that: 1) teaching HL could positively contribute to the participant pupils' academic achievements in English; and 2) learning their HL could empower participant parents with confidence to support their children's learning. These two points related to my ontology because I believed that learning HL was beneficial for both pupils and parents. I also believed that using methods such as surveys, semi-structured interviews, language assessments and a reflective diary would enable me to arrive at my research conclusion (epistemology).

3.3.2.2 Choice of Paradigm

I believed that combining an idealist ontology and constructionism epistemology would provide the best opportunity to answer my research questions. An idealist ontogy posits that social reality is made up of shared interpretations, and that social actors produce and reproduce it throughout their everyday lives; whilst constructionism epistemology assumes that access to any social world needs to be gained through the language of participants, and social reality should be discovered from the inside of a culture or community rather than from a researcher's potentially distorted concepts and theories (Blaikie and Priest, 2019). For the study, the view of the importance of HL literacy for participants can be made up of the interpretations of participants and me (idealist ontology); and accessing to the participants' view of the importance of HL literacy can only be through the language of participants that comes from within them rather than my distorted concepts and theories.

Philosophical and paradigmatic beliefs		How they link to the study
Ontological and epistemological assumptions	*Theory that underpins them*	
Ontology	Idealist	The importance of HL literacy for participants can be made up of the interpretation of participants and me.
Epistemology	Constructionism	Access to the participants' view of the importance of HL literacy can only be gained through the language of participants; and myself (my own interpretation of the semi-structured interviews and my reflective diary.
Approach	Case study (exploratory)	To implement the innovation of the teaching and learning of heritage language and explore how these can be implemented in practice, whilst documenting developing the heritage language in the context of ethnic minority Somali community.

Table 3.1 Justification for chosen research methodology

3.3.3 Qualitative Method as the Main Data Collection Approach

The study examined how developing the HL literacy skills of Somali pupils and their parents in an English primary school could have a positively impact on them. I decided to use pupils' and parents' pre- and post-assessment data to supplement the main qualitative data gathered to obtain a better understanding of the impact of HL literacy. I chose to use a qualitative approach because my study aimed to generate theory from analysing the impact of HL literacy on participants. This required me, as a researcher, to better understand the study participants, the place in which I was conducting the study and participants' culture, through engagement and immersing myself in the participants' process of HL literacy learning as advocted by O'Leary (2014). This also involved a subjective purpose – that was, to ascertain the meaning and interpretation of participants' behaviour and position myself – with a close, personal contact – as the insturument for recording observations (Morgan, 2014). Table 3.2 shows my rationale for choosing a qualitative approach.

Suitability of a qualitative approach	Linking to the study
It allows participants to create their own framework around issues.	The study retains how participants framed their own terms of reference rather than me pre-framing it (like when using the survey).
It is multi-faceted.	It allows developing deeper understanding of the participants' perception of HL literacy and their learning process of HL literacy rather than just relying on numbers such as quantitative data.
It needs resilience from the researcher.	As a researcher, I am prepared to embrace the reality, meaning and experience of participants, which can be messy and contradictory. This may be because of the participants' lack of experience with the research process.
It is flexible.	As the study was exploratory in nature, I was prepared to accommodate unanticipated ideas expressed by participants.
It provides a wider scope of knowledge and understanding.	I believed that the study may find things I had never imagined, which may be lost if I used a quantitative method.

Table 3.2 Rationale for choosing the qualitative approach, adapted from Braun and Clarke (2013).

3.3.4 Study Participants

The study aimed to outline the impact of teaching HL literacy upon pupils and their parents, to discover its impact on them and ascertain how to empower parents to support their children's schoolwork. The research questions and research sub-questions identified pupils and their parents to be of particular interest and relevant to the research aims. I adopted the method of purposive sampling to ensure the participants were '…relevant to the research questions…' (Bryman, 2016, p.408). As there were 13 Somali-origin pupils in the KS2 class, I chose them all (8 boys and 5 girls) and their parents,13 mothers, to be the sample for the study. However, only 7 parents constantly participated. The specific choice of KS2 pupils was based on the fact that, around the age of 7, 'conscious learning' (Shrum and Glisan, 2016, p.106) begins to be used by pupils learning a second language (L2).

All the participants were of Somali heritage and they were involved in the research a period of 6 months (from June 2015 to December 2016). All 7 parents and one pupil were born in Somalia, while the other 12 pupil participants were born in the UK. Table 3.3 illustrates the Overview of pupils' profile matched with their parents' profile

3.3.5 Accessing the Participants

The question of how I accessed the participants goes back to more than a decade earlier. I had been deployed to my current school by my employer at that time, the Ethnic Minority Achievement Service (EMAS), to provide ethnic minority learning support. The working relationship I developed with the Somali parents involved in this research project had evolved from that long journey.

Fostering a good working relationship with Somali parents might further have been facilitated by two factors: 1) in 2004, after settling into my job, I noticed that the Somali Year 6 pupils needed extra support with their maths if they were to participate in the SATs tests at the end of KS2. Thus, I volunteered to support the pupils before school hours. At the end of the academic year, my service was found useful by parents and the headteacher. 2) As an Ethnic Minority Achievement Service (EMAS) employee, my role involved interacting with Somali parents by interpreting and translating using the Somali language, attending confidential meetings organised by outside specialists such as speech and language therapists, special educational review teams, and educational psychologists. All of this enabled me to develop a good working relationship with both the old (whose younger children still attend the school) and new Somali parents.

3.3.6 Overview of pupils' profile matched with their parents' profile

Woods (1992, p.96) observed that profiles explain the '…contextually bound uniqueness of participants' stories…[as their themes] reveal the junctures of their shared experience.' This Section presents the profiles of the study participants in the hope that they will highlight what is common as well as uncommon in terms of HL literacy skills.

The survey data indicated that 12 out of 13 pupils were born in the UK and one pupil was born in Somalia. Four of the 13 pupils had visited their heritage country, whilst 9 out of 13 had not. Table 3.3 shows pupils' place of birth and their visits to heritage country, their gender, whether they have older siblings, their age at the beginning of the study and their heritage language literacy level at the beginning of the study matched with that of their parents. Table 3.4 illustrates pupils' language use at home before and after beginning school.

Name of Pupils and Parents	Gender	Older siblings	Age at the beginning of the study in Yeas and months	Age of arrival in the UK. Born in	Pupils who had visited Somalia	Participants' Somali Heritage Language literacy skills prior to the study (based on my observation)
Mr Ali	Boy	Yes	9.1	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None
Mrs Ali	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good.
Mr Farah	Boy	Yes	9.1	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Farah	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr. Ahmed	Boy	Yes	9.4	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words.

						Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs. Ahmed	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Miss Yasin	Girl	Yes	9.6	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Yasin	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Miss Duale	Girl	Yes	9.3	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Duale	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Miss Abdi	Girl	Yes	9.2	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None
Mrs Abdi	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr Gelle	Boy	Yes	9.4	Somalia (6 year)	Yes	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction

						Writing: None
Mrs Gelle	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Miss Said	Girl	Yes	9.2	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Said	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr Liban	Boy	Yes	9.9	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds Writing: None.
Mrs Liban	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Miss Odawa	Girl	Yes	9.1	England	Yes	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Odawa	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr Abdulla hi	Boy	Yes	9.6	England	Yes	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None. Reading: unknown.

Mrs Abdulla hi	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr Muallim	Boy	No	9.1	England	No	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Muallim	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.
Mr Ibrahim	Boy	Yes	9.5	England	Yes	Reading: decoding using English alphabet sounds. Speaking: limited to 2-3 words. Comprehension/listening able to follow basic instruction Writing: None.
Mrs Ibrahim	Female	N/A	N/A	Somalia	N/A	Reading: unknown. Comprehension: unknown. Listening: very good. Speaking: very good. Writing: unknown.

Table 3.3 Overview of pupils' profile matched with their parents' profile

	HL	English	HL and English	Out of a Total
Prior to school, parents communicated children with HL in	13	0	0	13
Older sibling communicated with children in English	0	12	0	13
After beginning school, parents communicated children with HL	6	0	7	13
After beginning school, parents communicated children with English	0	0	0	13
After beginning school, language children responded with when spoken to in HL	2	4	7	13

Table 3.4 Pupils' language use at home before and after beginning school.

3.3.7 My Positionality During the Research

Tummons and Duckworth (2013) argued that research should be done by an individual who has a shared cultural experience with participants, as that may provide an accurate representation of their view. This highlights the importance of the researcher-participant relationship for the research findings and offers a transparency about the researcher's identity (Swaminathan and Mulvihill, 2017). This phenomenon of identity exposure can be termed positionality.

Klenke (2016) conceptualises the term positionality as something that is far from being static, due to people's changing identities. During my research, I found myself in different positionality with pupils and parents that emanated from my roles in different contexts. This had an impact on the sessions I led as a teacher for both pupils and parents, as a peer for pupils to lessen the power relationship between me and them, and as a learner for pupils and parents (described below). I believe that this positionality enabled me to build a sound ethical working relationship with both

pupils and parents, while it may also have created a relaxed learning environment which enhanced their confidence in participating.

Blaikie asserted that, depending on the context, researchers hold one of three types of position in respect to their research participants, as an: 1) *outsider* or *insider*; *expert* or *learner*; and 3) *on*, *for* or *with* people (2007, pp.11-12). The *outsider* positionality involves a researcher stepping back from the phenomena which they are investigating to 'use methods that allow him [sic]… to observe the phenomena as an outsider' (Blaikie, ibid., p.11). On the other hand, taking an *insider* positionality, the researcher is often totally immersed in the situation and acts as a member of the participant group, with the view to gain a greater understanding of the context. Moreover, adopting an *expert* position involves a researcher challenging the problem under scrutiny using 'relevant existing knowledge in the form of concepts and theory…' (Blaikie, ibid., p.11). In contrast, the *learner* position is where a researcher disregards the existing knowledge and helps the research participants to explore how they conceptualize and view their social world.

The third position, '*on, for* or *with people*', can be further classified into three categories. The '*on people*' stance is where a researcher acts as the expert and participants are assumed to be the subjects of the research. In this case, data collection is primarily undertaken to satisfy the researcher's investigation, although the outcome might also be beneficial for participants (Blaikie, ibid., p.11). Unlike the '*on people*' position, in the '*for people*', stance, a researcher is viewed as the expert and assumes the position of a 'consultant' to co-construct the research process with the participants (Blaikie, ibid., p.12). Finally, the '*with people*' position involves the researcher acting as a facilitator whilst participants regard themselves as the appropriators of the research. As the above relationships between the researcher and the researched are not exhaustive, Blaikie (ibid, p.12), also considered there might be other positions a researcher could adopt, such as '*outsider/expert*' or '*insider/learner*' positions. Similarly, my positionality changed during the research, according to the situation or the context in which I found myself.

3.3.7.1 Changing Positionality

During the parents' sessions, I found myself acting as an *outsider/expert* and *insider/ learner*, which I believe helped me maximise the impacts of participants' responses in the sense of (Klenke, 2016). As I had devised all the learning materials and delivered the sessions, this potentially positioned me as an expert to the parents. This can also be seen to be linked to different ways of viewing a teacher in a classroom which can be a characteristic of some cultural groups. Wilson (2015, p.23; citing Jones, 1998) explained that '…Somalis respect teachers as professionals and assume education is their job…' This view from Somali society clearly positions the teacher as the *expert* and *outsider* position and the learners in a passive and subordinate position.

However, in some instances, I found myself acting as a learner, for two reasons: 1) Somali reading and writing are regarded as skills that most Somali heritage people living in the global diaspora still need to master, particularly people of a young age who were born after 1990 when the central Somali government had disintegrated, so they have never experienced a formal education; and 2) the fact that, since then, no unified attempts have been made – either through policy regulations or otherwise – to maintain and develop the already under-developed Somali language. Due to these facts, during the learning sessions, it was sometimes the case that parents knew a word that I did not know. This potentially impacted on and lessened the inequal power relation between me and parent participants: changing my positionality from that of an *expert* to that of a *learner*.

My ignorance of some Somali vocabulary can be attributed to the fact that I lived in the capital city of Somalia, Mogadishu. As a result of that, I became ignorant about the nomadic way of life, such as the names of trees and some objects that they use for their daily life. Consequently, this ignorance followed me to the UK and nearly embarrassed me in public when I had to accompany a Year 2 class from my school to a nearby library where a native British man had built a Somali nomad hut and diligently explained it and its household contents. I really felt embarrassed about my ignorance of my own cultural heritage and was thankful that he did not challenge me.

During that display, I was mesmerised by the skilfulness of the man and my mind raced to get answers for a lot of questions. Why was this man so interested in a culture that was not his? Did my ignorance of nomadic culture relate to my belief that I would never leave my home country one day? Or did it relate to a cultural bias between the urban and nomadic cultures, as I used to regard urban culture as being superior to that of nomads? Why did the Somali education system not appreciate nomadic life experiences as a form of cultural capital and include it in the mainstream curriculum? All these questions showed my inability to claim the *expert* position exclusively, as parents or non-native Somali individuals were sometimes in a better position than me when it came to knowing Somali culture and its vocabulary. Due to this reason, during the study, I agreed with parents that we would take the learning journey together and if we encountered something I did not know, we would deal with it together. Below, I will explore my positionality during the study, first with respect to pupils and then with parents.

3.3.7.2 Positionality with the Pupils

My positionality with the children can be characterised as an *expert/insider*. As I was both the teacher and the person imparting the knowledge, I found my position as that of an *expert*. However, as someone running a Somali after-school hours club, I realised that my positionality was an *insider*, as it avoided the '…power relations between students and … [me to be] … taken as a hierarchical given (Lynch and Lodge, 2002, p.139). This was because, otherwise, I would not have been able to collect data which represented what pupils actually did and thought in real life. I attempted to behave more as one of them in order to have a close relationship with them and create an environment free of tension due to power relations. From personal observation, I became aware that pupils' positionality in respect to me was influenced by many factors, such as: 1) the current and future environment in which they found themselves at the time; 2) how they addressed me when verbally interacting with me; 3) the way they gave me feedback during the sessions; and 4) how they challenged my authority. The following Section provides some examples of these positionalities.

3.3.7.3 Factors which Influenced Pupils' Positionality

3.3.7.3.1 Current and Future Environment

This type of positionality may be regarded as an *insider* position, and it surfaced on many occasions during my research: for instance, in its early stage when KS2 students were doing their basic morning skills (where every child was expected to respond to the feedback on their work from the previous day). During this session, two participants began to talk about going to Somalia in the summer holidays. This gave me an opportunity in the session to begin to talk about the importance of the HL for their upcoming travels. It also allowed me to utilise the value of my insider status with the participants for a more open dialogue, which could only be achieved by an *insider* who had a deep understanding of both the Somali culture and the HL. Furthermore, this insider positionality enabled me to maximise the '…contextualisation of research design, gain access to… a vulnerable and isolated sociocultural group…' (Kipnis and Broeckerhoff, 2016, p.137), and ultimately resulted in pupils interacting with me as one of their peers while talking about a future environment in which they would use the HL.

3.3.7.3.2 Method of Address

Another example of my *insider* status was how some pupils addressed me when interacting with me. During the school day, pupils addressed me as '*Mr*'. However, on one occasion while I was in the classroom, Miss Duale sitting behind me said, '*uncle, you know I challenged my mother whether she knew the Somali short and long vowels, and she said she did*'. She used the word '*uncle*' in a respectful manner, which Somali children are culturally expected to do when addressing adults. The use of a culturally sensitive word '*uncle*' in the middle of the school day may be regarded as a change of communication behaviour which could be attributed to the study in which Miss Duale was taking part. While this type of address could be assumed to be a respectful and friendly interaction, it could still be related to a power relation: an adult – child relationship, which could change my positionality to that of an *expert*.

3.3.7.3.3 Giving Feedback

I found that my positionality oscillated between that of an *expert* and an *insider* when pupils were either giving me feedback or making suggestions. In one instance, Miss Said told me how she enjoyed being a teacher to her older sibling at home. She had taught him what she had learned in the study sessions: how to sound out a Somali word. Miss Said used '*Mr*' to address me when recounting the interaction between herself and her sibling. The use of '*Mr*' showed that she regarded herself as subordinate to me.

In another instance, pupils were fighting for me to join their group when playing a board game at the end of one of the teaching sessions. This was another good example of how pupils regarded me as one of their peers. However, the reason that each group wanted me to join their group was probably because they knew that I possessed better HL skills than they did, so whichever group I joined would win. Although my positionality in this example can be regarded as that of an *insider*, I believe that it also showed a new positionality – that of *intellectual positionality* (explained in the concluding paragraph below) based on the power relations.

On another occasion, during the sessions, pupils were correcting my Somali spelling mistakes when reading the Somali texts I had prepared. In this case, my positionality can be termed as an *insider* because they possibly regarded me as one of their peers who did not mind being corrected. This correcting of a teacher's mistakes potentially related to the environment in which they lived (the UK). If these pupils were in Somalia, they would have been less likely to correct a teacher's work, for fear of being accused of being disrespectful, even though that would be detrimental to their critical thinking and learning. However, in the UK context, the pupils were equipped with an understanding of their right to be heard (in accordance with Article 12 of UNCRC 1989). Thus, in this case, I regarded my positionality as an *insider*, acknowledging though that if I had done this study in Somalia, my positionality would have been assumed to be an *expert*. This changing positionality shows that positionality is a context-dependent phenomenon.

3.3.7.3.4 Challenging Authority

There was a time when the participants challenged my authority as an *expert*, and I found my positionality to be that of an *insider*. During the semi-structured interviews, I had expected the pupils to use English for easy access and clarification purposes. However, one pupil defied my expectation and preferred to continue using the HL for the interview. This indicated that my authority in terms of a power relation could not be taken for granted, as any research participant '…can also have means and capacities to manipulate the process if he [sic] wanted' (Özerdem and Bowd, 2016, p.260). This embodies the notion that, in general during the research period, there was less of a hierarchical power relationship between the pupils and me because power is not necessarily something that someone has or does not have, but '… is situated and contextualized within a particular intersubjective relationship' (Glesne 2011, p.148). It also indicated that participation in my study was free from coercion and that my dual role had not introduced any 'explicit tensions' regarding the pupils choosing whether they wished to take part or not, which is a key recommendation of BERA (2018, p.13).

The participants' culturally-based approach to me as the researcher while there was a supposed power relation between us could also be termed an *insider* positionality. One morning, during school hours, a pupil approached me while I was collecting a group for an intervention session. He shook my hand and uttered the Islamic greeting '*Assalamu Aleikum*'. Then, in a desperate voice, he asked me whether I would be able to change the Somali sessions from a Thursday to a Wednesday. Unfortunately, my response was negative due to the arrangements made with the headteacher and parents. This pupil had completely detached himself from the reality that he was in a classroom where he was required to use English for communication. Rather, he chose to shake my hand with a greeting that he knew I would value very much. Consequently, he asked me a question that would, in that instance, make me think twice if I declined his request. Thus, I regard his carefully-calculated words and actions to influence my decision as interactions between two friends rather than between a pupil and an *expert/outsider*.

3.3.7.4 Positionality with Parents

My positionality with respect to the parent participants during the study can be viewed across the four phases of research : 1) the survey phase; 2) the assessment phase; 3) the reading/writing phases; and 4) the grammar phase. My positionality with respect to the parent participants during the study was fluid and agile. This means that I was contantly attempting to adapt to the situation that emerged in order to respond to each phase of the research.

3.3.7.4.1 The Survey Phase

During this phase, as I had compiled the questions, then clarified to parents how to answer them, and gave some the help they asked for when filling in the questionnaire, my positionality was that of an *expert*.

3.3.7.4.2 The Assessment Phases

During the pre- and post-assessment phases of reading, comprehension, listening, speaking and writing, I found my positionality to be an *outsider/expert*. This was because I approached participants armed with an already-compiled assessment tool. I then assessed them whilst stepping back and observing what was going on and how participants reacted to the assessments: the reality that was unfolding in front of me. This positionality can be linked to the power relationship where participants appeared to be subordinates and were following my line of instruction.

3.3.7.4.3 The Reading and Writing Phases

During these phases, because of the context, my positionality was also that of an *outsider/expert*. I had devised the materials to be covered during the learning sessions and directed the lessons. Therefore, the participants' role remained that of subjects of the study.

3.3.7.4.4 The Grammar Phase

During this phase, my positionality was one of an *insider/learner*, for two reasons: 1) the use of Somali grammar in writing is unfamiliar to almost all Somalis as stated previousely; 2) as I was familiar with the National Curriculum for England's KS1 (Years 1 and 2) and KS2 (Years 3, 4, 5 and 6) grammar topics, I was attempting to reconcile the grammatical structure of both the Somali and English languages. In this phase, I believe that the power relation between myself and the parents was reduced, because most of the time we were learning together – exchanging knowledge in contemporary Somali literacy.

In concluding this Section, the fluid nature of my research positionality around pupils enabled me to identify a type of positionality called *intellectual positionality*. This refers to position regarding two or more groups of pupil participants who were involved in an extra-curricular game activity and were each appealing for the researcher to join their group, with the view of winning the activity.

3.3.8 Research Design (Case Study)

As this study aims to understand a real-world case – the benefits of HL literacy learning which involved pupils and their parents in a contextualised situation, my school – I chose to employ a case study approach (for definitions of the case study method see Kumar, 2014; Lewis and Nichollas, 2014; and Bryman, 2016). This is because it offered me an '…insight into the events and situations prevalent in … [this] group…' (Kumar, 2014, p.155). Deciding on a case study approach was not because of a '…methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied' (Stake, 2005, p.443). Stake (2005) classified case studies into three groups: intrinsic, instrumental and collective, asserting that intrinsic case study involves understanding a particular case deeply; an instrumental case study aims to provide an understanding of another case; and a collective case study is undertaken when the aim is extending the instrumental case study to other cases.

Thus, since my study aimed to deeply understand the benefits of HL literacy learning: 1) for my own professional development; 2) to reinforce the rights of Somali-heritage pupils to learn their HL, which may advance their academic

attainment; and 3) to empower parents to equip them with confidence to support their children's learning, I chose the intrinsic case study approach.

Yin (2014, p.29) observed that five elements are important when conducting a case study: the research question (RQ), its proposition, its unit of analysis, its logic of linking the data to the proposition and the criteria for interpreting the findings. I understand that the central research question features both 'form' – the *what* question – and '*substance*' – the benefits of learning HL literacy skills *(*Yin, ibid., p.11). Thus, since I was not explaining the causal behaviour of my research participants or describing their behaviour by scrutinising or articulating them, my case study was of an exploratory nature. An exploratory case study was appropriate to explore and extensively examine the intervention of my research findings, as it accommodated my relativist perspective of assuming that multiple realities surrounded the understanding of the impact of the intervention (Yin, ibid).

Applying Yin's (ibid) above five elements to my research, the central RQ's proposition points to the benefits of learning HL by the participants and its unit of analysis was KS2 pupils and their parents of Somali heritage at my school. Choosing to study all the pupils in my school and their parents as a unit of analysis would have proven an unmanageable task due to time, planning and resources. It would have also drifted from my key area of research, which was Somali-heritage learning.

I am cognizant that there might be a concern regarding my ability to generalise this case study to all Somali pupils and parents in England's mainstream education. Nonetheless, my objective was not to generalise the study's findings, because the case was '…unique in some very important respects and therefore worthy of study' (Punch and Oancea, 2014, p.122). However, it is important to understand that the case is 'generalizable to theoretical prepositions and not populations or universe.' (Yin, 2014, p.20). Thus, my case study research can be generalised to the theory of understanding the impacts of HL literacy intervention upon the participants, but it is impossible to '…extrapolate probabilities (and) statistical generalizations' (Yin, ibid., p.21).

3.3.9 The Data Collection Method

As the nature of my research involved me with pupil and parent participants, and aimed to shed light on how learning HL literacy would impact upon the participants, I adopted a multi-method research design, to accumulate '…richer data and to achieve data validity, reliability, and triangulation' (Amandeep and Ghorbani, 2015, p.xxi). Table 3.5 shows the data collection process followed, by illustrating the activity (data collection method), who participated in it and the rationale for choosing the method.

No of activities, in chron- ological order	Activity and when conducted	Who was involved	Rationale for the activity
1	Parents' survey 15 June 2016 am.	All 13 parents	To understand the pupils' Somali language status.
2	Parents' pre- study semi-structured interviews 16 June 2016 am.	5 parents	To understand parents' perception of learning how to read and write the Somali language. Also, to understand their perception of learning grammar in the Somali and English language work done by their children and themselves.
3	Assessments of reading, comprehension, listening, speaking and writing of the Somali language Parents: 15 and 16 June 2016 am Pupils 16 and 17 June 2016 pm.	• All 13 pupils • 7 parents (All 7 parents were exempted from the speaking assessment)	To compare this with the same assessment conducted at the end of the research period, to evaluate the impact of the intervention.
4.	Intervention sessions. 45 minutes each over 15 weekly sessions Learning how to read, write, listen and speak in the Somali language, as well as grammar 22 June 2016 to 15 December 2016 (August excluded: summer holiday).	• All 13 pupils • All 7 parents	Exploring the impact of working with pupils and their parents in extra-curricular activities. To develop and maintain the Somali reading and writing and gauge its impact upon pupils and parents. To empower parents with confidence to support their children's learning at home.

5.	Playing a Somali board game 23 June 2016 to 8 December 2016 (August excluded: summer holiday) as a technique to generate positive feeling in the group.	• All 13 pupils played the game at the end of each session.	To make the learning fun and enjoyable.
6.	Semi-structured interviews. • With pupils: 14 & 15 December 2016 pm • With parents: 14 & 15 December 2016 am.	• 9 pupils • 7 parents (for parents this was post-interview).	• Pupils: to understand their experience of learning the Somali language. • Parents: to understand their experience of learning the Somali language and whether their perception had changed since the pre-study semi-structured interviews; also, whether they were confident to support their children's learning.
7.	Semi-structured interviews, 08.05.2017	• 12 pupils An unintended consequence of the study: pupils performed their learned Somali skills at a UWE conference.	• To understand the pupils' experience of performing at a conference.
8.	Reflective diary 7 June 2016 to 15 December 2016 (August excluded: summer holiday).	• (13 pupils at the start, 9 at the end) and 7 parents. Ongoing throughout the study period.	To capture the events unfolding in front of me and record my feelings about the participants.

Table 3.5 Summary of the data collection process.

After ethical permission had been granted by the University of the West of England's Research Committee, I arranged separate meetings where the head teacher (the gatekeeper), parents and pupils were informed of the study verbally as well as by a written method. In these meetings it was agreed that two separate intervention series should be planned. One series was for parents, this consisted of a weekly 45-

minute session over 15 weeks. The other session was for pupils and also consisted of weekly 45-minute sessions over 15 weeks. The parental sessions ran in the morning which was based on their availability when they had dropped off their children at school. The pupil sessions ran after school and was based on parents' availability to collect them at the end of the sessions.

I understand that, as the study involved different paradigms, approaches and different methods, it was important to ensure that all these aspects fitted together to increase the validity of my work. One way I attempted to address this was by getting the research questions absolutely clear and then 'align[ing] the design and methods with the research questions' (Punch and Oancea, 2014, p.316), as Table 3.6 illustrates.

Central Research Question: *In what ways can the learning of reading, writing and grammar skills of heritage Somali language be beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a primary school in England?*		
Research sub-questions	The process of splitting the central question into 3 areas	Date collection method/participants/data source
1) What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar?	A) How participants perceive learning their HL - Informed by literature review, see Section 2.4	Semi-structured interview **Parents** 1) What is your view on the attended Somali language sessions? Data from the semi-structured interviews **Pupils and Parents** 3) Do you think learning the Somali language is important for you? If yes, why/if no, why not? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary

		Parents 4) Do you think developing your child's first language literacy is important for them? If so, in what way? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary Post- semi-structured interviews
	Parental confidence in supporting their children's learning - Informed by literature review, see Section 2.5	**Parents** 2.Can you please comment on whether you think you are now able to support your child in their Somali literacy as well as their basic English grammar? Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary.
	Teaching sessions for pupils and parents - Informed by literature review Section 3.3.9.4 The aim was to explore what and how best the pupils and their parents could have been supported in learning their heritage language	Semi-structured Interviews **Pupils** 1. What was good about attending the Somali language sessions? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary 2. What was not so good about attending in the Somali language sessions? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary **Parents** (Post-interview) 1. What is your view on the attended Somali language sessions? Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from the assessments Data from my reflective diary

		Barriers to learning heritage language by parents	Post-semi-structured interviews
			Parents
		- Informed by literature review Section 2.5	1) What did you think of the Somali language sessions you attended?
			Data from the assessments
		To understand factors preventing parents to get involved in their children's learning	Data from the semi-structured interviews
			Date from my reflective diary.
2)	Does learning the reading, writing and grammar of Somali language by the pupils and parents help them with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?	B) Conceptual transfer across languages -Informed by literature review Sections 2.3 - 2.3.1.1 Through Cummins's threshold/language interdependence and transfer hypotheses the importance of heritage language for academic purpose is established.	Semi-structured interviews **Pupils** 4) Do you think learning the Somali language helped you clarify how English grammar works? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interviews Data from my reflective diary **Parents:** (Pre-interview) 2.Do you think developing your child's first language literacy was important for them? If so in what way? Data from the survey Data from the assessments Data from the semi-structured interview Data from my reflective diary

| 3) How can the Somali pupils and their parents' HL reading and writing skills be developed and maintained? | C)Teaching sessions for pupils and parents
- Informed by literature review Section 3.3.9.4

The aim was to explore what and how best the pupils and their parents could have been supported in learning their heritage language. | Semi-structured Interviews

Pupils
3. What was good about attending the Somali language sessions?
Data from the survey
Data from the assessments
Data from the semi-structured interviews
Data from my reflective diary

4. What was not so good about attending in the Somali language sessions?

Data from the survey
Data from the assessments
Data from the semi-structured interviews
Data from my reflective diary

Parents (Post-interview)
2. What is your view on the attended Somali language sessions?

Data from the semi-structured interviews
Data from the assessments
Data from my reflective diary. |
| | . To provide fun and meaningful activity
- Informed by literature review Section 3.3.9.4- D

The aim was that pupils learn unconsciously while playing the games. | **Pupils**
1) What was good about attending the Somali language sessions?

Data from the survey
Data from the semi-structured interviews
Data from the assessments
Data from my reflective diary. |

Table 3.6 Mapping data collection method to research questions.

3.3.9.1 Survey (Questionnaire)

Ruel, Wagner and Gillespie (2016) asserted that a survey form of research is a

highly effective method of measurement when conducting a social study. As the

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focus of a survey is to produce a numerical description about the language aptitude of pupil participants, the main way of collecting this information was by asking parents questions about pupils' language aptitudes and their answers constituted the data to be analysed according to (Fowler, 2014). This type of data can be termed as demographic data in which its sources can be identified as a sample survey because of its limited participants (Carmichael, 2016). According to Kanjee (2006, p.484), a questionnaire is a '…group of written questions used to gather information from respondents…' as used in this study. Further, Bahls (2012) explained that the information gathered should not be manipulated by the researcher. I conducted a survey with parents (Appendix H) about the language status of the pupils. The rationale behind this was to understand the levels of pupils' Somali language prior to their contact with the English language and how that contact had been mitigated by both the home and school environments.

The parental survey was the first phase of data collection and was only administered once. It was sent to parents via their children in usual after school communications, because I believed that parents were more likely to respond to matters communicated in ways they were familiar with. The questions were available in both Somali and English. While Saris and Gallhofer (2014) observed that the interviewer is absent during data collection methods, and that data is collected anonymously, this was contrary to my case, as some parents sought my help in filling in the questionnaire. They felt at ease asking for my assistance, which might not have been the case if I was from another community. As I was aiming to gather the '… factual or attitudinal information' (Kanjee, 2006, p.489) regarding pupils' language aptitude, I had prepared a multiple-choice questionnaire. I requested parents to choose which question best applied to them from eight questions in the questionnaire. The questions were about the parents' and pupils' birthplaces; the type of language used prior to and after beginning school; the language pupils responded to when spoken in Somali at home; and how often pupils visited the heritage country (Somalia).

3.3.9.2 Semi-Structured Interviews with Parents

As one of the study's aims was understanding the participants' different views regarding their experience of HL learning, the use of semi-structured interviews was

regarded as advantageous, as this method is '…valued for its accommodation to a range of research goals…' (Galletta, 2013, p.45). This accommodation ability included listening to '…different views expressed about the same topic… [as I] …progress[ed] from one interview to the next' (Currie, 2005, p.100). Thus, prior to the assessment phase, parents were interviewed once to give their view of attending the Somali sessions and it lasted up to 8 minutes for each parent. The questions asked in the Somali language were:

1. What is your view on attending Somali language sessions based on literacy?
2. Do you think developing your first language literacy is important for you? If so in what way?
3. Do you think developing your child's first language literacy is important for them? If so in what way?

The reason for this initial interview was to use as a benchmark against which to measure the one that was conducted at the end of the study I hoped that it would reveal whether their perceptions had changed, in terms of the importance of HL learning and their confidence to support their children's learning at home. At the end of research intervention, the parents were re-interviewed once which lasted up to 10 minutes for each parent. The following 4 questions were asked in the Somali language:

1. What is your view on the attended Somali language sessions?
2. Can you please comment on whether you think you are now able to support your child in their Somali literacy as well as their Basic English grammar?
3. Do you think developing your first language literacy was important for you in any other way? If so what?
4. Do you think developing your child's first language literacy was important for them? If so in what way?

The Somali language was used to conduct both interviews, for fluency of speaking and concept clarification (the role of HL in concept clarification see Hackert, 2012).

I used the school's studio room for both the initial and end interviews, as it was spacious and could accommodate group learning at one end while a one-to-one interview could be conducted at the other end. Parents were given a choice of time: in the morning after dropping off their children or in the afternoon just before collecting the children. My aim was to understand parents' perceptions of HL learning before beginning my Somali language sessions, and I managed to interview 5 out of the total 7 parents. At the end of intervention period, I interviewed all the 7 parents who had participated. Both the initial and end interviews took an average of 6 minutes for each parent and I used a tape recorder to record the interviews. Both interview times were limited due to my work commitments, as the interviews were taking place at my school. I then transcribed the parents' voices, because I wanted to '…emphasize the modes of communication and linguistic style' and capture details that were '…relevant to … [my] specific analysis' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p.180).

3.3.9.3 The Assessments

Johnson (2012) described an assessment as being a tool for understanding and enabling teachers to effectively evaluate the teaching process and how their pupils learned. Andrade, Huff, and Brooke (2012) noted that this could be realised by establishing what each pupil could do in respect of what was tested. Thus, in line with Jacqueline's (2011) observation, it was important that assessment was an ongoing process and an integral part of my research design.

To evaluate the impact of my intervention lessons, prior to beginning the teaching sessions I conducted assessments of participants' Somali reading, comprehension, listening, speaking (speaking only for pupils) and writing skills. Parents were exempted from the speaking assessment because, as a native language speaker and as part of my job description, I had been interacting with them verbally for some time, and had not found any issue regarding their speaking competence (Hudspath-Niemi and Conroy, 2013). This meant that parents were at the expected level of HL

speaking fluency in terms of communication between two Somali adults. Determining this level enabled me to reach the decision of excluding parents from speaking assessment.

In contrast to Jacqueline's (2011) assertion that assessment consists of two parts: one during the learning and the other after the learning for further planning, I tested pupils and their parents at the beginning and at the end of the study because I was interested in obtaining '…evidence of student[s] and their parents' learning… from [the] completed instructional events' (De Leeuw, 2016, p.179). All of the pupils' pre- and post- intervention assessments were conducted in the school music room as it was close to their classroom and provided a quiet environment.

3.3.9.3.1 Reading (Decoding) Assessment

The pupils and parents were asked (separately and on one-to-one-basis) to read 100 words from a Somali language non-fiction text called '*biyaha*' ('*water*'), which I had prepared (Appendix I), without any support from me. The pupils' reading assessment was conducted in the music room one afternoon when the class teacher had deemed it appropriate to do so. The parents' reading assessment was conducted in the studio room. As that room was big enough, other parents were busy examining and discussing a Somali textbook. This offered me an opportunity to assess parents individually. The reading assessment aimed to measure the accuracy of the words that were read. The choice of the text was based on two reasons: 1) its familiarity because of the daily use of water; and 2) the assumption that reading it would not present any cognitive demanding efforts. The rationale behind limiting the test to 100 words was adapted from the Ontario Ministry of Education and TFO (Appendix J) for its simplicity, by classifying participants' reading ability into three categories: easy, medium or hard. To accurately calculate a percentage, the 100 words were divided by the number of incorrectly-read words.

For example, if a reader mispronounced 2 of the 100 words, then 100/2 = 50. This means 1 out of 50 words was wrong. The ratio 1:50 given in the Table below is 98%, which means the percentage of accuracy. The Table has three columns: easy, medium and hard and in this case, 98% falls in the easy column, establishing that this reader found the text easy. If a reader was classified under the medium column,

it would be expected that they need to keep practising their reading at that level. However, if a reader fell under the hard column, the text was considered to be a challenge for them, so they would need to read at a level below that current level. This same text was repeated for the pupils and parents assessments at the end of this study.

Calculation	Text	Easy		Medium		Hard	
Total words (100)/incorrect 100/2= 50 Incorrect = 1: 50 1:50= 98% correct	The hundred words to be tested	1:200 1:100 1:50 1:35 1:25 1:20	99.5% 99% 98% 97% 95% 95%	1:17 1:14 1:12.5 1:11.5 1:10 1:20	94% 93% 92% 91% 90% 95%	1:9 1:8 1:7 1:6 1:5 1:4 1:3 1:2	89% 87.5% 85.5% 83% 80% 75% 66% 50%

Table 3.7 Reading Calculation: adopted from Ontario Ministry of Education and TFO (2019).

3.3.9.3.2 Comprehension Assessment

The same reading text as above was used to measure the pupils' and parents' Somali comprehension skills. Again, I negotiated an appropriate time for this with the class teacher. All 13 participant pupils conducted the comprehension assessment in the music room. They were asked to read the text independently and then answer four Somali language questions about it (Appendix K). Pupils who completed the test earlier were asked to remain seated and check their answers until the other pupils had finished. Parents performed the comprehension assessment in the studio room as a whole group.

3.3.9.3.3 Writing Assessment

After negotiating an appropriate time with the class teacher, all the pupils carried out the Somali writing assessment in the music room at the same time, while the parents'

assessment also occurred together, but in the studio room. Both groups were requested to write as much Somali language as they could for 15 minutes, about what they had done since waking up that morning (Appendix L). I regarded this topic to be simple and thought it would enable them to concentrate on writing to the best of their ability rather than searching for words which could be conceptually challenging.

3.3.9.3.4 Listening Assessment

All the pupils carried out the listening assessment in the music room at a time that had been agreed with the class teacher. The parents' assessment was also conducted at one time, but in the studio room.

I had compiled a Somali traditional tale in the HL that was one A4 page long. Each group was asked to listen to me read it out in the Somali language. I read it aloud slowly and then asked each participant to answer four multiple choice questions (Appendix M). Each question and its multiple answers were read twice, with a view of capturing pupils' and parents' true level of understanding of what was read.

3.3.9.3.5 Speaking Assessment

After negotiating an appropriate time with class teacher, all the pupils conducted the speaking assessment in the music room. They were assessed individually to avoid disruption or overhearing others. The speaking assessment was exclusively for pupils and they were asked to talk freely in the Somali language about what they had done since waking up that morning (see Appendix N). Their voices, pre- and post-intervention, were tape recorded and then transcribed, to see whether pupils could produce one grammatically correct Somali sentence before or after the study sessions.

3.3.9.4 Interventions

Berman and Graham (2018) noted that an educational intervention comprises meeting the needs of students at a given moment by providing specific opportunities. I designed my research interventions with the intention that they would promote

collaborative learning for participants because of their contextualised importance for developing their metacognition (as explained by Grau and Whitebread, 2012). Thus, to provide HL literacy learning opportunities for participants at my school, I delivered a total of 30 lessons – 15 for the pupils and 15 for the parents – which were designed to each build on the previous lesson and generate data for the research sub-questions. The pupils and parents' lesson plans are given in Appendices O and P, and the objective of each intervention session is shown in Appendix Q). I hoped that the lesson plans would detail the steps taken to deliver the lessons. I divided the intervention into three categories, the contents of which are detailed below: A – those enabling decoding and blending of words, B – those developing basic grammar skills and, C – fiction and non-fiction texts for reading and comprehension purposes.

A – I compiled instructions about the Somali alphabet, short vowels, long vowels, double consonants and consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) words, to serve as the stepping-stone for the sounding out and blending of words. A Somali language, Year 1-level textbook, '*Af Soomaali, Fasalka 1AAD*', which was produced by the Somali Ministry of Education was used for these activities. I received it from a friend who had visited Somalia; and I had chosen it because it contained basic blending words and visual displays (pictures).

B – The grammar part covered the topics of using capital letters, full stops, articles, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and active and passive sentence. I compiled these using personal experience of the grammar elements from England's KS1 and KS2 National Curriculum.

C – The non-fiction texts covered the topics of counting numbers from 0 to 1,000 in Somali, the banana tree, the Prophet Mohammed (Peace Be Upon Him- PBUH), the African continent and the Islamic calendar. The fiction texts comprised the stories of the clever policeman and the Noor. I compiled all of these myself from my personal observation of previously told stories. Table 3.8 shows an overview of the intervention lessons.

	Lessons (45 minutes each session for pupils and parents)														
Lesson Number	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15
Pupils' Lessons (Repeated- Yes / No)		Consonants and vowels Yes 4 times			Double Consonants No	Revision previous lessons	Double Consonants	Reading non-fiction story (Prophet Muhammed (PBUH)) - No	Common and proper nouns - No	Pronouns No	Adjectives No	Adverbs No	Counting in Somali up to 1000 + the banana tree -No	Reading non-fiction Story (African Continent)- No	Verbs No
Parents' Lessons (Repeated Yes / No)	Consonants and vowels Yes		No lesson due to ISLAMIC EID DAY	Repeated Yes	Double Consonants No	Common and Proper nouns Yes	Articles Yes	Pronouns Yes		Adjectives		Adverbs	Verbs	Revision	Active and passive sentences

Table 3.8 Overview of Intervention Lessons

D – Somali Language Board Game

Although not specifically in relation to HL learning, Gibbons (2002, p.16) stressed that, during the learning of an L2, there is a 'three-part exchange between teacher and student's language pattern: the Initiation, Response, and Feedback (IRF). Further, Gibbons (ibid., p.17) argued that, where the major aim is 'language development … [as an] alternative to IFR', a form of group work is needed. I believe that this group work can be generalised for those who are acquiring HL in an environmentally-dominant language; and are in the process of learning how to read and write their HL through an activity set outside the classroom. Tharp and Gallimore referred to activity settings as the '…contexts in which collaborative interaction, inter-

subjectivity, assisted performance and learning occur' (1988, p.72), which may promote the participants' motivation. Liu and Falk explained that the participants become '… satisfied by engaging in an activity without any additional reward…' (2014, p.349).

With the view of developing HL literacy, striving to transcend these IRF boundaries and obtain an answer to my research sub-question number 7: *How can I make the Somali sessions for pupils interesting?* I designed a board-game (see Appendix R): an A3-sized piece of paper containing twenty-four squares, with instructions in the Somali language written inside each square. Four groups comprising three pupils each could play the game using dice. The aim of the game was to develop pupils' competence in social interactions and human relationships, naming objects and animals, sounding out unfamiliar digraph letters from the Somali language and enhancing their knowledge of world geography.

3.3.9.5 Semi-Structured Interviews with Pupils

From the way pupils interacted verbally and supported each other during the Somali lessons, I became aware of their strong positive feelings about learning their HL. This made me want to capture the pupils' perceptions and experiences of learning HL and ascertain whether their knowledge of English grammar facilitated their learning of the HL grammar. Thus, I felt that it was essential to interview pupils about their HL learning experience, with the understanding that they were agents of their own lives and possessed the ability to contribute to my understanding of the world in which they lived (Sargeant and Harcourt, 2012).

The semi-structured interviews, participated in by 9 pupils, was conducted in the English language, as it was the pupils' dominant language so was considered to facilitate pupils' fluency in speaking and concept clarification. The interviews were conducted once and lasted up to 6 minutes for each pupil and was conducted individually after negotiating arrangements with the class teacher. It took place in the school's music room because of its quietness and vicinity to their classroom. The pupils' voices were tape-recorded and later transcribed by me. The interviews were

designed to generate answers for the study's research sub-questions 1, and 2 and the questions asked in the English language were:

1. What was good about attending the Somali language sessions?
2. What was not so good about attending in the Somali language sessions?
3. Do you think learning the Somali language is important for you? If yes, why/if no, why not?
4. Do you think learning Somali language helped you clarify how English grammar works?

3.3.9.6 Reflective Diary

Throughout the study, I maintained a reflective diary (see Appendices Appendix S and Appendix T) to offer me the opportunity to regularly update and keep, '…contemporaneous records… [so that it] …is not distorted by problems of recall' (Alaszewski, 2006, p.1). I also used it as a tool for data collection, which enabled me to access '…specific [and] recent information from participants…' (Snowden, 2015, p.36) that would otherwise have been difficult for me to recall. Consequently, as Bold (2012) noted, the advantage of a reflective diary included combining two narratives: the narratives that the researcher has been observing during their research which develop their understanding as a researcher; and the narratives that the researcher will be reporting later which increases the validity of their account of the events.

I noted down diary entries from June 2016 to December 2016 concerning what I had observed, how I perceived that and my thoughts and feelings prior to, during and after the research period. However, recording a full account of every event just after it had happened proved to be a challenge. For example, it was difficult to make observations just after the parental sessions because of my work or parental commitments. After the parents' sessions, I used to rush off to carry out my duties as a school employee, so made short bullet point notes to add to later on. Fortunately, school lunch breaks, bedtimes, early mornings or during my son's swimming sessions – when I used to sit in the spectator's area – provided me opportunities to note my thoughts down fully in my reflective diary. This flexibility for adding later reflection was an appropriate method because a reflective diary is not intended to

provide an 'in-depth analytical critique' (Browne, 2013, p.422), but records thoughts with the aim of reflecting on them at a later time.

3.3.9.7 Semi-Structured Interviews with Pupils: Unintended Consequences of the Study

As mentioned previously, at the end of the data collection phase, the pupils asked me to allow them to showcase the Somali skills they had learned at an event at the University of the West of England (UWE). This was because they were under the impression that they had gained a 'unique' new skill and they felt an internal imperative compelling them to recognize, and demonstrate, their real identity. This recognition resulted in them proudly wanting to show others their regained identity. This indicated that their self-esteem had grown as their HL learning developed, by conducting '…their own assessment, taking their reflections and evaluations seriously' (Buck and Inman, 1998, p.13).

After their performance at UWE, I negotiated with the Year 5 class teacher about the best time for me to interview the pupils. I wanted to understand their experience about performing in their HL, so interviewed each pupil separately for about three minutes each. (see Appendix F), in the quiet environment of the music room. Due to space limitations, I have not included those interviews in my data analysis.

3.3.10 Approach to the Data Analysis
3.3.10.1 Introduction

Data analysis is the method of deconstructing and reconstructing information in a way that is 'relevant and meaningful' (Harding, 2013, p.4). The process of qualitative data analysis includes data reduction, data display and formulating a conclusion (Silverman, 2017); so that the sources which determine the quality of research provide evidence of the account and the procedure by which it was produced (Roulston, 2010, citing the work of Freeman et al., 2007).

As outlined in Section 3.3.3, I used a qualitative method approach because I was interested in understanding the participants' subjective experiences of learning HL

literacy and what that experience had meant to them similar to (Gorvine et al., 2018). As Warner and Karner (2005) have explained, the first stage of formal analysis is to become familiar with the data by reading, rereading, contemplating and thinking about it. Wolenski (1989, p.74) used the term 'analytic description' to refer to understanding an object as a representative of certain type which then makes possible the '…formulation of general statements which are apodictically obvious, and hence necessary.'

This Section describes the process of data analysis in chronological order (except for the pupils' and parents' interview analysis processes, which were combined to avoid unnecessary repetition, as the process was the same). First, I will discuss my analysis of the parents' survey replies about their children's language aptitude, then discusss the parents' semi-structured interview responses prior to research intervention. This is followed by pupils' and parents' assessments of their ability in reading, writing, listening to and speaking HL, before exploring the pupils' semi-structured interview responses and then the parents' post-intervention interviews. Finally, the Year 5 teacher's end of academic year grammar assessment will be discussed.

3.3.10.2 Analysis of the Parents' Survey

The data from the parents' questionnaire was analysed once in detail and used as a starting point from which numerical data was extracted to enable me to further explore and contextualise the qualitative data as suggested by (Creswell, 1998). Bernhardt and Geise explained that the way survey questions are structured affects how they are analysed and '…how the results will be presented' (2013, p.75). The raw data from my survey questionnaire was divided into two groups: questions that concerned a 'place' where the parents and pupils had been born and whether pupils had visited their heritage country; and questions that concerned the 'language' that parents communicated with participant pupils in (see Table 3.3 and 3.4 Chapter 3). I believed that this would shed light on the pupils' language aptitude, as the study centred around the teaching of HL to them and then maintaining their HL abilities.

I believed that, by combining together the understanding of the pupils' HL language status, and the best way to support them with their HL literacy learning, I was constructing an understanding which was a prerequisite for answering my central research question as noted by (Pickard, 2013).

3.3.10.3 Approach to the Data Analysis of Pupils' and Parents' Interviews

I took the same approach to analysing the data from pupils' and parents' interviews, except that I had to translate the parents' pre- and post-intervention interviews into English as they had been conducted in the Somali language (see Appendix U, U1 and U2 for pupils' semi-structured interviews; Appendix V, V1 and V2 for parents' pre-intevention interviews and Appendix W, W1 and W2 for parents' post-intervention interviews). As the data analysis process involved me reading and interpreting raw textual data to develop themes '…through repeated examination and comparison' (Chandra and Shang, 2019, p.90), I used an inductive coding approach for pupils' and parents' interviews. This was because, as noted by Bernard (2000), it allowed my understanding to emerge from a close study of the transcript. To analyse pupils' and parents' semi-structured interviews, I used Clarke and Braun's (2017) thematic analysis method, due to what they claim are its methodological advantages, which include: 1) enabling the meaningful themes of an interview to be identified and interpreted without a commitment to any theory; 2) its compatibility with any research question, sample size, and data collection method; and 3) it provides the opportunity to access a systematic procedure for generating codes and themes from the current study. To conduct my thematic analysis, I adhered to Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps, which are: familiarizing oneself with the data, generating the initial codes (in my case verbal extracts), searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming the themes and, finally, producing the outcome or the report.

The interview data was analysed sentence by sentence and numbered. The numbers were assigned to facilitate corresponding extracts to where they arose in the extract column. Then, the generated extracts were entered in the relevant column under the English translation. Next, extracts from the interviews were grouped thematically. Further, the interview utterances were revisited and compared with the extracts.

Then, extracts were sorted and re-sorted to identify possible themes. Final themes were identified and added to the last column. When this process was completed, I reviewed and cross-checked the themes with the 'emerging' and 'main transcript' columns to define and name the themes. Three main themes emerged from pupils' interview: cognitive advantage, identity, communication; and four themes from parents' interviews of pre- and post-intervention interviews: cognitive advantage, identity, communication and strategies/barriers to maintain HL literacy. Figure 3.1 shows the analysis process whilst Table 3.9 illustrates the five phases of thematic analysis followed, that yielded these main four themes.

Pupils

Interview extracts were read line by line and annotated, generation of initial codes (Appendix U)

↓

The extracts were colour-coded to enable grouping for themes (Appendix U1)

↓

Sorting and re-sorting of codes (checking for different groupings to identify possible themes)

↓

Final themes reached and added to final column of the interview grid (Appendix U)

↓

The emerged three themes were grouped under two themes: Heritage Language as a right and Heritage Language as a resource (Appendix U2)

Parents (Pre and Post Interviews)

Interview extracts were translated into English version and entered into the fourth column of the interview grid (Appendice V,W)

↓

Interview extracts were read line by line and annotated (Appendice V, W)

↓

The extracts were s colour-coded to enable grouping for themes (Appendice V1, W1)

↓

Sorting and re-sorting of codes (checking for different groupings to identify possible themes)

↓

Final themes reached and added to final column of the interview grid (Appendice V, W)

↓

The emerged four themes were grouped under two themes: Heritage Language as a right and Heritage Language as a resource (Appendice V2, W2)

Figure 3.1 The analysis process

Phase	Task undertaken regarding pupils and parents' pre and post interviews	Only for parents' pre and post interviews extra step
1: Familiarisation with data	Reading and re-reading transcripts, noting down initial ideas.	The transcripts in the Somali language were translated into English
2: Generating initial codes	Interesting and distinct features are coded within each transcript.	
3: Searching for themes	The codes are collated into potential themes (i.e. a view mentioned by two or more participants), gathering all relevant data for each theme.	
4: Checking and reviewing themes	Themes are reviewed and refined to ensure that they relate back to the original transcripts.	
5: Defining and naming the themes	Themes are defined and named so that the full sense and importance of the theme is reflected.	

Table 3.9 illustrates the five phases of thematic analysis (based on Braun and Clarke, 2006)

3.3.10.4 Language Skills Assessments for Pupils and Parents

In this thesis, bar charts are used to show the pre- and post-assessments for reading, comprehension, listening, speaking and writing. The reason for using bar chart is because they are visually easy to understand, as noted by authors including Foster, Diamond and Jefferies (2015) and Bryman (2016). The two colours in the bar charts represent the differentiated data: blue for pre-assessment data and orange for the post-assessment data. Descriptive statistics were used for the

assessments as Holcomb (1998) explained that it is a way of organizing and summarizing data whether it comes from studies of population or samples. The impact of the intervention was measured by taking into account the changes in the tests. The changes can be, in general, interpreted for both pupils and parents that both data sets show relative improvement of language skills.

3.3.11 Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 covered methodology and consisted of two parts. Part A was concerned with the ethical processes of the study and Part B detailed the methodological steps taken to address the research questions. Below is the summary of each part.

Part A

Throughout the study, I was aiming to collect data from participants who were competent to provide information based on their informed consent. I ensured that their participation in the current study was on a voluntary basis. This was achieved by giving them full information about the process of the study and informing them of their right to withdraw from the study as noted by (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

Reflecting on the ethical issues that emerged from the study, I learned that:
- Both the pupils and parent participants, as vulnerable participants, shared a heritage culture with me, the researcher, this created a relaxed environment as a precursor to collecting representative data that would reflect participants' intentions.
- Pupils trusting, and sharing a heritage culture with me, the researcher empowered them to democratically express their opinion and feel able to exercise their right to withdraw from the study if they wished.
- Using face-to-face encounters and using the HL in parent-researcher interactions enabled the parents to engage in a meaningful discourse about the study.

- The support that I, as the researcher, received from the school headteacher was crucial for carefully planning and executing the study.

- Most of the parents could not be reached through a one-off communication mode only. Extra efforts were needed in order to ensure that parents regularly attended the sessions.

- The close relationship between participants from a concentrated Somali community neighbourhood positively affected the process of recruiting participants.

- A sound relationship based on cultural familiarity among parent participants led to a relaxed environment where support was provided and received without prejudice or ill-intentioned assumptions.

Part B

This part detailed the steps undertaken to understand the reality (ontology) and the tools I used to make sense of (epistemology) the impact of teaching HL literacy to 13 KS2 Somali-origin pupils and 7 of their parents in Bristol. The paradigm choice and methodological justification of the study were also discussed. The idealist ontology and constructionist epistemology enabled me to shed light on the reality that existed around the benefits of learning HL literacy by participants and how to interpret it. Furthermore, Section 3.3.10 detailed the process of data analysis used on the survey questionnaire, as well as pupils' and parents' interviews and language skills assessments. It should be noted that, as the focus of this study was on qualitative data, the analysis process is not exhaustive – because the qualitative research method is not 'routinized' and begs for various ways to think about the '… qualitative research and the creative approaches that can be used' (Suter, 2012, p.345).

In conclusion, the ethical process through which this study was navigated, together with the steps undertaken to collect the research data and analyse it were intended to maximise the validity of the processes of the study and to provide answers to the research sub-questions (see Section 3.3.1). Finally, this meticulous approach aimed to ensure that the answers found to my research sub-questions would lead to providing a plausible answer to the central research question: *In what ways can the*

learning of reading, writing and grammar skills of heritage Somali language be
beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a primary school in England?

The next Chapter will explore the presentation and data analysis of pupils' and
parents' data findings, which will then be examined against the research sub-
questions.

Chapter 4: Findings from Pupils' and Parents' Language Assessments Data
4.1 Introduction

This Chapter consists of two parts. The first part considers pupils' language profiles
summarised in (Section 3.3.6) and language assessments. The second part will
focus on parents' language assessments. I scrutinized my data using insights from
the bilingual theories discussed in Chapter 2. Consideration of these assessments
contribute toward answering the research sub-question 1, 3 *a*nd the central research
question: *In what ways can the learning of reading, writing and grammar skills of*
heritage Somali language be beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a
primary school in England?

4.1.0 Findings from the Survey

In terms of language, prior to beginning school, all the parents had communicated
with the pupils only in HL. However, this mode of communication had changed when
they started school: only 6 out of 13 parents continued to use HL when interacting
with their children, whereas 7 out of 13 communicated in both HL and English. This
meant that no child had received English-only input at home prior to beginning school.
After starting school, when parents asked pupils questions in HL, 2 out of the 13
children responded in HL, 4 responded in English and 7 used a combination of HL
and English. This seems remarkable, as it may indicate how pupils' HL use had
shifted so quickly.

The reason why 11 of the 13 pupils had responded either only in English or in a
combination of HL and English, apart from their exposure to English at school, could
be because of having older siblings whose HL had been influenced by the English at

school. Although Mr Ahmed had an older sibling who attended school, he experienced HL delay and began communicating in English after beginning school. Bell (2014) explained that different factors can be attributed to language shift such as low status as minority society may find themselves occupying low positions in the host society. Another factor emphasised Bell (2014) is unfavourable demographics which refers to how densely or scattered the immigrant minority society is and if they are scattered, they may find fewer opportunities to unite and develop their language. Additionally, institutional opposition is another factor that Bell (2014) attributed to language shift as almost always the host country employ the national language as the medium of instruction. Pupil participants of the study experience all these three factors: low status, unfavouate demographics and institutional opposition which can be attributed to pupils' language shift.

4.2 Findings from Pupils' Language assessments

In the pre- and post-study language assessments of reading, comprehension, listening, speaking and writing, the same questions were asked of both pupils and parents. Asking participants the same questions provided a way to evaluate their language skills progress before and after the research period as suggested by (Smith-Hubbard, 2017). The process of the assessment was detailed in Chapter 3, in Section 3.3.9.3. As no standardised tests to assess Somali language skills were available, I designed the assessment formats for both pupils and parents by using my personal experience. My findings show that pupils' language skills in reading, comprehension, listening and speaking improved somewhat possibly because of the intervention. However, their writing skills indicated a lack of progression. In all of the bar charts below, 0% indicate where no value was attained for an assessment. In the post-assessments, if participants did not participate in the assessment it is noted under the relevant Sections.

To save space on the bar charts, pupils' names were substituted by numbers: PU01= Mr Ali; PU02= Mr Farah; PU03= Mr Ahmed; PU04= Miss Yasin; PU05= Miss; Duale; PU06=   Miss Abdi; PU07= Mr Gelle; PU08= Miss Said; PU09= Mr Liban; PU10= Miss Odawa; PU11= Mr Abdullahi; PU12= Mr Muallim and PU13= Mr Ibrahim.

4.2.1 Somali Reading Assessments

All the pupils participated in a pre-reading assessment (Appendix I). However, only 9 participated in the post-assessment (see Section 3.2.1.6 for the reason). The data shows an improvement in pupils' reading skills. In the pre-reading assessment, 9 out of 13 pupils were assessed to be at or below the 40% level of Somali language decoding ability (outlined in Section 3.3.9.3.1), and only 4 of the 13 achieved a score higher than 70%. In the post-assessment, 9 out of 9 (all participants) achieved more than 60%. Mr Ahmed progressed the least, with a score of 40% in the pre-assessment and 70% in the post-assessment. Chart 4.1 shows the pupils' pre- and post-reading assessments data. Post assessment data from Miss Duale, Mr Liban, Miss Odawa and Mr Ibrahim are missing. Miss Duale left for Somalia and did not come back; Mr Liban and Miss Odawa were busy with outside school clubs and Mr Ibrahim withdrew from the study.
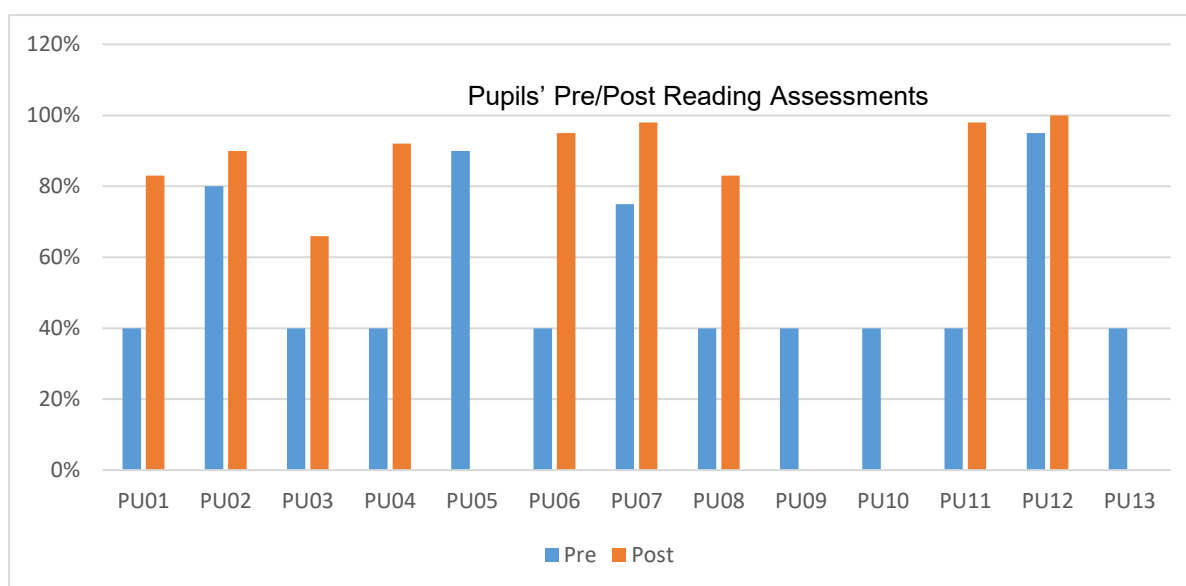
Chart 4.1: Pupils' pre- and post-reading assessment data

In the pre-study assessments, pupils seemed to be using their English decoding skills to read the text. However, in the Somali language, there are letters that deviate from the way the English alphabet letters are pronounced

Unlike parents, pupils' skills in HL literacy seem to be homogeneous. What pupils found difficult was how to sound out the consonants c, dh, x, and the long vowels: aa, ee, ii, oo, uu (From my reflective diary, 28.6.2016).

Moreover, there was a common alphabet letter that both pupils and parents found difficult to sound out in Somali

Like parents, pupils also found how to sound 'e' challenging as they sounded it out like the English 'ea'. It is difficult to understand why the pupils, who are to some extent, literate in English were not able to wiz through the Somali alphabet (From my reflective diary, 30.6.2016).

However, the inability of sounding out these letters can be attributed to the difference in the orthographic systems of the Somali and English languages. The Somali orthographic system can be regarded as a shallow orthography (grapheme-phoneme correspondence) system in contrast to the English which can be understood to be an opaque orthographic system. This difficulty in separating the two sounding systems for the alphabet letters that deviate from the English phonics system remained for a while. It may be because pupils were not at an advanced stage in developing phonological awareness.

In the session today, I went back to the Somali alphabet to secure pupils' alphabet knowledge. Still, the sounds 'dh, kh, (not featured in the English alphabet) and c, e, o, ee and oo (which sound different than English phonics) presented a challenge for pupils (From my reflective diary, 7.7.2016).

Also, the summer holiday seemed to have interrupted the HL literacy learning cycle and tested the pupils' developing confidence in HL literacy.

> *It was the first day of the academic year 2016-2017. In the morning, I met Mr. Abdullahi as he was about to go into his classroom. I asked him how his Somali alphabet sounding skills were to which he replied that he still found them hard. Again, how such a grapheme-phoneme-corresponding reading and writing system could constitute such a level of difficulty for a pupil who is literate in English was beyond my understanding. Is the process and pattern of learning English literacy at Reception Class age by Somali pupils the same as the process and pattern of learning HL literacy by Year 4 age Somali origin pupils? (From my reflective diary, 5.9.2016).*

However, it should not be assumed that the summer holiday only acted as a hiatus for HL literacy learning sessions. During the summer holiday, a competition was organized throughout Bristol City by the Bristol libraries where children who read six or more books were awarded medals. In addition, pupils could not access HL literacy in written format as they relied only on the papers that I printed out during each session.

Nonetheless, after almost four weeks after the summer holiday, all the pupils' (who participated in the post-assessment) reading skills relatively improved (Chart 4.1). Similarly, the comprehension skills for pupils (who participated in the post-assessment) also showed relative improvement (Chart 4.2)

> *Pupils read a narrative story about Prophet Muhammed (Peace Be Upon Him). All pupils except Miss Abdi volunteered to read. This shows that their reading skills and confidence in reading were developing (From my reflective diary, 29.9.2016).*

This excitement for reading could be because of the text type: the spiritual text which pupils valued as they considered it as part of their identity. Also, the experience that pupils accumulated daily from the environment also seemed to encourage pupils to apply their HL literacy learning.

> *Just before beginning the session as the pupils were sitting on the carpet for the lesson input, there came a bee buzzing in the classroom. Pupils, all at once, shouted 'shinni'- "a bee" and kept repeating the word emphasizing the 'nn' sound which when writing in Somali is written as double consonants (7.10.2016).*

4.2.2 Somali Comprehension Assessment

In the assessment carried out prior to the research period, the pre-assessment, only 4 out of 13 achieved 50% and above in Somali comprehension – three boys and one girl (Appendix K, the process is outlined in Section 3.3.9.3.2). In terms of girls, four out of the total 5 girls scored 0%, whereas the fifth girl scored 50%. This girl was the participant that withdrew after the pre-assessment. In the post-assessment, 4 out of 9 pupils achieved 50% or more, all of whom were boys. The girl who had achieved 50% in her pre-assessment left for Somalia and did not participate in the post-assessment. Two pupils, both boys, achieved 75% scores in both the pre- and post-assessments. However, Mr Farah, a boy who had scored 75% in his pre-assessment, only scored 50% in the post-assessment. The data also indicated that 7of the 9 pupils who participated in the post-assessment showed an improvement in their comprehension skills. Despite achieving less than 50%, Mr Ahmed demonstrated a great improvement, from 0% to 25%. In the pre-assessement, Chart 4.2 presents pupils' comprehension pre- and post-assessment data. From the chart it is evident that there is data missing: Mr Ali and Miss Yasin did not achieve any points in both the pre- and post-assessments. Mr Ahmed, Miss Abdi, Mr Gelle and Miss Said did not achieve any scores in the pre-assessment; and Miss Duale and Mr Liban did not participate in the post-assessment. Mr Liban achieved 25% in the pre-assessment but did not participate in the post-assessment. Miss Odawa and Mr

Ibrahim achieved 0% in the pre-assessment and did not participate in the post-assessments.
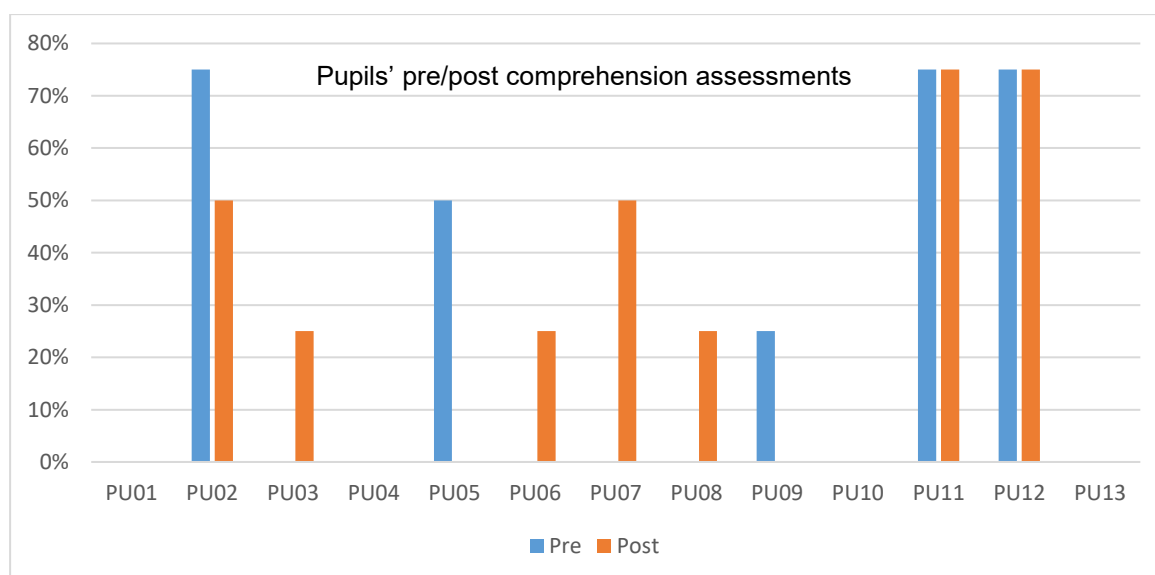
Chart 4.2: Pupils' comprehension pre- and post-assessment data.

4.2.3 Somali Listening Assessments

In the listening pre-assessment test, 8 out of 13 achieved more than 60% (Appendix N; the process is outlined in Section 3.3.9.3.4). Five of these were boys and 3 were girls. In the post-assessment, 2 boys and 1 girl achieved 100%. Mr Ahmed achieved 100% in both assessments. Mr Gelle, who was born in Somalia, scored 30% in the pre-assessment and 100% in the post-assessment. It is also worth noting that Mr Muallim, who had scored 70% in the pre-assessment, only scored 30% in the post-assessment. Of the 3 girls who participated in the post- assessment, Miss Yasin did not show any improvement in her listening skills and remained at 30% in both the pre- and post-assessments. Chart 4.3 shows pupils' listening pre- and post-assessment data. Some data are missing because Mr Ali achieved 0% in pre assessment; Miss Duale, Mr Liban, Miss Odawa did not participate in the post assessment and Mr Ibrahim withdrew from the study.

Pupils' pre/post listening assessments
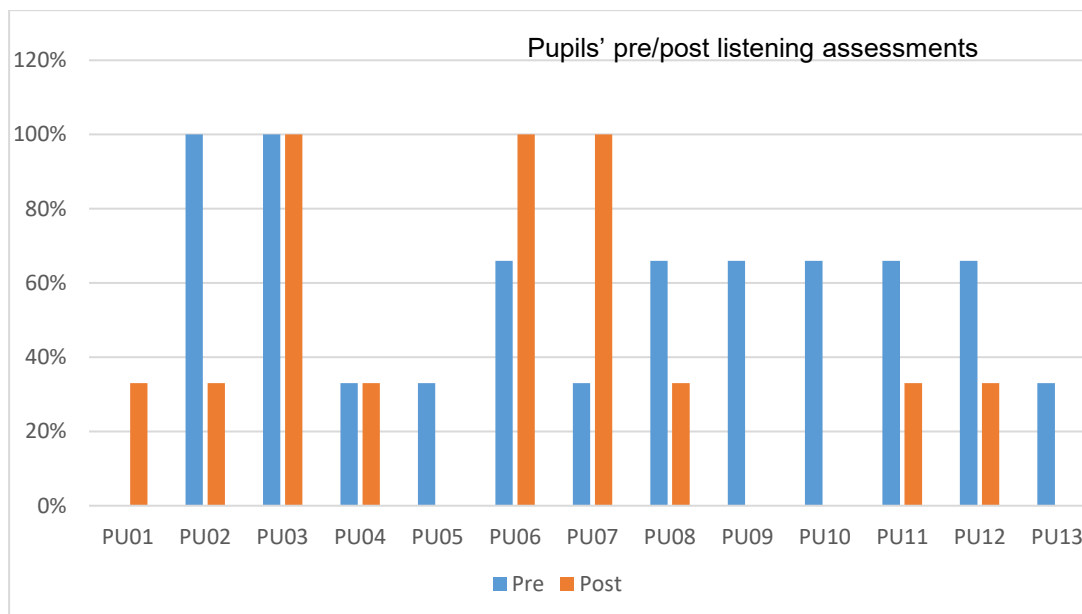
Chart 4.3 Pupils' listening pre- and post- assessment data.

To develop pupils' listening and speaking skills, I developed a Somali board game (Section 3.3.9.4 -D). Despite pupils' interaction during the Somali board game, only 3 out of the 9 pupils who participated in the post-assessment showed relative improvement in listening skills possibly because of the intervention (Chart 4.3). In terms of speaking, 5 out of the 9 pupils who participated in the post-assessment showed relative improvement in speaking skills (Chart 4.4). This may mean that, during the board game session, pupils were attempting to verbally engage with each other as they were eager to win the game.

> *The reason for the Somali board games, among others, was to develop pupils' HL speaking and listening skills. For example, on one box it was written 'what is sixty-four divided by 8?' They had to work out how to say 64, divided, and 8 in the Somali language. Another box demanded to tell how many continents are there in the world? (From my reflective diary, 7.7.2016).*

4.2.4 Somali Speaking Assessments

The majority of pupils showed improvement in their Somali speaking skills, possibly because of the research intervention. The speaking assessment was based on a scoring system whereby each grammatically correct sentence was considered equivalent to 10% (Appendix N; the process is outlined in Section 3.3.9.3.5). The data shows that no pupil scored 10% or more in the pre-assessment test and in the post assessment Mr. Ali, Mr. Ahmed, Miss Yasin and Mr. Gelle were not able to produce 1 grammaticall correct sentence (10%) in the post speaking assessment. Miss Duale, Mr. Liban and Miss Odawa did not participate in the post assessment and PU13-withdrew from the study). However, in the post-assessment test, 5 out of 9 pupils achieved 30% – 3 boys and 2 girls. Although Mr Gelle was born in Somalia, so was expected to perform better than other pupils in the speaking pre-assessment, he could not produce one grammatically correct HL sentence when compared to the 5 pupils who achieved 30% (the maximum score) and were born in the UK. Chart 4.4 depicts pupils' speaking pre- and post-assessment data.
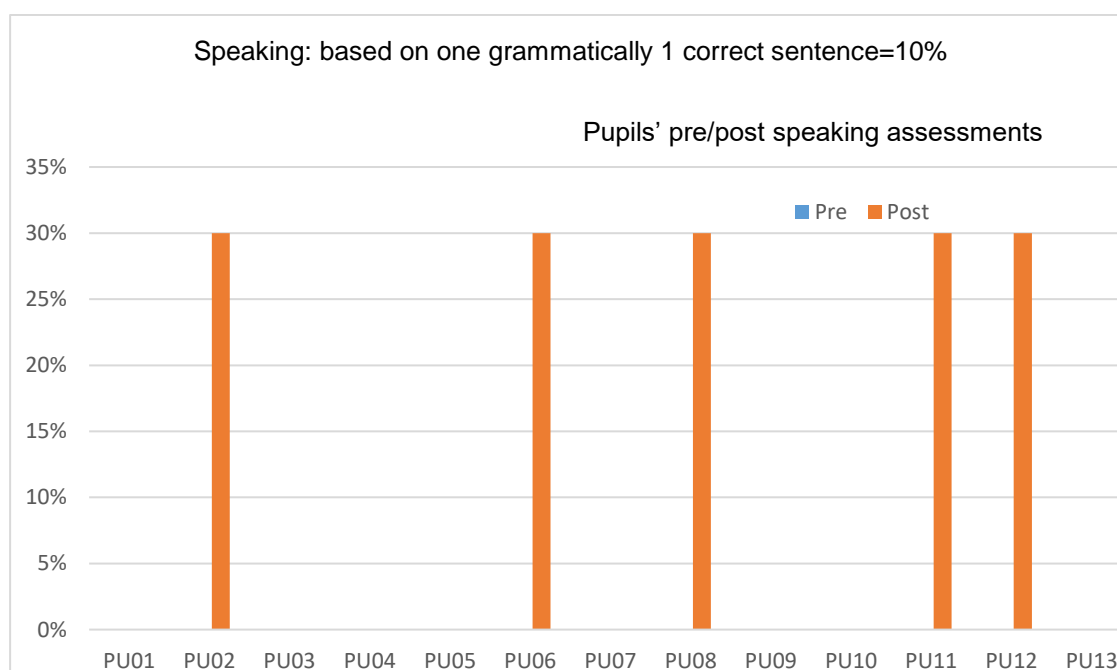
Chart 4.4 Pupils' speaking pre- and post-assessment data.

4.2.5 Somali Writing Assessments

The writing skill was an area where no one showed any improvement from the pre- to the post-assessments (Appendix L, the process is outlined in Section 3.3.9.3.3). This means that no pupil was able to write a single grammatically correct sentence in Somali. The inability can be attributed to many factors such as the difficulty in separating the two orthographic systems: Somali and English; and also recognizing when it is required to write the short and long vowels and the double consonants.

checking the spelling, pupils are still making mistakes in writing the Somali alphabet and long vowels despite my attempts to sound out the alphabets clearly and stretching the long vowels when dictating them for the pupils (From my reflective diary, 4.7.2016).

The difference in writing between the Somali and English alphabets was unclear for pupils. This was because, for example, sometimes, when they were required to write the 'f' letter, they used to write 'ph' (as English). Also, for the Somali long vowel 'uu' they wrote it as 'oo' (as English). For instance, the word 'termuus' (flask in English), pupils wrote it as 'termoos'. There was also confusion regarding the writing of the double consonant, long vowel, and letters in the Somali alphabet that their sounding differs from the English like (x). For example, when expected to write 'tarraq' (match in English) they wrote it as taraq (no double rr), 'tuffaax' (apple in English) they wrote it as 'tufah' (no double ff and no x but h- as English sound (From my reflective diary, 4.7.2016).
.

A particular strategy that I devised and seemed to help pupils with their spelling was the sequencing of the alphabet letters: with each letter's short and long vowel and using consonant vowel consonant (CVC) pattern.

After recapping the Somali alphabet and vowels (short and long), I demonstrated how to write one word with 'a' short vowel (jar-cut) and one with 'a' long vowel (jaar-neighbor). Then I asked them to listen to and write what I was dictating. I took care of using sequential consonant vowel consonant words (some making sense and some not making sense): bar, baar; ber, beer, bir, biir; bor, boor, buur; and covering all the Somali alphabet letters. This strategy worked and enabled them to clearly hear the sounds in a sequential way and most of the pupils got all the spellings correctly (From my reflective diary, 15.7.2016).

However, in the post-writing assessments, the pupils were unable to write one grammatically correct Somali sentence. This might have not been the case if I dictated what they were writing during the sessions. However, this could contradict the pre-assessment writing process and might render the writing assessment invalid.

4.2.6 Additional Findings from Pupils with Unique Characteristics *(Mr Ahmed, Mr Gelle and Mr Muallim)*

Three of the 13 pupil participants were observed closely as they possessed unique characteristics that are different from the other participants. This is because their cases were an '… essential source of …. "exemplary knowledge"…' (Freeman, 2016, p.35) a phrase I had seen and heard in the context of pupils' experiences but which I am using here in the context of my study. Mr Ahmed had experienced a HL delay and learned how to communicate in English after starting school. This was observed after I had a conversation with his mother and from working closely with him when he joined the Reception class. Mr Gelle was the only participant who was born in Somalia and joined in Year 1, when he arrived in the UK. Mr Muallim was the only participant who had no older sibling.

It was interesting to observe these pupils' HL learning performance at the end of the research period. It was not easy for me to anticipate

Mr Ahmed's 's performance as it was the first time I had encountered an individual with HL delay, who had learned L2 as his first language at school and was now learning HL literacy. Also, it was difficult to pre-determine which language skill or skills he would find more or less challenging: the productive: speaking and writing, or the receptive: listening and reading. In the case of Mr Gelle, it was assumed that speaking and listening to Somali language would be less challenging for him as he had arrived in the UK at the stage of Year 1. Similarly, Mr Muallim was predicted to perform well in the speaking and listening assessments because of the HL input he had received both prior to beginning school and after that.

Mr Ahmed's data shows that his receptive Somali skills: reading and listening, 65% and 100% respectively, were relatively sound. It could be that, if he had been allowed to read silently, he might have performed even better, since reading aloud well can be achieved through training and lots of practice (Sides, 1999). However, during the reading assessments, I needed to hear pupils reading aloud to assess their reading. Moreover, reading aloud has been found to be an important factor in developing young children's literacy levels (Ledger and Merga, 2018). However, Mr Ahmed's productive skills: speaking and writing at 0% and 0% respectively, were less satisfactory. Table 4.3 shows Mr Ahmed's language scores compared to the maximum scored by other pupils. Mr Gelle performed well in receptive skills: reading and listening, 98% and 100% respectively. However, in both the speaking and writing, productive language assessments, he scored 0%. Table 4.4 depict Mr Gelle's language scores compared to the maximum scored. Mr Muallim's data tells a rather surprising story in terms of his HL speaking skills. He scored 100% and 30% respectively in reading and listening, the receptive language skills, but both his productive language skills: 30% speaking and 0% writing. This was interesting because he was the only pupil whose HL input could be considered as undiluted – in other words, he was the only child of a first-generation immigrant, who had enjoyed an effective HL input prior to and after beginning school. Table 4.5 shows Mr Muallim's language scores compared to the maximum scored.

Pupil	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		Speaking		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mr Ahmed	65%	100%	25%	75%	100%	100%	0%	30%	0%	0%

Table 4.1 Mr Ahmed's language scores compared to the maximum scored.

Pupil	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		Speaking		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mr Gelle	98%	100%	50%	75%	100%	100%	0%	30%	0%	0%

Table 4.2 Mr Gelle's language scores compared to the maximum scored.

Pupil	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		speaking		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others	achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mr Muallim	100%	100%	75%	75%	30%	100%	30%	30%	0%	0%

Table 4.3 Mr Muallim's language scores compared to the maximum scored.

The data from the above three Tables indicate that HL literacy learning affected the participants with unique characteristics differently to the rest of the pupils when re-learning HL literacy. According to the data, the late-talking participant and the participant who was born in the heritage country both found the comprehension and speaking challenging. The participant with no older sibling found listening challenging.

4.2.7 Findings from the Year 5 Grammar Test

To explore of the possibility of how pupils transferred the HL grammar they had learned to their everyday classroom grammar in English, I cross-checked using an end of Year 5 grammar test. The topics covered during the Somali intervention sessions were pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and determiners. During the cross-

checking, the focus was to see how pupils performed on these topics in the English grammar test (see Table 4.7). As one participant had left for Somalia and another had withdrawn from my research (see Section 3.2.1.6), 11 out of the 13 pupils' data were examined.

Ten of these 11 pupils correctly answered the questions about pronouns, while 7 of them got the questions about adjectives correct. All of the pupils correctly answered the questions about adverbs and determiners. Overall, pupils performed reasonably well in this grammar assessment, obtaining an average 27 points out of 49. Table 4.7 shows the results of the end of Year 5 English grammar test. The sign √ means the participant got the answer right; the sign *X* means that the participants got the answer wrong, and a blank space means that the participant did not attempt to answer the question. Although it is a stretch to claim for certain that participants transferred the topics they had learnt in the intervention sessions into the English grammar test, they scored an average of 27 out of 49.

	Pronoun	Adjective	Verb	Adverb	Passive /active	Determined	Total
Mr Abdullah	✓		✓	✓	Not included in the test	✓	30/49
Mr Ali	X		X	✓	Not included in the test	✓	16/49
Mr Ibrahim	Decided to stop participating the study						
Mr Liban	✓		✓	✓	Not included in the test	✓	21/49

Name					Not included in the test		Score
Mr Farah	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	39/49
Miss Abdi	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	37/49
Mr Muallim	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	36/49
Miss Said	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	34/49
Mr Ahmed	✔	✔			Not included in the test	✔	26/49
Miss Odawa	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	19/49
Mr Gelle	✔	✔	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	22/49
Miss Yasin	✔	X	✔	✔	Not included in the test	✔	15/49

Table 4.4 End of Year 5 English grammar test.

Although the average result of the English grammar Year 5 test shows an avage higher than half of the total marks, 49 points, it is premature to claim that the results were achieved solely because of the intervention. This is because I understand that: 1) pupils are provided with English spelling and grammar (SPAG) activities every day; and 2) pupils' daily literacy lessons also cover activities that include pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and determiners. Table 4.8 gives an overview of the methods and data findings of my research interventions, including the end of Year 5 grammar assessment.

Method	Findings
Survey	• Pupils first learned HL prior to school. • Pupils' HL is weakened after beginning school. • 7 out of the 13 pupils with older siblings only used English at home after beginning school.
Language skills assessment	• Reading improved (possibly because of the intervention) when compared to the pre-assessment.
	Comprehension skills improved (possibly because of the intervention) when compared to the pre-assessment.
	• Listening skills did not improve when compared to pre-assessment test.
	Speaking skills improved (possibly because of the intervention) when compared to the pre-assessment.
	Writing: no improvement was observed when compared to the pre-assessment.
Semi-structured interviews	• HL is important for identity. • HL is important for cognitive advantage.

	- HL is important for communication. - Strategies to maintain HL literacy. - Barriers to HL literacy.
End of Year 5 grammar assessment	Overall pupils performed reasonably well, with an average 27points out of 49. This was discussed with the class teacher, who explained that the research participants showed a greater interest and awareness in grammar by sometimes explaining how the English sentence structure changed when compared to Somali sentence structure.

Table 4.5: Summary of language assessment findings and the end of Year 5 grammar assessment.

4.3 Findings from Parents' Language assessments

The parents' assessment processes were detailed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.9.3). It is important to note that improvements to parents' language skills could not only be attributed to the research intervention, as there could be other factors that influenced their improvement. Moreover, only 7 of the 13 parents who had consented to take part at the beginning actually participated for the duration of the research period. Parents' reading, comprehension and listening data is presented as bar charts below to make the data visually easy to understand (Foster, Diamond and Jefferies, 2015; Bryman, 2016). The writing assessments will be presented as a Table because I found condensing both pre- and post-assessment data to be a challenge, as parents

produced different words in each of the 15 minutes during both assessments.
To save space on the bar charts, parents' names were substituted by numbers: PR01= Mrs Ali; PR02= Mrs Farah; PR03= Mrs Ahmed; PR04= Mrs Yasin; PR05= Mrs Duale; PR06= Mrs Abdi and PR07= Mrs Gelle.

4.3.1 Somali Reading Assessments

The parents' reading assessments showed that one parent scored 40% in the pre-intervention assessment, 4 parents scored 100% on both assessments and one parent scored 98% and one scored 95% in the pre-assessment. However, in the post-intervention assessment, all 6 parents scored 100% and one 98%. Mrs Yasin, Mrs Said, Mrs Liban, Mrs Odawa, Mrs Abdullahi and Mrs Ibrahim did not participate in both the pre and post assessments. Both assessments indicated that most parents' ability to decode and blend the Somali alphabet was relatively adept. Mrs Gelle's improvement from 40% in the pre-assessment to 98% in the post-assessment was important because Mrs Gelle had moved to the UK later than the other parents. Thus, Mrs Gelle had had less opportunity to learn both HL in Somalia and English literacy in the UK than the other participant parents. As the other parents had established themselves in the UK before her, they had more of an opportunity to access adult English language courses, which might have positively contributed to their decoding skills. Chart 4.5 shows parents' reading pre- and post-assessment data.
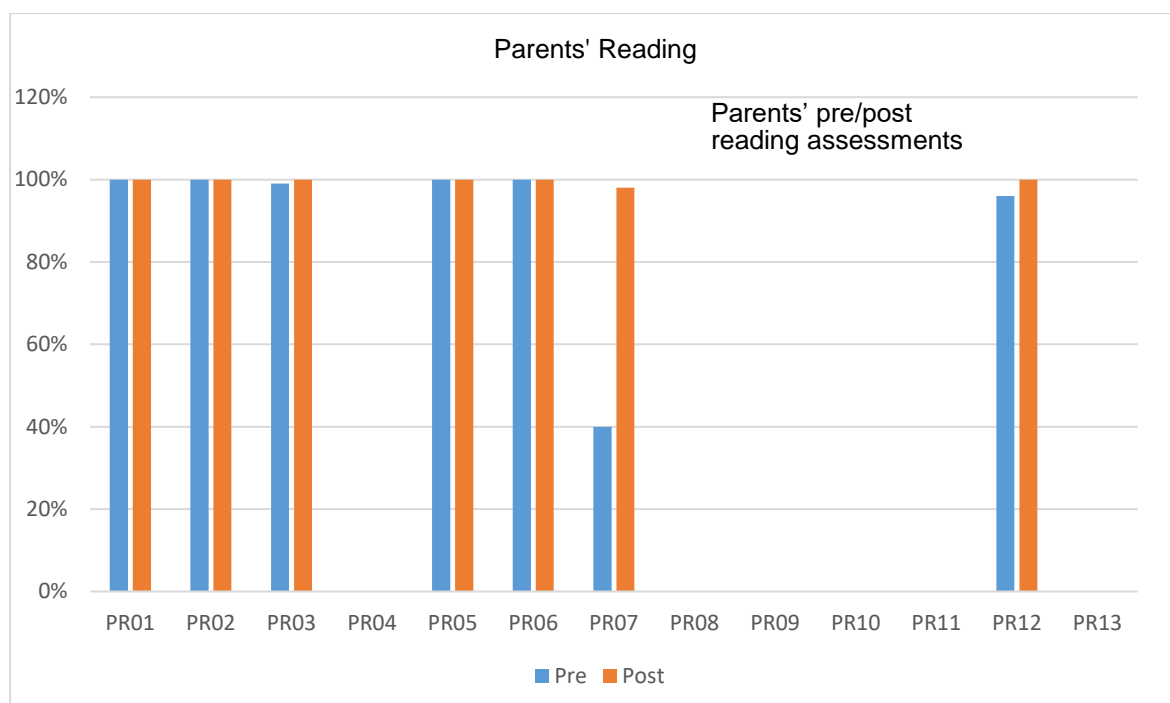
Chart 4.5: Parents' reading pre- and post-assessments data.

Although the parent participants' pre-study Somali decoding skills were good as shown (Chart 4.5), they seemed to be using the English phonics system due to the possibility that the English reading was, for most of them, their recent experience. Since coming to the UK, they have joined English courses. Thus, English phonics seemed to influence their HL reading skills. Evidence of this may be the fact that parents were unaware of how 'e' was pronounced by one of their colleagues

> *During the session, a parent, Mrs. Abdi, pronounced 'e' as the English 'ea'. I was the only one who noticed and provided feedback (From my reflective diary, 29.6.2016).*

In terms of comprehension, parents' decoding skills and the comprehension text (Appendices I and K- about the water) which related to their daily experience can be assumed to contribute, to some extent, to their achievements in the pre and post comprehension assessments (Chart 4.6).

4.3.2 Somali Comprehension Assessments

In the pre-intervention assessment, 4 parents achieved 100% and the other three scored 75%, 50% and 25%. In the post-assessment, 5 parents achieved 100% and 2 achieved 75%. Mrs Yasin (PU04), Mrs Said (PU08), Mrs Liban (PU09), Mrs Odawa (PU10), Mrs Abdullahi PU11) and Mrs Ibrahim (PU13) did not participate in both the pre and post assessments. What probably positively contributed to the easy comprehension might have been the embedded reading context. The topic was '*water*' and I chose this to minimise the conceptual burden on parents' cognitive demand. Chart 4.6 illustrates parents' pre/post study comprehension assessments data.
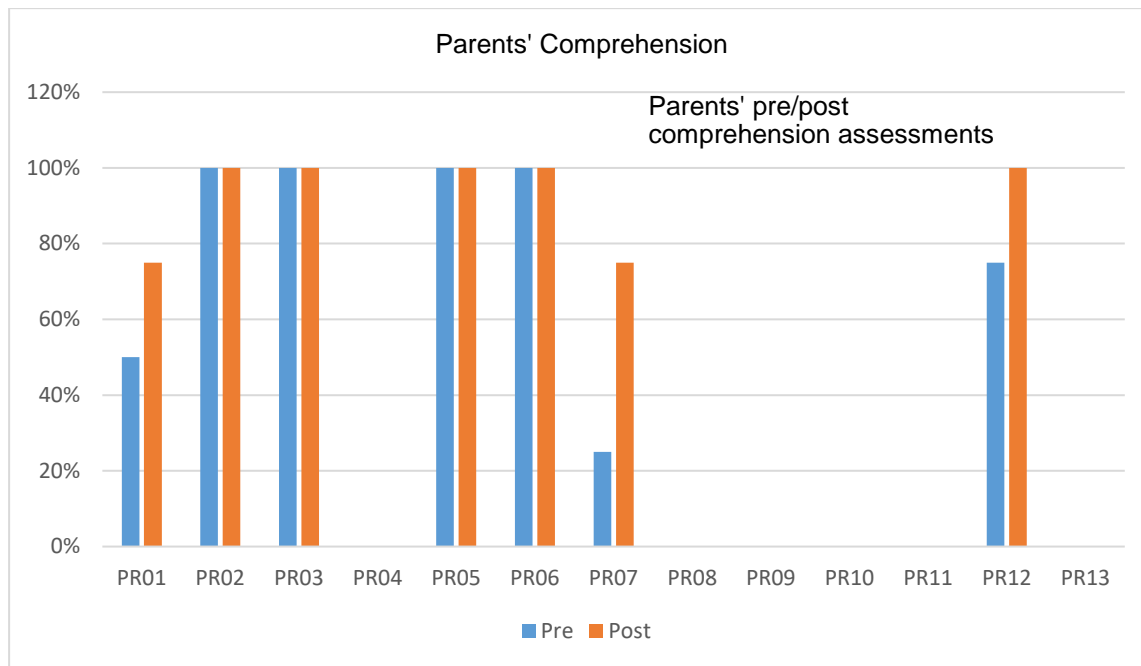
Chart 4.6: Parents' comprehension pre- and post-assessments data.

4.3.3 Somali Listening Assessments

The data indicated that one linguistic area where parents scored well was that of listening assessment. Although Mrs Yasin (PU04), Mrs Said (PU08), Mrs Liban (PU09), Mrs Odawa (PU10), Mrs Abdullahi PU11) and Mrs Ibrahim (PU13) did not participate in both the pre and post assessments, all theparticipant parents achieved 100% in both the pre- and post-intervention assessments.This might be because the way parents listened during the listening assessment was adapted by their experience of listening to HL speech (see Cutler, 2012). Chart 4.7 depicts parents' pre/post listening assessments data.
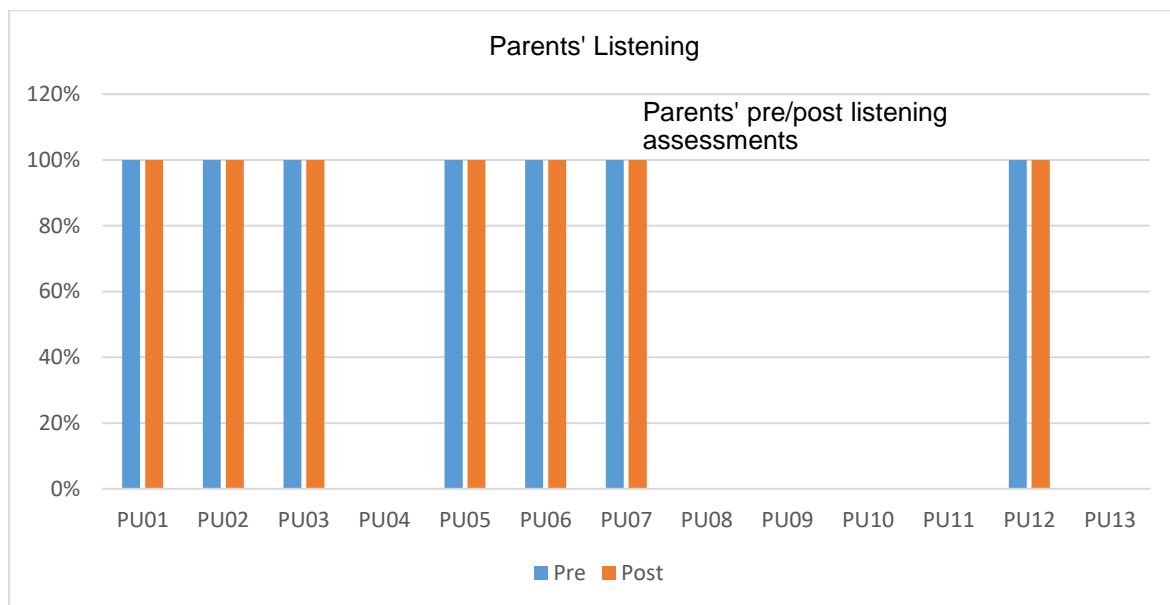
Chart 4.7: Parents' listening pre- and post-assessments data.

4.4.3.4 Somali Writing Assessments

The writing assessments measured how many correct words parents could produce in 15 minutes. The purpose of this was to obtain a clear picture about the writing and '…objective means of evaluating the handwriting speed of …' parents (Tomchek and Schneck, 2005, p.317). Four of the 7 parents showed an improvement in their writing skills after the intervention period. However, the data shows that 3 of the 7 parents performed worse after the intervention. It is difficult to determine the reason for this. Presenting parents' data as a bar chart was found challenging. Table 4.6 provides sets out the results of parents' writing skills in pre- and post-assessments

| Parent | Pre-assessment | | | Post-assessment | | | Productivity and correct words | |
	No of mistaken words	Total words produced in 15 minutes	No of correct words	No of mistaken words	Total words produced in 15 minutes	No of correct words	Increase of word writing pre/post assessments	Correct produced words Pre/post assessments
Mrs Ali	2	21	19	6	17	11	21/17 No	90/65
Mrs Farah	0	43	43	0	45	45	43/45 Yes	100/100
Mrs Ahmed	2	79	77	4	62	58	79/62 No	97/94
Mrs Duale	1	54	53	0	112	112	54/112 Yes	98/100
Mrs Abdi	0	44	44	0	50	50	44/50 Yes	100/100
Mrs Gelle	12	17	5	4	29	25	17/29 Yes	29/86
Mrs Muallim	5	75	70	5	43	38	75/43 No	93/88

Table 4.6 Parents' pre/post writing assessment data

The data shows the great efforts that parents invested in learning or relearning the writing of the HL. Although most of them joined English classes years ago, it seems that their age and maturity helped them to carefully assess their learning needs.

> *I asked parents for their opinion regarding whether they would like to spend more time in sounding out the Somali alphabet letters or proceed to the grammar topics which was the next step. They requested that they proceed to the grammar topics but to keep the writing exercises going. This could mean that they have confidence in their reading skills but less confidence in writing skills. Why were parents who mostly rarely engage in reading and writing far better in HL reading than pupils whose English reading activities are part of their daily school life? this could be because of the difference between the HL and English sounding systems when reading, or could be because of maturity as parents accumulated experience throughout their lives. In contrast, as it is the first time that pupils are learning HL literacy, they may need more time to distinguish between the HL and English phonics (From my reflective diary, 29.6.2016).*

4.3.4 Findings from Parents of Pupils with Unique Characteristics

As stated in Section 4.2.6, Mr Ahmed, Mr Gelle and Mr Muallim possessed unique characteristics that made them different from the other pupil participants. This Section explores their parents' performance in terms of the HL literacy assessment data, to examine whether the parents' performance was, in some way, related to their children's performance. I will begin with Mrs Ahmed.

Although Mrs Ahmed was learning HL literacy for the first time, she had previously learned Arabic and English. As the data indicates (and as mentioned earlier in Section 5.2.2), she made use of her knowledge of other language structures to make sense of the HL literacy she was leaning. The data given in Table 4.7 displays discrepancies between her and her son in terms of comprehension and writing skills

performance. Although comprehension can be assumed to precede or be an intrinsic part of writing skills, Mr Ahmed's poor comprehension performance can be attributed to his HL delay. Table 4.7 shows his mother's post-intervention language assessments compared to the highest-achieving parents, as well as her own child.

Parent	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mrs Ahmed	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	94%	100%
	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils
Her child Mr Ahmed	65%	100%	0%	75%	100%	100%	0%	0%

Table 4.7: Mrs. Ahmed's post-intervention language assessments.

Mr Gelle, who had moved to the UK later than the other parents, was attending English language lessons three times per week prior to participating in the HL literacy sessions. The data shown in Table 4.8 highlights her post-intervention language assessments compared to the highest-achieving parents, as well as her own child.

Parent	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mrs. Gelle	98%	100%	78%	100%	100%	100%	86%	100%
	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils
Her child Mr Gelle	98%	100%	50%	100%	100%	100%	0%	0%

Table 4.8: Mrs. Gelle's post-intervention language assessments.

Mrs. Muallim, who was highly-motivated to learn HL literacy, attempted not to miss any of the HL sessions, despite having a baby whom she used to bring along. As a discussion initiator, she used to create an interactive environment and also often

challenged me on behalf of the whole group. This confidence appeared to have been inspired by her son at least in two ways: 1) his motivation to use HL as a career, as noted above, he had claimed that he wanted to become a translator for the Somali community who could not speak English and wanted to access the health service in future; and 2) motivation to learn HL further.

> 87) Mr Muallim: *I want to learn more about numbers, because I only know up to 1,000. No. 1 to 900,000.*

Table 4.9 illustrates Mrs. Muallim's post-intervention language assessments compared to the highest-achieving parents as well as her own child.

Parent	Reading		Comprehension		Listening		Writing	
	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others	Achieved	Maximum achieved by others
Mrs. Muallim	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	88%	100%
	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupil	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils	Achieved	Max. achieved by other pupils
Her child Mr Muallim	100%	100%	75%	75%	30%	100%	0%	0%

Table 4.9: Mrs. Muallim's post-intervention language assessments.

In concluding this Section, both the pupils' and parents' data sets above showed that considerable discrepancies existed in the area of writing. Although the three parents performed relatively well in the writing post-assessment: Mrs Ahmed with 94%, PR07 with 86% and Mrs. Muallim with 88%, that performance was not reflected in their children's writing post-assessments, in which all three pupils achieved 0%.

Chapter 5: The Analysis and Discussion of Pupils' and Parents' Semi-Structured Interview Data in Relation to Research Sub-questions

5.1 Introduction

The previous Chapter was about the findings in terms of pupils' and parents' language assessments. This Chapter will deal with findings from the semi-structured interviews of pupils and parents and discussion. The parents' interviews consist of two sets: the pre-study interview and the post study interview. The findings will then be discussed in relation to the research sub-questions 1,2, and 3, (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Analysing and discussing the data has enabled me to: 1) deeply and insightfully interact with both pupils and parents' data sets, which is a prerequisite for qualitative data interpretation; and 2) use imaginative insights when attempting to make sense of the data; to generate an understanding and theory (Maher and et al., 2018). All of the different data sets contribute to the generation of knowledge within this case study.

5.2 –The Analysis and Discussion of Pupils' Semi-Structured Interviews Data

The process of carrying out the semi-structured interviews was detailed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.10.3). Three main themes emerged from the pupils's interviews and four themes from parents' data: HL literacy learning is important for an individual's *identity* and *social communication skills*, as well as promoting *cognitive advantage* in the classroom. Pupils also suggested *strategies to maintain HL* and *barriers to HL literacy learning*.

5.2.1 Theme 1: Identity

5.2.1.1 Heritage Language Learning is Important for Identity

Pupils were very keen to learn their HL The following interaction shows how a participant pupil was adamant to use HL in his semi-structured interview, even when advised to use English (his dominant language) to express his perception clearly:

> *54) Mr Ali: Lacalla….. [in case….]*
> *54) Me: Could you speak English?*
> *55) Mr Ali: Somali ayaan rabaa ['I want to speak in Somali']*

It was not only Mr Ali who attempted to use HL during the interview. Mr Muallim also mixed HL and English when he was giving examples of what he had learned during the sessions:

> *83) Mr Muallim: Yes! Because… eem… eem.. because… eem … eem first, ma ogeyn wuxuu leyli ahaay iyo in ii barto ay ahayd. Now I can answer*
>
> *questions.*
>
> *Yes! Because… um… um… um at first, I didn't know what Leyli was and I had to learn it. Now I can answer the questions.*

Mr Muallim was confident that he could answer the HL comprehension questions using the Somali language. He also talked about the word '*leyli*', meaning '*exercise*'. This word often appears at the end of the Somali reading texts to signal that the comprehension questions are about to begin. The aim of 'leyli' is to assess the pupil's comprehension of the text. It was fascinating that pupils still remembered this word 'leyli'. Two other pupils also mentioned it. This remembering could have been because daily classroom literacy often involved them having to imitate, innovate and invent a text, except for some of the guided reading texts which required them to answer comprehension questions. In contrast to this imitation, innovation and invention of text, pupils might have found the Somali 'leyli' easier than English because, in the intervention sessions, they used to read a text and promptly answer the questions in the end of the text, which was different from their English comprehension text as they are often expected to imitate and re-invent it. Another

reason for their 'leyli' interest might have been either because of their interest in gaining HL literacy or because they found it represented their identity. While selecting the Somali texts for pupils to read, I attempted to choose passages that would appeal to their identity or engage their curiosity: stories that were specific to traditional Somali stories.

Another way that pupils valued their HL literacy learning was by relating it to 'Somaliness'. This meant that they considered anyone claiming to be a Somali should know the HL. Furthermore, they also perceived 'Somaliness' to require setting a policy of only speaking Somali at home:

> *24)* Miss Abdi*: Because it is our language; and at home we have to speak our language.*

The students might have believed that every language represents a country; and that a country's population should know it, no matter where they are in the world:

> *40)* Miss Yasin*: Um… it was good because I was learning about my country's language and that was what I supposed to learn.*

I found it fascinating that the pupils associated themselves with a country which most of them had never seen before. Miss Yasin's emotional feeling was remarkable when expressing '…*my country's language*'. This may evolve from the fact that: 1) their Somali forefathers used to speak Somali; and 2) that, according to them, it is the easiest language to learn:

> *82)* Mr Muallim*: The thing that is good about the Somali language is because it is my first language. All my ancestors learned Somali. It is my first language and it is easier than English.*

> *103)* Mr Abdullahi*: Attending the Somali [meaning the intervention sessions] is like the thing all the Somalis do, like the writing and how to read and learn your language.*

Here the pupils were assuming that older Somali people knew how to read and write their HL. However, what pupils might not have known was that: 1) writing of the Somali language was not introduced until 1972; 2) the Somali civil war had broken out in 1990, a time when HL literacy was still in the process of developing; and 3) there could still be older people who are unable to read and write the Somali language due to various reasons. However, pupils believed that gaining a knowledge of HL literacy would help them:

> 97) Miss Said*: Yes! Because it is gone help… because it is my language, I have to learn it.*

Another pupil added that, apart from being 'his language', it is also fun to learn it.

> 111) Mr Ahmed*: Attending the Somali sessions is good because it is our…it is our language which we need to learn it. I liked the lessons on how to do the verbs.*

Pupils' assertions that learning HL would help them seemed to be a feeling rather than a practical reason, as they were unable to express how, when, where or why it would help them. However, they might have meant that it would be useful when they returned or visited to their heritage country, where verbal HL competence would be advantageous. As well as learning HL on different topics, I observed that learning HL facilitated their grammar knowledge: it increased their understanding of English grammar by understanding how Somali grammar is structured. This might suggest that learning a concept in HL is easier than learning it in L2. Pupils also commented that gaining a knowledge of HL promotes a person's spiritual identity and wellbeing. This potentially could mean that HL learning creates an opportunity or condition for them to thrive emotionally.

> 37) Me: Which lesson did you like most?
> 38) Miss Abdi*: When we learned about the 'Nebi Muxamed CSW' prophet Mohammed [PBUH].*

60) Mr Ali*: Maya. Wax ma yaal. Wax badan aan jeclahay is*
everything text – ka oo aad i siisay. Islaam ahayd.
No. There was nothing I disliked. I liked all the texts about Islam.

The above utterances make it evident that the pupils assigned a special value to the spiritual texts they studied. From my personal experience, this is not what I had observed when they participate in Religious Education (RE) classes, or at least they might not have been asked how they felt about it. Their enthusiasm during the HL learning intervention may be related to the fact that they were involved in spiritual texts, which were written in their HL, and delivered by a person with whom they shared common beliefs. It was not only the spiritual feeling that pupils commented on however, but also their social identity. The warm feeling about their identity was evident from the beginning of the research. I was not sure how they would react when I asked them if they wanted to participate in the study. However, their reaction was spontaneous and surprising:

> *The reaction was unexpected for me: with both their hands raised up above them they all, at once, yelled 'yeees!' A euphoria you would observe from supporters of a football team when their team score a goal* (From my reflective diary, 7.6.2016).

This reaction raises a curiosity as to why they were so enthusiastic about a language with which they might not have had constant practical contact, and how that could have left an impression on them. Also, it was not only the research participants who were interested in HL learning, but also the other younger pupils in school:

> *Two Year 3 pupils who have no siblings in the study approached me, probing whether they could come and take part in the Somali sessions. Immediately, another one standing by their side, a Year 1 pupil, said that he also wanted to join in the sessions. It seems that the news of the study has travelled like the speed of Tsunami* (From my reflective diary, 28.6.2016).

Although the underlying reasons why the Year 3 and Year 1 pupils wanted to learn HL were difficult to pinpoint, their faces and actions displayed a genuine desire to gain HL literacy. This was because they approached me in the playground during their breaktime, which meant preferring to ask me about HL learning over the chance to play. This illustrates that these pupils could distinguish between the English literacy they were provided daily by the school and the HL literacy which they had never been taught.

5.2.1.2 *Use of Heritage Language Literacy at Home*

Sitting close to me in the classroom, Miss Duale unexpectedly whispered to me:

> *Uncle, you know I challenged my mother whether she knows the Somali short and long vowels and she said she did* (From my reflective diary, 24.6.2016).

Using the Somali cultural habit of addressing someone as '*uncle*' when interacting with a male adult in the classroom where the expectation is often to use English, can be a sign for identity revival. Normally, pupils use '*Mr*' for males and '*Miss'* or '*Mrs*' for females in the school. However, in this case, Miss Duale used the word '*uncle*', possibly because of associating the current study to herself and to me whilst recounting an activity that had occurred at home. The use of HL literacy at home was one of my research project's aims: to empower parents with confidence to support their children's learning. In this case, two-way empowering was happening, as the study appeared to empower children to support their parent's HL learning at home – an idea that was inconceivable when the project was being designed. Miss Duale recounted this incident with her face beaming with excitement. This excitement could be attributed to two things: 1) the pupil had gained some extent of HL literacy knowledge and was proud of that; and 2) this knowledge motivated her to challenge her mother's level of Somali language expertise – the long and short vowels.

The research sessions not only enabled pupils to challenge their parents using the HL literacy knowledge they had gained, but also seemed to create an opportunity for the pupils to take it home and challenge their older siblings:

> Miss Said*: Mr Shamsudin, my brother tried to read the Somali sheets you gave us yesterday.*
>
> *Me: And?*
>
> Miss Said*: He could read them but, in the word 'jeer' the 'ee' he read it as the English 'ea'.*
>
> *Me: Did you correct him then?*
>
> Miss Said*: Yes. I told him.* [She said this with a beaming face]
>
> (From my reflective diary, 15.7.2016).

This is evidence that the HL sessions offered pupils an opportunity to challenge their older siblings, who might have always possessed a taken-for-granted English literacy superiority over them.

5.2.1.3 *Heritage Language Use in the Community (Teaching Peers)*

Although most pupils expressed their desire to use HL for communication purposes, Mr Ahmed, who had experienced a HL delay, was not able to articulate what and where he intended to use the HL literacy gained from the study:

> 120) Mr Ahmed*:* [long pause] …[thinking]… [not so sure what and where to use HL].

However, Mr Gelle was clear what he would do with his HL skills: re-animate and maintain HL among the local Somali community in Bristol:

> 73) Mr Gelle*: Um… to be... to teach another people Somali when I am bigger.*

Me: Where do you want to teach it? Who are they? [meaning which people]

75) Mr Gelle *7: I want to teach it to people who go to my mal'amad* [the mosque where children go to learn the Koran].

Whilst Mr Gelle aimed to teach HL voluntarily to his peer group, Mr Muallim hoped to use HL in a professional capacity:

82) Mr Muallim*: It is important to learn… it is important for me to learn the Somali language because when I become older, I want to be a translator and people 'aan takhtar waa caawin karaa' ['when people visit a GP, I will be able to help them'].*

Quotations 73 and 82 above reveal divergent thinking about how pupils would use the HL literacy they gained – Mr Gelle suggesting that he would teach it on a voluntary basis, whereas Mr Muallim wanted to use it as a profession. These different ways of thinking might have been influenced by their birth places. Mr Gelle was born in Somalia where the expectation was that each community member supports the other; whereas Mr Muallim was born in the UK where individualism often seems to govern society's daily life. However, whether pupils would ultimately use their HL literacy on a voluntary or paid-for basis, it was evident that they wanted to use their gained HL literacy knowledge for individual or community benefits.

5.2.1.4 Heritage Language Use by Non-Somali-Origin Peers in the Class
My research project appears to have motivated not only the Somali-heritage pupils, but also pupils from other communities who were in the same class as my research participants. One morning, as I was waiting for a parent in a Year 5 classroom, Mr Muallim took the book, *Beowulf,* from the classroom book corner. It was written in English and had been translated into Somali. He proudly said:

I've read the Somali version (From my reflective diary, 15.12.2016).

However, what really touched me was when a non-Somali heritage pupil in Year 5, standing next to Mr Muallim, confidently proclaimed:

> *I also read it to XXX [*Miss Abdi*].*

> *The study appears to have positively impacted on a pupil who neither shares cultural nor linguistic identity with the Somali-origin pupils* (From my reflective diary, 15.12.2016)*.*

5.2.1.5 Learning Heritage Language is Fun

Setting a fun learning activity can be both unforgettable and enjoyable, as it may provide the possibility of relaxed physical and mental engagement:

> 3) Mr Farah: *we… learned Somali and… we played games, and I could work with my friends. We had fun and I could work with my friends and it was very balanced as well.*

> *Me: Did you have a good amount of work and have a good amount of play?*

What Mr Farah was referring to by '*balanced*' was the Somali board game they used to play at the end of almost each session. The pleasure of having fun while learning was directly or indirectly echoed by all the participant pupils in the interviews:

> *20)* Miss Abdi*: No. Everything was good.*

> *21) Me: Everything was good?* [Confirming what Miss Abdi had said]

> *42) Me: Did you like everything?*
> *42)* Miss Yasin*: Yes!*

> *54)* Mr Ali*: Somali ayaan rabaa ['I want to speak in Somali']*

> *70)* Mr Gelle*: I did not dislike anything.*

> *81)* Mr Muallim*: Nothing was bad.*

92) Miss Said*: I learnt… I learnt… words and the alphabet in Somali, which I needed.*

103) Mr Abdullahi*: I don't think that there is anything bad about attending Somali language [lessons].*

110) Mr Ahmed*: Attending the Somali sessions is good because… it is our language which we need to learn it.*

Pupils' perceptions towards the attendance of the sessions were not confined to only when they were feeling well but also when they were ill

> *It was at 08:30 when I was waiting for a parent in front of the Yr4 classroom when I overheard Mrs. Ahmed telling the Yr4 teacher that Mr. Ahmed was not feeling well and could not come. Mrs. Ahmed continued to say that Mr. Ahmed was so disappointed that he would miss the Somali session. I was so impressed with how Mr. Ahmed valued the learning of HL literacy. I feel that his sentiment toward HL literacy learning was indescribable (From my reflective diary, 7.7.2016).*

Their enjoyment with the activity was evidenced during one of the sessions at the beginning of the research period. At that time, the pupils had finished their set task and I needed to use an extension activity to challenge them. The activity was doing a HL word search without the use of pictures. The activity aimed to reduce the contextual clues and increase the pupils' cognitive demand. However, I was amazed with how quickly they had executed the task:

> *This made me ask myself the question: what would these pupils' academic attainment be if their HL was used as a medium of instruction? It may be obvious that their enthusiasm, power, passion*

and eagerness for the learning is not only coming from this newly
discovered language but beyond that: an innate desire with which
they were born (From my reflective diary, 23.6.2016).

5.2.2 *Theme 2: Social Communication Skills*

5.2.2.1 *Use of Heritage Language for Communication*

The data identified three different types of interactions where pupils could use HL as a communication mode: with their family, with their relatives back in the HL country and with the Somali community in general, whether in the UK, the heritage country or elsewhere in the world.

5.2.2.2 *Heritage Language Use for Communication with Family*

The pupils claimed that it was their right to use their HL at home and that it should remain in their possession for the use in communication as and when they wished:

> *106)* Mr Abdullahi*: Because it is my language and it helps me speak*
> *my family.*

> *25) Me: Who do you speak it with?*

> *26)* Miss Abdi*: My family.*

Moreover, HL was crucial when there was an emergency which required effective communication, for example, when a sick parent urgently asked a child to fetch their medicine from a cupboard. If parent-child communication suffered from interruption because the child's dominant language was English whereas the parents' dominant language was Somali, there could be unpleasant consequences:

> *9)* Mr Farah*: …ee… um… I can get things for my mum because she*
> *has diabetes and she is very ill most of the time. To get*
> *things for her, she says them in Somali, and I don't*

know what those things are. If I learn more Somali I can… I can figure out what these things are easily.

5.2.2.3 Heritage Language Use for Communicating with Relatives

Pupils emphasized the importance of using the Somali language as a communicative method when visiting their heritage country:

45) Miss Yasin*: I will be able… to communicate in Somali.*

56) Mr Ali*: Lacalla…. lacalla Somali if Somali ma baranin if Somali. Lacalla Soomaaliya aadi lahayd. Waxay noqon lahayd qof… qof ma la hadli laheen because ma oqoon waxaa dhahay iyo isma – baramin tar… a… iyo waxa… [unclear]. Happy aan ahay adiga barto because… because… [unclear] about Somali. Waa fiicannahay. In case… in case I did not learn Somali. In case I would have gone to Somalia. It would be a person…person cannot communicate because I did not know what I said, and I did not know… tar…a… and (unclear), I am happy you taught me…because…[unclear] about Somali. I am OK.*

Pupils did not only think about their present situation. They also thought about the dilemma they might face in the future if they would be unable to communicate with relatives and other people in Somalia. Perhaps they were aware that their English language proficiency would have less value in an environment where the HL is dominant:

97) Miss Said*: If you go to Somalia, you can't speak English, you gone [are going to] speak Somali.*

106) Mr Abdullahi*: Because it is my language and… when I go back to Somalia, I will speak with Somali people.*

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5.2.2.4 Heritage Language Use for Communicating with the Community

> *45) Miss Yasin: I will be able to speak with people in Somali.*

It was not clear to whom and in what context Miss Yasin thought they would speak Somali. This could be, in general terms, in the UK and in Somalia. However, Mr Farah appeared to be able to do so, speaking confidently in articulating to whom and for what purpose he would speak Somali: to help people with their HL skills:

> *11) Mr Farah: I can guide people who say, 'where shall I go?' in Somali.*

5.2.2.5 Heritage Language Use as a Profession

Also, one pupil thought that knowing the HL would enable him to use it in a profession capacity, as an interpreter. In this way he thought he could help older Somali people, who were less fluent in English, to access Bristol city services. This differed from the view of other pupils: where they were aiming to use HL on a voluntary basis, Mr Muallim was planning to use his HL skills in a profession, although he was also thinking that he would be in a position to help the Somali community in the UK:

> *82) Mr Muallim: It is important to learn… it is important for me to learn the Somali language because when I become older, I want to be a translator and people 'aan takhtar waa caawin karaa' ['when people visit a GP, I will be able to help them'].*

Pupils also appeared to have a nostalgic feeling for gaining the ability of good HL communication. This might be because HL development during their childhood had been interrupted by use of the dominant language when they began school. In this

way they had not gained the required skills for understanding and expressing their thoughts and feelings in HL.

Pupils also commented on their strategies for maintaining HL literacy, possibly having become aware that maintaining their HL in an English language-dominant environment would be a daunting task. They proposed two strategies: teaching HL literacy to the next generation and teaching it to their peer group:

> *75) Mr. Gelle: Um… to be ... to teach other people Somali when I am bigger.*

> *77) Mr. Gelle: I want to teach to people who go to my mal'amad* [the mosque where children go to learn the Koran].

The data emphasized the existence of barriers to HL literacy learning for pupils. These included social, academic, and biological factors that might negatively impact upon HL literacy learning. For example, being a member of a large family seemed to be a barrier to attending the HL learning sessions consistently:

> *100) Miss Said: I want to learn more in Somali, but I can't come.*
> *101) Me: You can't come?*
> *102) Miss Said: Because I don't have time.*

Family arrangements did not permit Miss Said to attend the sessions as frequently as she would have liked, as her mother also needed to pick up her siblings from other schools at the end of the day. Another barrier was that some of the pupils did not like adhering to the rule of only speaking HL. Other pupils had agreed amongst themselves not to speak English during the game at the end of the sessions. This annoyed Mr. Farah because, during the game, answers had to be given quickly. Answering quickly required understanding the question and responding in the Somali language, which Mr. Farah – a very competitive person who liked to win every time – found difficult:

> *6) Mr. Farah: I really didn't like… um… when we played games, we had to speak Somali too much. Qofka haddii uu Ingiriis*

ku hadla waxaa la oranaayaa af – Ingiriisi ['if somebody spoke English, the pupils would say "speak in Somali"].

Another barrier to HL learning was speaking delay at the infant stage which appeared to have negatively impacted on how a pupil could express their opinion using HL-speaking skills. When questioned about how learning HL grammar would help him, it took Mr. Ahmed a while to ultimately reply:

124) Mr. Ahmed*: I don't know.*

5.2.3 Theme 3: Cognitive Advantage
5.2.3.1 Heritage Language Learning Gave a Cognitive Advantage
Pupils believed that learning a heritage language would provide them with many opportunities. These included being able to act as teachers for their peers at a community school and teach them the skills they have learned. Moreover, they believed that the HL grammar skills they had learned would facilitate their English grammar skills at school. Finally, it can be assumed that, during the process of learning HL, pupils had the opportunity assess their learning process by themselves.

5.2.3.2 Heritage Language Learning Facilitated Understanding English Grammar
Pupils asserted that they found learning the HL grammar straightforward:

68) Mr Gelle: *I learned grammar… which is easier than learning English grammar.*

Another pupil explained this emotionally in Somali:

61) Mr Ali: *Because… lacalla Somaalida wey barannay oo wax easi-ga wax… een… [unclear] baranne hadda waa fiicanahay. Hadda garaamarkeyga waa fiican yahay.*

Because… the Somali people have learned something easy… een... [unclear] learning now I am OK. Now my

> *grammar is good. [He meant that learning grammar in the Somali language would make it easier for him to learn grammar in English.]*

Pupils provided further examples of what they had learned in the Somali sessions:

> 109) Mr Abdullahi: The *verbs and the stories*.

Also answering the question of what they had learned, Mr Ahmed and Miss Abdi echoed the word 'verb':

> 32) Miss Abdi: *the verbs.*
>
> 34) Me: *So, you learned verbs in Somali and how they work?*
>
> 34) Miss Abdi: *Yes!*
>
> 110) Mr Ahmed: *I liked the lesson on how to do the verbs.*

5.2.3.3 Heritage Language Learning Facilitated Self-assessing of the Learning
Pupils were able to assess the HL literacy they had learned and what they still needed to learn:

> 92) Miss Said: *I learnt…I learnt… words and the alphabet in Somali, which I needed.*
>
> 64) Mr Gelle: *Um… Um Um … learned new Somali words…* [he was thinking and then seemed to remember].

On top of learning the alphabet and new vocabularies, pupils also stated that they had learned HL grammar, particularly pronouns, which had helped them to understand pronouns in English:

> 79) Mr Gelle: *Um … I learned pronouns that helped me with my understanding of English pronouns more.*

Mr Muallim confidently further explained that he had not only learnt the grammar but was now able to use both HL and English grammar concurrently:

> 85) Mr Muallim: *… I am now able to translate from English to Somali.*

This shows that they not only gained the ability to assess their own learning, but also that they had realized what they had found challenging and needed to improve on. For instance, they still needed to learn how to count in the Somali language:

> 87) Mr Muallim: *I want to learn more about the numbers because I only know up to 1000. Numbers 1 to 900,000* [was what he wanted to learn].

Pupils' self-assessment included judging their ability to understand a HL text by providing answers to comprehension questions about it:

> 83) Mr Muallim: Because*… um… um... because… um... um first ma ogeyn wuxuu leyli ahaay iyo in ii barto ay ahayd. Now I can answer questions.*
>
> *Yes! Because… um… um…at first, I didn't know what Leyli was, and I had to learn it. Now I can answer the questions.*

To conclude this discussion of the pupils' data analysis, the following Table summarises the semi-structured interview findings in terms of themes, their frequencies and what they revealed.

Themes emerging from pupils' semi-structured interview (Appendix U2)	Themes' frequencies and what they revealed
Identity	In 22 out of the 70 whole utterances pupils expressed the importance of identity in different ways: such as valuing HL literacy learning, and that learning HL is fun. Further, they conditioned 'being Somali' on the knowledge of HL. They were also of the opinion that learning HL reinforced the learners' spiritual identity and wellbeing.
Cognitive advantage	In 19 out of the 70 utterances pupils thought that HL grammar learning stimulated them to learn English grammar efficiently by providing the ability to transfer concepts across the languages. Moreover, pupils suggested that HL literacy learning enabled them to learn more HL vocabulary and the ability to self-assess their learning.
Communication/ Strategies/barriers to maintain HL literacy	In 7 out of the 70 utterances pupils spoke about HL learning being crucial for communicating with family, relatives, peers and the wider community. Also, 3 out of the 70 utterances were pupils speaking about different strategies/barriers to maintain their HL literacy. These strategies included passing on the HL to next generation; teaching it to their peer group and using it as a professional (working as a HL translator at public offices). Factors such as being a member of large family, having to adhere to the rule of only speaking HL (imposed by pupils) when learning HL literacy were found to contribute to barriers to maintain HL literacy

Table 5.1 Summary of semi-structured interview findings as themes and what they suggest.

5.3 Discussion of Findings in Relation to the Research Sub-questions

This part will explore the discussion of the findings above in relation to the research sub-questions 1, 2 and 3 for pupils and parents. This is because I believe that doing this will render the processed data findings into a meaningful form that has a real or perceived value to the researcher (see Niedergassel, 2011). Parents' data will be discussed separately in Section 5.4.2. In this part, I will examine the extent to which the findings of my research support the previous literature. This is because literature

review combines a '…search for information with critical assessment… [and it also enables] the findings [to be] subjected to critical evaluation…' (Sarantakos, 2012, p.151).

5.3.1 Research sub-question 1: What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar?

The data indicated that all the participant pupils had been communicating in HL with their parents prior to beginning school. However, at school, they were expected to learn EAL to communicate with their peer group and teachers, as Valdés (2005) explained in order to satisfy their everyday communicative needs. This is in line with Baker's (2011) description of 'bilingualism' as people using two languages equally and Baker's (2006) concept of sequential bilingualism, since the pupils had probably not learned English until they were 3 years old. However, after beginning school, only 2 of the 13 participants were able to respond in HL when their parents asked them questions. It could not be assumed that pupils were experiencing incomplete acquisition of HL that, Montrul (2008) suggested. Rather as, Silva-Corvalán (2018) emphasized, it could be a reflection of some aspects of the HL input that was reduced due to exposure to English when they began the school. This could mean that they deviated from the normal use of HL when responding to parents. Scontras, Fuchs and Polinsky's (2015) paper argued that one of the three reasons why HL speakers might deviate from the baseline of a native speaker was divergent attainment – a developmental delay that begins in childhood due to being socialised into a dominant language – and from which they will never catch up, as explained in Chapter 2.

UNESCO (1953) notes that HL use is the best medium of instruction, as it stimulates the learner psychologically. This is because it is a system of meaningful signs in the learner's mind that works automatically. It is also meaningful socially because the individual would be able to identify themself with the group in which they belong. Stoop's (2017) comparative study examined children's rights to HL education in a multilingual world, comparing the language policy and education of South Africa and Germany to make a case for the importance of HL for a learner's cognitive and social

skills. Both Cummins' (2000) and Gallagher's (2008) key arguments highlight the importance of viewing HL as: 1) a resource which needs to be maintained effectively by the minority community; and 2) HL should be viewed as a right for an individual's culture and identity. Thus, my research participants' perception of HL literacy learning can be summarised into two categories: 1) HL literacy learning as their right – found in their use of phrases such as '*my language*' and '*our language*'; 2) HL literacy learning as an asset (which will be discussed under research sub-question 3 below). Thomas and Collier's (1997) study found that students who had emigrated to the USA after receiving several years' schooling in their native country made greater progress than similar groups of students who had emigrated to the USA at a younger age and received all their schooling in English only. This may suggest that there is an academic advantage to acquiring HL first and then learning an additional second language. This seems to confirm Cummins' threshold hypothesis (1978), which postulated that bilinguals need to reach both a HL and a L2 threshold to experience a cognitive advantage from speaking more than one language.

5.3.1.1 Heritage Language Literacy Learning as a Right

An individual's right to belong to a group appears to be most evident in how the pupils reacted to learning their HL. It was remarkable how pupils, who were born in the UK and had never visited their heritage country, were keen to learn a language which they were less familiar with. Oyserman, Elmore and Smith (2012) and Verkuyten (2014) reminded us that the awareness and warmth of identity becomes apparent only when it is missing, in times of crisis or when there is a need to distinguish between '*them*' and '*us*'. If we accept this notion, then the pupils might have been longing to gain HL literacy as they may have felt awkward about not being able to express their wishes in their HL. This frustration was most evident when they failed to communicate effectively with relatives in their heritage country who wanted to interact with them over the phone. Bigelow and King (2015) argued that the Somali diaspora have an unresolved and evolving relationship with their ethnicity and their language. Although my research and Bigelow and King's (2015) study focused on different age groups, the pupils had never had a chance to become literate in their HL, like the subjects studied by Bigelow and King. This symbolic ethnicity, my participants' nostalgic allegiance to HL literacy, was evident in pupils' data without

incorporating it into everyday activities (Gans,1979). Pupils appeared to take into account Moran's (2016) warning that, when the importance of identity is de-emphasized, young people from refugee backgrounds may become immensely motivated to consume resources which are found outside the borders they used to live in before their migration like cultural signifiers. The data findings from my research support these earlier studies' conclusion that heritage identity is very important for migrant individuals.

Article 30 of the UNCRC (1989) instructs nations where minority ethnic children live to safeguard their right to their own culture, language and religion. This may suggest the intrinsic part of HL in a child's daily life. My research participants expressed the different ways that they found learning HL literacy to be 'fun'. Not only did they enjoy the HL lessons, but they also valued them and believed that they were important for them.

5.3.1.2 *Heritage Language Literacy Learning as an Asset*

The perception that HL literacy comprises a resource for a person was another factor that emerged from the data. Pupils expressed HL as a means of both communication and cognitive advantage. The pupils perceived HL as a way to communicate with their family, relatives in the heritage country and the Somali community in Bristol. This communication skill would require pupils' mental agility to enable them to switch between the Somali and English languages, as their dominant language was English. This perception matches the findings of Ikizer and Ramirez-Esparza's (2017) study, which identified the positive advantage of bilingualism for cognitive and social skills.

Pupils using HL to help their parents and the Somali community in Bristol to interact with service providers, can be regarded as 'language brokering' – a term Weisskirch (2017, citing Tse, 1996) defined as the process in which children act as interpreters for their parents, using two languages. However, language brokering can be one of two types as my research data shows: when parents guide pupils using HL and when pupils help parents when they need interpretation or translation of English. Lee and Corella (2017) explored immigrant parents' language brokering practices and identified two types of language brokering: interlingual (interpreting and translating

across two languages) and intralingual (interpreting and translating within one language). Both types of language brokering were observed in my study: instances where pupils aided parents can be described as an interlingual brokering, whereas occasions where parents guided pupils using HL constituted intralingual brokering.

According to the data, it was evident that pupils expressed the value they attached to learning HL in different ways. One way was being determined to use HL during the semi-structured interviews despite being instructed to use English. This obsession could be attributed to the fact that these pupils had experienced identity crises because of being a second-generation immigrant. Moran (2016) observed that immigrants undergo these identity crises as a consequence of the social, political, economic and cultural change that they experience in a new land.

Pupils expressed their satisfaction with HL literacy learning by stating their aim of setting up a policy of only speaking HL at home. They believed that their newly-acquired HL verbal skills would positively contribute to their eagerness to emulate their ancestors. Although the pupils had a strong desire to use HL at home, it was a daunting task to implement that policy practically. This was mainly because the pupils spent a large portion of their time at school, an English-dominant environment, and most of them attended mosques after school to memorise the Quran, the Islamic Holy Book. Thus, setting an HL-only speaking policy at home was unrealistic. Other ways of expressing their satisfaction with the HL learning included their assertion that learning HL would positively contribute to their individual wellbeing as well as their spiritual identity. This manifested that pupils were aware of their membership of a social group with whom they shared a language and values. This awareness evolved from:

> …that part of an individual's self-concept which drives from his [sic] knowledge of his membership of a social group… together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership.
>
> Tajfel (1978, p.63)

This enthusiasm was also shared by non-Somali origin class peers, who were motivated by the way the pupil participants challenged each other in the classroom over the HL literacy they had learned in the intervention sessions.

Furthermore, pupil participants did not only confine the value of HL learning to the research sessions but exported its use to their homes by challenging their parents and older siblings' HL knowledge. My data indicated that pupils possessed short-and long-term plans for developing HL literacy as a strategy to maintain their HL literacy. The short-term plans included teaching it to peer groups, whilst the long-term plans involved teaching it to their future children and community members. This was evidenced from the strong feeling they expressed for HL by using the phrases ,'*it is my language*'; '*it is our language.*' Similarly, participants in Arthur's (2010) study shared a strong emotional feeling for HL. Arthur explored the communicative and symbolic roles of the languages and literacies of the Somali community in Liverpool. Ten girls aged between 11 and 12 participated in the study, strongly expressing their sense of identity by uttering phrases such as '*my language*', '*our language*' and '*I need to learn it because it is my language*' (Arthur, ibid, p.260).

Pupils in my study enjoyed playing the Somali board game (see Appendix S) at the end of HL learning sessions. In fact, the game might have elevated their enthusiasm to gain HL literacy. Somali-origin students' enthusiasm for learning HL was also observed in Bigelow and King's (2015) study explained that the Somali refugee diaspora, who participated in their study, had an unresolved and evolving relationship with their ethnicity and their language, just like the participants in my study. Thus, one may wonder what the Somali pupils' academic attainment would have been if they have used HL as a medium of instruction.

5.3.2 Research sub-question 2: Does learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar help the pupils and parents with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?

Pupils acknowledged that HL learning was not only useful for enabling interaction with their families, relatives and communities, but it also stimulated their cognition in the classroom. They regarded the learning of HL grammar as an important skill which facilitated their understanding of English grammar and that was easier to learn than

English grammar (Cummins' linguistic interdependence hypothesis,1976). This conforms to both Ruday's (2014) description of grammar concepts as a tool for making sentence structure more interesting and understandable, and also, Scontras, Fuchs, and Polinsky's (2015, p.3) warning that grammar is a '…porous vessel whose contents are susceptible to contamination'. This means that both Somali and English grammar skills need to be maintained regularly. It also confirms UNESCO's (1953) statement that HL is the best medium of instruction because psychologically it is a system of meaningful signs that enables the mind to work automatically for expression and understanding. Moreover, Cummins and Swain (1986, p.11) argued that bilingualism can play a nuanced role in stimulating an individual's analytical orientation and '…increase(s) aspects of metalinguistic awareness'. Pupils in my study were placed in the position of analysing how the adverbs in HL are constructed, which they then compared with how English adverbs are constructed. As an example, during one reading session, after staring at the board for a while and re-reading a sentence, Miss Abdi murmured in a low and thoughtful voice:

> *At the end of the Somali adverb word, there is no 'ly', but at the end of the English adverb word there is an 'ly'.*

Pupils elaborated that learning HL literacy learning facilitated understanding English grammar. This shows that there is a common underlying proficiency that facilitates the transfer of the Somali grammar across to the English grammar. Bagherian's (2012) study demonstrated that the Persian language facilitated the conceptual transfer between the Persian and English languages regardless of age. Similarly, Vâlcea's (2020) study, in the context of Romania, found that students relied heavily on their L1 language (Romanian) when translating it into English.

Cummins' (1978) threshold hypothesis postulated that cognitive advantage in L2 may be experienced when a learner passes a certain level. Following this line of argument, it is clear to me that the opposite of this hypothesis may be true if HL is assumed to be the L1 of Miss Abdi. This is because Miss Abdi might have been re-learning HL although English was her dominant language. Miss Abdi 's example above also confirms Cummins' (1981) hypothesis about a common underlying proficiency, which proposed the transferability of one language across to another and the facilitating role that both languages can play in developing academic attainments.

This is shown in the above case, where Miss Abdi was able to extract information (an adverb) from the HL text she was reading and transferred the 'adverb' concept to the English adverb. This ability to make a parallel comparison between HL and English adverb formation appeared to be facilitated by the HL literacy level that Miss Abdi had attained. This too was in tandem with Cummins' (1978) threshold hypothesis, which advanced the argument that the elements that speed up cognitive development were likely to come into operation only when a learner has reached a certain level of proficiency in their L2 to avoid cognitive disadvantage (Cummins, 1978). In the above case, Miss Abdi seemed to have reached a certain level of HL reading which made it possible for her to reap the benefit of understanding both HL and English adverb structures. Thus, an equal use of Somali and English instruction may be beneficial for these pupils' academic attainment.

5.3.3 Research sub-question 3: How can the Somali language reading, writing and grammar skills be maintained and developed among the Somali pupils and their parents?

During my research, I delivered 15 lessons to pupils. Bigelow and King (2015) revealed that the Somali students in their qualitative study were in an advantageous position when compared to other peer groups when it came to writing skills in Somali and English. The other groups consisted of students speaking Spanish, Oromo, Amharic, Vietnamese, Lao, French, Hmong and Nepalese. This was because the English and Somali languages share the Roman alphabet, which students could transfer across the two languages easily. Thus, prior to beginning my research project, I had anticipated that no issues would surface regarding the pupils' HL decoding word ability. However, this proved not to be the case, as it took four sessions (one session per week) for pupils to confidently identify and sound out the letters of the alphabet: consonants and vowels. My over-ambitious attitude could be because I had not taken into account the age discrepancy between Bigelow and King's (2015) participants: aged 14 to 21 who had probably came from Somalia (first generation), whereas my research participants were aged 8 to 9 and had been born in the UK (second generation – except for one pupil who came to the UK at the age of 5 or 6).

However, once the pupils were confident with the alphabet, they found grammar easy to understand and text reading less challenging. This could be because I have planned each lesson in such a way that it built on the previous ones (Appendices P and Q). The energetic attitude that pupils brought to the sessions surprised me and made me question:

> *What would these pupils' academic attainments be if their HL was to be used as a medium of instruction? It may be obvious that their enthusiasm, power, passionate and eagerness for learning is not only coming from this newly discovered language but beyond that: an innate desire with which they were born* (From my reflective diary, 22.06.2016).

The energetic attitude towards HL literacy learning was not only the case when pupils were feeling well in terms of their health, but also when they were not feeling well. This was evident when Mr. Ahmed felt disappointed about missing the Somali session because he was not feeling well.

The Somali-language board game described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.9.4- D) stimulated the pupils' interest. Pupils explained that they had a balanced amount of learning and entertainment, while working collaboratively. This is in line with Tharp and Gallimore's (1988) explanation of activity settings, because it allowed the learning to happen through collaborative interaction, inter-subjectivity and assisted performance. The pupils' enjoyment was evident when on one occasion, pupils were fighting for me to join their groups when playing the board game at the end of one of the teaching sessions. This was because they knew that I possessed better Somali language skills than they did, so had assumed that whichever group I joined would win.

Pupils suggested different strategies to maintain their HL literacy. These included keeping up their motivation for HL literacy learning, teaching it to their peer groups at

the present time, and passing HL literacy on to their next generations in the future. Teaching HL literacy to their next generation at an early age may be an important step since children's metalinguistic skills develop around the age of 4. As Montrul's (2010) article emphasized the danger of losing HL at an early age, teaching HL literacy to the next generation would be potential leverage for maintaining Somali HL. Likewise, teaching the HL to their peer group would also be a helpful strategy, because it might enable pupils to constantly use their HL by assuming the role of a teacher, interpreter, or translator between the peer group and other Somali community members. O'Dell (2017) highlighted that there was substantial evidence that language brokering competence is unstable and depends on the frequency of translating, so this approach may be useful for sustaining the pupils' HL knowledge.

There were barriers to attending or learning HL literacy. Pupils voiced not having time for the sessions as a factor that had interrupted their attendance. As the sessions took place after school, pupils needed their parents to collect them afterward. Pupils with large families where siblings attended different schools and needed to all be collected at the same time found it challenging to attend the sessions. This may reflect Evans and Page's (2012) observation that the transient population of immigrants, in this case, Somalis in the UK, had a wide range of unmet needs. The issue around arrangements for collecting pupils at the end of the study sessions was a lack of logistical and/or institutional provision for parents.

This was one type of parents' unmet needs and caused to some pupils to be unable to attend the HL literacy learning sessions. Accessing private or public transport was a challenge for parents and there was no after-school care provision for pupils. Kahin and Wallace (2017) commented that logistical and institutional barriers are among other barriers that Somali parents in the UK face. Pupils' motivation for attending the sessions and the regret they displayed at not being able to reflect their parents' educational aspirations. This is in line with Moran (2016, citing the work of Modood, 2004) who argued that young ethnic minority people in the UK demonstrated higher levels of educational achievements when compared to their white working-class peers. The reason given for that was because of 'ethnic capital', by which high

educational aspiration was transferred from parents to children of ethnic minority background.

Pupil participants' HL learning process was not without challenges. Flores (2017), notes that in order for minority pupils using HL at home to become full members of the school society, they must give up their home language. Additionally, in the context of England, this could be because of lack of HL policy that aims to develop pupils' HL literacy despite Bullock's (1975, p.286) advice that no child should be expected to live or act as if home and school are two '… totally separate and different cultures which must be kept firmly apart.' A heritage language policy according to Guardado (2018), could play a role in identifying goals and designing programs that are suitable for cultural response and might enable the stakeholders to effectively address the educational desires of multilingual families.

Similarly, another challenge was the difference in orthographic systems between the Somali and English languages which seemed to have proved difficulty for pupils. This means that the Somali orthographic systems can be assumed to be a shallow orthographic system whereas the English orthographic system may be regarded as an opaque system. Ellis et al (2004, citing Katz and Frost, 1992) in the orthographic depth hypothesis, notes that the shallow orthographies can be assumed to be easier to read while, in contrast, Ziegler and Goswami (2005), explains that pupils use larger grains when reading opaque orthographies such as English because of the disparity in graphemes and letters.

Although participant pupils learned an opaque orthographic system (English) and they were learning a shallow orthographic system (Somali), they were confused and did not know the pronunciation of some Somali alphabet letters such as 'e' which they used to pronounce as the English 'ea'. This could be because, as Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005), noted that there was no clear evidence to suggest that bilinguals were more advanced in developing phonological awareness than monolinguals. In reference to the simple view of reading, Gough and Tunmer (1986) suggested that reading skills could be described as the product of decoding and comprehension.

Participant pupils' comprehension skills seemed to be held back by their decoding skills since it took them a while to master their decoding skills. Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005) study examined the role of bilingualism in early literacy acquisition for children whose two writing systems have different relations with each other: The study found that the facilitating role of bilingualism in early reading depends on the relation between the two languages and their writing systems. Thus, although participant pupils first learned English, and then they were learning HL, pupils' difficulty in quickly mastering the HL reading could be attributed to the relationship between the HL and the English. However, after pupils were able to identify the difference between the two orthographic systems, their HL literacy relatively improved. This suggests that, according to Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005) study, there is a common underlying proficiency for both languages which enables transfer from one language to another.

Another factor that was a barrier to the intervention sessions was the lack of teaching resources. The resources needed for the intervention lessons consisted of 1) basic Somali literacy lessons such as the alphabet and reading texts; and 2) resources that reflected the adaptation of Somali grammar to that of the English KS1 and KS2 grammar curriculum. Neither of these types of resources was abundant for the intervention sessions. *Miss Said's* comment: *'Mr. Shamsudin, my brother tried to read the Somali sheets you gave us yesterday',* indicates the scarcity of resources for pupils who were learning HL literacy. It was the case that the children may have enjoyed these specially made resources for them which had not been published or even produced in Somalia.

The sessions mainly relied on photocopied sheets featuring contents which I had devised, because of lack of Somali teaching resources in the class. Lack of minority language resources was noted in different studies such as those by Stoop (2017); Madziva and Thondhlana (2017); Seals and Peyton (2017); and Heller and Martin-Jones (2001).

5.3.4 Additional Discussion for Pupils with Unique Characteristics (Mr Ahmed, Mr Gelle and Mr Muallim)

The three pupils with unique characteristics (Tables 4.3; 4.4 and 4.5) displayed strengths and weaknesses in different HL literacy skills than the other pupil participants in the post-assessments. Mr Ahmed, who had experienced HL delay, displayed an ability in listening – receptive language and decoding skills – while he performed less well in comprehension and speaking when compared to other pupils. Martin (2009) warned that the problem of speech and language difficulty should not be understood from a perspective that attributes the problem to the child rather than co-construct the phenomena between the speaker and listener. Thus, understanding the reason as to why Mr Ahmed was a late-talking child was a challenge because he performed relatively well in the listening and decoding assessments (Challenges for understanding reasons for late-talking see Camarata, 2014). Wooles, Swann and Hoskison's (2018) suggestion for probing family history in order to understand the late talk was unrealistic because my research project was so small-scale that exploring Mr Ahmed's family history of hearing loss and talking late was not feasible. However, Mr Ahmed's difficulty in comprehension and speaking appeared to match Rescorla's (2009) findings. That study found that slow language development at 24 to 31 months was associated with a weakness in language-related skills which continued into adolescence when compared to typically developing peers. It is hoped that this would not be the case for Mr Ahmed.

Mr Gelle, who was born in Somalia and performed relatively well in the reading, comprehension and listening assessments, performed less well in speaking. Mr Muallim, who has no older sibling, performed relatively well in reading, comprehension and speaking, but less well in listening. These results indicated, in this case only, that when it came to speaking skills, the pupils' place of birth had no impact on their speaking skills, but it did have an impact on their listening skills.

5.4 Analyses of Parents' Semi-Structured Interviews

This part of the thesis anlyses the parents' semi-structured interviews of pre- and post-study in order to identify themes from the data that will contribute towards

answering the research sub-questions 1, 2, 3 (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Next, parents' language assessment data is analysed with the aim of providing answers to research sub-questions 1, 2 and 3 (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Finally, the findings from the parents of pupils with unique characteristics together will be examined, alongside their children's data, to consider whether the parents' performance was related to their children's performance. This was likely because parental attitudes and behaviour often impact upon how their child develops (Jeynes, 2011).

5.4.1 *The Analysis and Discussion of Parents' Semi-Structured Interviews Data*
The themes that emerged from the parents' pre- and post-intervention semi-structured interview data were similar to those of the pupils' post-intervention semi-structured interview data. The themes are: the importance of HL literacy learning including its importance for children's identity; pupils' cognitive advantage of biligualism; the importance of HL for communicative skills; strategies/barriers to maintain HL literacy. These themes will be analysed below.

5.4.1.1 *Theme 1: Identity*
5.4.1.1.1 *The Importance of Heritage Language for Identity*
Here I will quote parents' data from both their pre- and post-intervention interviews. For clarity, the pre-research interview utterances are given the label 'Mrs+ pseudonym surname+a', while the post-research quotations are labelled 'Mrs+ pseudonym name+b'. Parents commented on the importance of HL for the children's identity:

> 28) Mrs Ali (a): *To be able to read and write HL is essential because it is their first language, mother tongue.*

This remark shows that parents relate the ability to read and write HL to pupils' identity. It may also indicate how parents were eager their children to learn their HL. This could be because they were concerned about their children HL skills as they were born outside the heritage country. Thus, the parents placed great emphasis

on the verbal HL skills the children lacked. This perception was shared by other Somali parents in Bristol, who expressed their desire to learn HL literacy alongside the parent participants. This derived from the view that they, like the parent participants in my study, would then be able to introduce it to their children whilst also supporting their academic learning at home.

> 32) Mrs Abdi (a): *There is a lot of benefit because some ladies who are my friends and are parents themselves showed interest in attending these sessions which you* [me] *are running. Unfortunately, their children attend other schools. They are not in this school.*

In the post-study interviews, parents stressed the importance of HL for themselves and their children, talking about the uniqueness of the HL and calling its literacy learning an '*art*' which is unique and could skilfully be used by a person who possessed it:

> 9) Mrs Ali (b): *Firstly, the Somali language is important because it is my first language and mother tongue and it is important for my children. I will use it to teach my children.*

Mrs Ali showed how important HL was by using '*my first language*' and '*mother tongue*' as synonyms.

> 34) Mrs Ahmed (a): *Yes! In the first instance, each human being should have a language which is unique for them. Of all people in the world, Allah has given them a language which is special for them so if the person knows their language it is an art which is unique for them.*

5.4.1.2 *Theme 2: Cognitive Advantage*

5.4.1.2.1 *Learning Heritage Language Literacy gives a Cognitive Advantage*

Parents believed that learning HL not only gave social and academic advantages to the learner, but that it was the best language a person could learn. This belief might have evolved from their personal experience of living in a country which was not their heritage country. In the UK context, the advantage of HL literacy knowledge that parents mentioned include the learner's ability to compare what was being learned in English to what was learned in HL:

> 27) Mrs Ali (a): *So, the best thing that someone learns is it* [HL]*.*

> 8) Mrs Farah (a): *It will help him to understand when he is told it as an English word, he should be able to compare it with a Somali word.*

Prior to the study, when discussing *the advantage of HL literacy, parents talked about how it would benefit their children, rather than themselves. This could have been because of the uncertainly of how it would feel to learn or re-learn HL literacy as a parent. However, their views changed after the research period, possibly because they had experienced the joy of learning HL literacy and had realised their ability to compare English grammar to Somali grammar. This, in turn, seemed to have enhanced their confidence in supporting their children's Somali and English grammar:

> 32) Mrs Ahmed (b): *May Allah reward those who thought up, who supported and who executed this project. Personally, participating the sessions, there were no barriers whatsoever. If a person is motivated, they can do whatever they want to do. For me, prior to supporting the children with their grammar, this was the first time that I had learned the Somali language grammatically as well as a written method. I learned other*

languages while I was young, but I am learning Somali as a parent. I loved it so much!

In Somali culture, the use of this kind of religious blessing is regarded as an ultimate expression of well-wishing and sincerity:

14) Mrs Gelle (b): *Yes. I attend English language classes twice per week. Thus, this grammar* [meaning HL grammar] *and the English grammar complement each other. It seems that they are quite close to each other* [meaning their structure]. *So, thanks to Allah, I can help them* [meaning that she is now confident in supporting her children with their English grammar learning].

39) Mrs Duale (b): *However, the last session, when I understood them* [the active and passive sentence structures] *in my language in fact, I understood them, and they became easier. When a lot is explained in your language, you can make a comparison with other languages and it becomes easier, especially when learning a foreign language and using your language. That was really an advantage for me because at the beginning* [when learning the active and passive sentence structures in English] *I was confused.*

In this statement the parent, Mrs Duale, was referring to a lesson where she had been expected to learn how active and passive sentences are constructed. She had learned the structures of active and passive sentences in English and found it challenging. However, having learned them in the Somali language, made it easier to come to grips with the concept in English.

Parents also stated that they had gained confidence to support their children's HL literacy as well as their English grammar learning at home, which was another likely outcome of the intervention:

19) Mrs. Muallim (b) *Learning mother tongue is something that was very beneficial for us (as parents). I am now able to support my children and I learned how to make them understand.*

26) Mrs. Abdi (b) *Yes! I am now able to support my children. Before I knew the Somali language but now, I understand more, and I will be able to support my children.*

33) Mrs Ahmed (b): ….*very much so. When a person learns grammar in their first language, it encompasses the English grammar. There were things I didn't know in the Somali language, but I know now: verbs, adverbs and adjectives. If they* [the children] *had asked me in Somali before, I wouldn't have been able to tell them. However, now I am able to explain it to them.*

46) Mrs Farah (b) *Yes! I am able to help them (means supporting children's grammar) because I believe if the child knows his language all the rest will be easy for him. We benefitted very much from this class* (means as a parent and the child as well).

It was also before we began the session that a child, Miss Abdi, informed me that her mother, Mrs. Abdi, who attended yesterday's

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Somali session, showed and taught her the vocabulary which I was using for the session later that afternoon. I was delighted to hear that (From my reflective diary, 23.6.2016).

Similarly,

Recapping the last week's lesson about the adjectives, Mrs. Duale recounted an interaction that happened at home last night in the Somali language. 'I wanted to eat yogurt and asked my daughter (Miss Duale) to fetch a spoon for me. Then, she asked me which spoon I wanted: the big or small one? I told her the small one. I explained to her (in Somali) that the words big and small are adjectives (saying the word adjective in English). She continued, 'adjectives are important for making the situation clearer.' I was really glad to hear that (from my reflective diary, 9.11.2016).

Parents used to scaffold each other's HL literacy learning using other languages they know to reach a common goal.

When they (parents) were learning the active and passive sentences. I wrote on the board the sentence: warqaddii waa la tuuray- The paper was thrown; and asked them to identify the object and the subject of the sentence. Some parents gave different answers. Then, Mrs. Ahmed (who was quiet and thinking) began to explain: 'In this sentence, we have maf'ul (Arabic for the object) but the 'fa'il (Arabic for the subject) is missing.' Other parents thought for a while and unanimously agreed with her (From my reflective diary, 30.11.2016).

After Mrs. Ahmed finished her explanation, she expressed her learning approaches by comparing when learning HL and English literacies

> *When dealing with these questions (the sentences about the active and passive in the Somali language), I approach them with confidence even though I am not sure whether my answers are correct. In contrast, when dealing with questions written in English, even if I know the topic very well, I still lack that confidence and I am not sure whether my answers are correct (From my reflective diary, 30.11.2016).*

The interview and reflective diary data indicate the confidence that parents gained during the session which served as one of the study's purpose: empowering parents with confidence to support their children. This may be evidence, in this particular stance, that the Somali parents lacked the opportunity and resources to help their children at home; and if they were given the opportunity and resources, it would be beneficial for them and positively contribute to their children's attainment and motivation to learn their HL literacy as well as the English literacy.

Parents attributed their ability to support their children to different factors such as the benefit of learning of HL literacy learning and learning the written form of the HL rather than the oral mode they might have used to communicate with their children. Also, understanding how the HL grammar works, and in general attending in the intervention sessions were noted as factors that could have possibly attributed to the enhancement of their confidence in support of their children's learning at home. The above extracts show how the parents' perceptions of their ability to support their children's learning changed before and after the research intervention. Initially, parents might not have expected to gain as much HL literacy as they did at the end of the study. What is particularly important here is the confidence they gained for supporting their children's learning at home.

5.4.1.3 Theme 3: Social Communication Skills

5.4.1.3.1 *Heritage Language Facilitated Communication with Family and Relatives*

Parents explained that the children could use HL as a powerful tool with which to communicate with their families in the UK. This could include, when required, intimate conversations which are only reserved for close families:

> 17) Mrs Duale (a) :…*so, it is important when they* [children] *and their parents have private conversation to use their language. That is important!*

> 21) Mrs Said (a): …*it is important that the mother understands her children, so she can communicate with them with their mother tongue.*

Like the pre-intervention interview data, the post-intervention interview data highlights that parents believe that HL is the main interacting force that holds together the family, relatives and the wider Somali community:

> 10) Mrs Ali (b): *Yes. It is important because it is the language with which my children and I will use to understand each other.*

> 24) Mrs Muallim (b): *Learning the Somali language is very important for my child. Since he has attended the sessions, he can understand me more. Before he used to say 'OK' even if he didn't understand what I said. But now he says that he understands what I mean when asked something.*

HL is not only important for stimulating communication with families and relatives, but also for the wider worldwide Somali community and in the HL country.

18) Mrs Gelle (b): *Both here and in the heritage country* [meaning HL communications skill is pivotal in the UK and the heritage country].

29) Mrs Abdi (b): *Relatives who are not in this country and want to communicate with the children – how will they communicate with them? English?* [rhetorical question] *Our relatives don't speak English.*

The use of a rhetorical question in this quote above shows how imperative HL verbal skills are for child-relative communication. The message that came out of both data sets was that HL communication is important for family communication, communicating with relatives and the wider Somali community.

5.4.1.4 *Theme 4: Strategies and Barriers to Maintain Heritage Language Literacy*

Strategies

I have combined the two themes of strategies to maintain HL and barriers to HL, as they complement each other. Parents thought that different strategies would help to maintain the HL literacy. These included telling children bedtime stories and poems in HL, setting a policy of only using HL for verbal communication at home, ensuring that children transmit HL to the next generation, and encouraging parents to learn HL literacy prior to teaching it to others:

48) Mrs Farah (b): *…if you tell them a story at home and transmit what you would have done if you were in your home country and the world in general, they will get excited, especially by childhood stories. It is just a matter of making time for your child at nighttime, which is the best time for stories. This will create a good relationship between parent and child and a closeness between them, I believe that.*

41) Mrs Farah (b): *In the Name of Allah. Attending the Somali sessions was a great benefit for me in terms of developing the language and teaching it to the children.*

34) Mrs Ahmed (b): *The language is important for you and before you teach it to someone else you should learn it.*

It is interesting that parents spent more time discussing strategies for maintaining HL literacy in the pre-intervention interviews than the post-intervention interviews. Prior to taking part in my research, it might have been the case that parents were concerned about how to maintain HL literacy. However, they were less preoccupied about this afterwards. This may be credited to my research intervention because, during the course of the study, parents might have gained more confidence in supporting their children's learning than they had had prior to the intervention.

Barriers

Prior to taking part in my study, the participant parents thought that living in another country and not using HL at home were the only factors that threatened HL literacy maintenance. However, this perception changed as the study progressed. Other factors such as household tasks and institutional appointments emerged as barriers to HL learning. The latter can be further divided into two types: appointments with wellbeing service providers such as doctors, and appointments with income-related service providers:

38) Mrs Duale (b): *I think I missed one or two* [sessions]. *This was due to the harsh situation in this country: circumstances and appointments. In addition to that, I am a jobseeker and a lone parent.*

Despite being an employee working limited hours, the UK government demands this lone parent to work at least 16 hours per week to qualify for tax, housing and other benefits. However, working more hours would mean that Mrs Duale would have been

absent from home when her children are at home, a situation the authorities would deem as 'child neglect' and take punitive action against her.

      3) Mrs. Ali (b) *No. I attended some, for others I was bussy*

      13) Mrs. Gelle (b) *No. I didn't attend few sessions. The reason was: I have small children and I have no one to look after them. I also had to attend other appointments.*

      21) Mrs. Muallim (b) *I haven't attended some of the sessions because there was nobody to look after my children.*

      43) Mrs. Farah (b) *I missed some but attended all. I was busy with household tasks and other appointments*

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 below illustrate the themes that emerged from the parents' pre- and post-intervention semi-structured interviews; their frequencies and what they reveal, to provide a summary of the data and reinforce the central points that came out of the interviews.

Themes emerging from parents' pre-study semi-structured interviews (Appendix Y)	Theme frequencies and what they reveal
Identity	In 16 out of all the 34 whole utterances parents spoke about the importance of identity for their culture (Somaliness) and education, saying that some of the Bristol parents were interested in joining the sessions.
Cognitive advantage	In 8 out of the 34 utterances, parents thought that HL promoted cognitive advantage by enabling pupils to identify the differences between Somali and English sounds. They believed that the sessions would revive their learned HL literacy.
Communication	In 3 out of the 34 utterances, parents explained how HL was important for facilitating home and community communications.
Strategies/ barriers to maintain HL	In 11 out of the 34 utterances, parents explained that teaching children animal names and poems in Somali, setting speaking the Somali language at home as a policy and transmitting HL to the next generation were strategies to maintain HL. Factors such as living in another country, disuse of Somali HL at home and school were named as factors that acted as barriers to HL literacy development.

Table 5.2 Themes, their frequencies and brief explanation of parents' pre-study
Semi-structured Interview.

Themes emerging from parents' post-study semi-structured interviews (Appendix Z)	Theme frequencies and what they reveal
Identity	In 9 of the 48 utterances parents expressed that HL was important for the children's social and academic achievements. They also noted that they had nostalgic feelings for re-learning HL, which they related to their emotional identity. Further, they explained that their children's lack of verbal HL skills made them sad, opining that a having HL was a basic human right and need.
Cognitive	In 32 out of the 48 utterances, parents spoke about the benefits of learning HL for the children's social and academic achievements. Consequently, they were of the opinion that learning HL in addition to English would develop their brain agility to accommodate HL and other languages as well. They asserted that this would facilitate conceptual transfer across HL and English. Parents also noted that taking part in the study had helped them become able to support their children's English grammar learning at home.
Communication	In 9 out of the 48 utterances, parents elucidated the importance of HL for communication with their family, relatives and the wider community, noting that their children's HL verbal communication had improved as the result of the research intervention.
Strategies/barriers to maintain HL literacy	In 5 out of the 48 utterances, parents suggested ways to maintain HL literacy. These included the need for parents to have motivation and confidence in their own HL literacy before passing it on to their children and future generations; maintaining HL through bedtime storytelling; and parents being resilient when teaching their children HL literacy. In terms of barriers, parents noted that household tasks, appointments with service providers and poverty were all factors that acted as barriers to attending the sessions.

Table 5.3 Themes, their frequencies and brief explanation of parents' post study

Semi – structured Interview.

5.4.2 *Discussion of Findings in Relation to the Research Sub-questions*

This Section discusses my findings from the parents' data in relation to the research sub-questions 1, 2 and 3 to illuminate the extent to which my findings support the previous literature.

5.4.2.1 *Research sub-question 1: What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar?*

The data indicated that parents regarded HL as an intrinsic part of an individual's sense of belonging to a group. They expressed this in different ways, by using phrases such as '*mother tongue*', '*HL is unique for a nation*', '*it is an art*' and '*the best language to learn*'. These perceptions seem to reflect Tajfel's (1978) concept of social identity, which he described as a person's self-concept that emanates from their knowledge of belonging to a social group with whom they share values and emotional characteristics. It also reflects the UNESCO (1953) and the UNCRC (1989) encouragement of developing and maintaining HL.

Parents also commented on the importance of HL in nurturing communication at home and in the wider community. In the post-intervention interviews, both pupils and parents acknowledged that the HL sessions had facilitated developing communication and learning together at home, as well as attending the HL sessions together at school. This is in line with the second and fourth points of Epstein et al.'s (2002) six types of parental involvement model: 2) *communicating:* creating an effective school-home and vice versa method of communicating with parents; and 4) *supporting parents* to understand how to help their children at home with their curriculum-related activities. This can be related to ethnic capital (Borjas, 1992), as parents are transferring their learned HL literacy to their children. In this sense, they may also be acting as role models, symbolic capital for their children, by showing pride in a tradition '…that can be felt without having to be incorporated in everyday behaviour' (Gans, 1979, p.9).

The data highlighted that parents had gained confidence in supporting their children's grammar learning at home, as they became aware of how the English and Somali grammar structures are constructed. This confidence is likely to be long-lasting and will be beneficial for the family's younger siblings, as they should also directly receive support from parents. This benefit can be linked to Grayson's (2013) study, which explored parental engagement in education by focusing on closing gaps in attainment for disadvantaged pupils. One of the Grayson's (ibid) findings was that family learning programmes such as literacy and numeracy positively affect disadvantaged families and that their benefits last longer than the intervention period.

However, devising a meaningful intervention for disadvantaged families needs careful planning and a knowledge of their cultural background. Christine and Matthiesen's (2017) article focused on looking at how Danish public-school teachers and their principals conceptualize the Somali diaspora's parenting practices and how that affects their interaction with children in classrooms and home-school communication. The study noted that the teachers and principals drew on a deficit logic to make sense of Somali diaspora parental practices. The authors concluded that these strategies led to marginalization, as 'difference' was understood as 'wrong' or 'inadequate'. In contrast, my research set out with the intention of magnifying the participant parents' ethnic capital by empowering them with more confidence to support their children's learning at home. This is in agreement with Borjas' (1992) study, which asserted that the skills of the next generation depend on parental inputs and on the quality of the ethnic environment. The data from Borjas' (ibid) study revealed that the intergenerational progress of workers belonging to ethnic groups who had a relatively low level of human capital had been retarded by the low average quality of the group. Thus, my research aimed to enhance the level of participant parents' development of their symbolic and ethnic capital, in order to act as a foundation for the other Somali parents' support for their school children in Bristol.

Parents benefitted from living in favorable demographics, living close to each other, which enabled some participant parents' children to be looked after by a friend. This made it possible for the participant parents to be freed from some of the household tasks to attend the sessions. A factor that Bell (2014) explains to have an impact on language shift is how densely or scattered the immigrant minority society is. Thus, in

this case, living closely appears to have helped the participant parents to attend the sessions. Moreover, if they were scattered, they might find fewer opportunities to unite and develop their language. Additionally, institutional opposition is another factor that Bell (2014) attributed to language shift as almost always the host country employs the national language as the medium of instruction. In contrast to this, my school allowed me to carry out the study on the school premises which means that my school as an institution supported the Somali HL literacy development.

The study demonstrated enhancement of parents' confidence in supporting their children at home which was not the case at the beginning of the study

> 26) Mrs. Abdi (b) *Yes! I am now able to support my children. Before I knew the Somali language but now, I understand more, and I will be able to support my children.*

The semi-structured interview data revealed that household tasks and appointments with institutions were barriers to parents attending the HL literacy learning sessions. This seemed to indicate that parents may have lacked access to substantial financial, human and social capital that would enable them to attend the sessions. This financial, human and social capital has been described as ethnic capital by Zhou (2009); and they will impact on the next-generation's skills. This notion was also echoed by Rutter (1999), who explained that the social conditions such as poverty and bad housing in which refugee parents live have a great impact on their children's educational progression and their resilience. However, Rutter (ibid) noted that it was not only poverty, but also the rate of unemployment among people from minority ethnic communities that negatively impacted on the educational attainment of students from these communities. Although some of the parent participants in my study were literate when they arrived in the UK, they had still experienced barriers to finding decent jobs (see also Evans and Page,2012; Barnard and Turner, 2011). Thus, socio-economic deprivation is still an issue for many Somali families because of being on social benefit and living in poor neighbourhoods (Kahin and Wallace, 2017). However, parents suggested strategies to maintain HL literacy. Bedtime

stories and poetry are regarded by parents to help maintain the HL literacy. The 'bedtime' was specifically chosen as it may be an appropriate time to capture the child's attention.

5.4.2.2 *Research sub-question 2: Does learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar help the pupils and parents with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?*

The data revealed that the parents believed, perhaps as a result of attending HL literacy intervention sessions, that they were able to transfer concepts across the Somali and English languages. The example below reinforces this claim:

39) Mrs Duale (b): *However, the last session, when I understood them in my language in fact, I understood them, and they became easier. When lots are explained in your language, you can make comparison with other languages and they become easier especially when learning a foreign language and using your language. That was really an advantage for me because at the beginning I was confused.*

Here, learning HL seemed to have developed the parent's metalinguistic awareness. Cummins and Swain (1986, p.11) argued that bilingualism could play a nuanced role in stimulating a person's analytical orientation and '…increase(s) aspects of metalinguistic awareness'. Thus, in the above case, the parent's analytical orientation appeared to have been stimulated through learning HL. Moreover, the request of parents that they proceed from the decoding phase to the grammar phase whilst continuing to improve their writing skills may indicate that they mastered the vocabulary knowledge as their decoding skills relatively improved. This means that, as Trakulphadetkrai, et al.'s (2020) noted, they could identify and appropriately address the gap between abstract HL and vocabulary knowledge.

In addition, it may also mean that their metalinguistic awareness skills were enhanced by their relative success in HL phonological awareness for alphabetic reading according to Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan (2005). Also, Mrs. Ahmed's ability to analyze the parts of speech of the sentence *warqaddii waa la tuuray- The paper was thrown* (Section 5.4.1.2.1) using her HL and Arabic grammar knowledge can be evidence for conceptual transfer across the Somali, Arabic, and English languages. Similarly, Mrs. Gelle's assertation that the Somali and English grammar structures are quite close to each other and complement each other, shows her ability to compare the similarity and difference between the two languages, as Lanza (2004) stresses, by thinking and reflecting upon the nature and functions of languages. To arrive at this conclusion potentially requires an ability to conceptually transfer between the two languages.

Siu and Ho's (2015) study finding shows that first language syntactic skills may positively contribute to the second language reading comprehension; and that the finding supported Cummins' (1979) linguistic interdependence hypothesis of a transfer of linguistic skills across languages. From this, it can be inferred that parents' positive attitude towards HL grammar learning might play a role in conceptual transfer across HL and English languages as they (as bilinguals), according to Ikizer and Ramirez (2017), would be required to deal with adopting different contexts.

Also, parents' desire to continue to improve their HL skills illustrates, as Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan's (2005) findings indicate, the facilitating role of bilingualism in early reading depends on the relation between the two languages and their writing systems. Since the HL writing system is considered to be a shallow orthographic system and the English writing is an opaque system, parents might be able to assess their needs as bilinguals and find that their success could depend on how successful they could mitigate the relation between the two languages and their writing systems.

Finally, a meaningful interaction between the parent and the child regarding the daily home context experience is also suggested to be a way to advance the children's HL as well as English literacies.

> *I wanted to eat yogurt and asked my daughter (Miss Duale) to fetch a spoon for me. Then, she asked me which spoon I wanted: the big or small one? I told her the small one. I explained to her that the words big and small are adjectives (saying the word adjective in English). She continued, 'adjectives are important for making the situation clearer.' I was really glad to hear that (From my reflective diary, 9.11.2016).*

Borjas (1992) focused on the extent to which the skills of an ethnic group can be transmitted across generations and hypothesized that the link between the skills possessed by parents and their children arises because parents invest in their children's human capital in the context of migration. Mrs. Duale's teaching her daughter how the adjective works in both HL and English grammars may be one of the examples of ethnic capital transmission. Similarly, Mrs. Abdi's pre-tutoring at home to teach her daughter, Miss Abdi, HL vocabularies which resulted in a head start for Miss Abdi when the session began that day was another example. The crucial role of vocabulary knowledge in learning a second language was noted in Burgoyne, et al's (2009) study. The study demonstrated that EAL learners' difficulties in understanding written and spoken text of another language may be attributed to not only poor decoding skills but also the lower levels of English vocabulary knowledge. This may mean that vocabulary skills in one language may be transferred to another language.

In my study, this clearly shows the literacy skill transmission from Mrs. Duale to her daughter, and Mrs. Abdi to daughter, in the context of migration. This also seems to suggest, according to Meunier, Gutierrez, and Vignoles' (2013) study, that parental cognitive skills may have a direct impact on the child's cognitive skills as Miss Duale understandably reacted to her Mother's request; and the fact that Miss Abdi explained the HL vocabularies even before the session began.

On the other hand, although Borjas (1992) hypothesized that the link between the skills possessed by parents and their children arises because parents invest in their children's human capital in the context of migration, an extension can be made to this hypothesis: the link between the skills possessed by a parent with multilingual skills and other parents with less multilingual skills arises because the former parent invests in the latter parents' human capital (in the form of scaffolding) in the context of migration as the data from my reflective diary indicate. Mrs. Ahmed was able to scaffold other parents' learning about the passive sentence by using her prior knowledge of multilingual skills, Somali, Arabic, and English.

5.4.2.3 *Research sub-question 3: How can the Somali language reading, writing and grammar skills be maintained and developed among the Somali pupils and their parents?*

During my research period, I delivered 15 lessons which aimed to equip parents with sufficient HL literacy to support their children's learning at home. I hoped that the lessons would act as a catalyst for change in the pupils' academic attainment. The importance of parental involvement in their children's education has been noted by Ofsted (2011), Epstein et al. (2002), Hornby and Lafaele (2011), Kahin and Wallace (2017), Grayson (2013), and Goodall et al. (2011). The method followed during the intervention session was detailed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.9.4).

During the early stage of learning HL reading, what surprised me was the fact that parents out-paced pupils in reading skills despite pupils' daily English literacy engagement. A favorite factor for parents could have been their maturity since they might have been experienced in the texts that were used during the intervention. This can raise the question of whether there is a relationship between maturity-small grain -and-large-grain when reading. This is because both pupils and parents were at different stages in learning the English literacy skills which are, according to Ziegler and Goswami (2005), larger grain; and they were required to learn HL literacy, which in the sense of Ellis et al (2004), is a shallow orthographic system.

Another advantage for parents may be of their understanding that both HL and English use the Roman alphabet letters. In Bigelow and King's (2015) study, in the context of America, it was found that the Somali students were in an advantageous position when compared to other peer groups when it came to writing skills. This was attributed to the fact that the English and Somali languages share the Roman alphabet which might have meant that transfer between the two languages was easy for the Somali students. Similarly, Bialystok, Luk, and Kwan (2005) raised this point as they stressed the possibility of transfer of reading insight for those learning a second language and whose two languages were alphabetic as it resulted in a clear and significant advantage for them. However, from Bigelow and King's (2015) study, an inference can be made that the difference between shallow (Somali) and opaque (English) orthographic systems might have caused parent's (participants in this study) suspicion of their HL writing skills as they requested more time for HL writing. In conclusion, the confidence with which Mrs. Ahmed approached the HL literacy learning, as the data from my reflective diary shows, appears to be what enabled them to make the relative improvement in HL literacy while learning with parents with whom she shares identity. This is because, as (UNESCO, 1953, p.11) asserted, it is axiomatic that the best medium of instruction is the person's mother tongue. UNESCO (1953) further explained that, psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that the person's mind works automatically for expression and understanding; and sociologically, it is a way of identification for membership of a community to which the person belongs. Finally, according to UNESCO (1953), educationally, the person learns more quickly through their mother tongue than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium.

5.5 Chapter Summary

This Chapter has analysed participant pupils' and parents' data separately and then discussed the findings separately in relation to the 3 research sub-questions in order to address the central research question given in Chapter 1 (Section 1.7).

The pupils' data indicated that they had all been communicated with in HL by their parents prior to beginning school, and that their HL verbal skills had only weakened after beginning school, possibly because of English language acquisition. It also indicated that, after my research intervention, their receptive HL skills improved relatively more than their productive HL skills. Data from pupils with unique characteristics, in the case of Mr Ahmed (who had experienced HL delay), showed a good performance in listening skill, which might suggest a correlation between HL delay and good listening skills in later life, although maturation could also be a factor. Pupil participants' data demonstrated that HL-speaking competence declined after beginning school, regardless whether the child was born in Somalia or the UK and enjoyed effective HL input, if they began school before the age of 7.

The key findings that emerged from both the pupils' and parents' data were that they both regarded HL literacy learning as central to an individual's identity and that they had enjoyed learning their HL. Also, they highlighted that HL learning facilitated communications between their families and the wider Somali community; and that it helped with the conceptual transfer across Somali and English grammar. Parents explained that they had gained confidence in supporting their children's learning at home from the HL learning sessions; although appointments related to their wellbeing and poverty, as well as the needs of other family members, had acted as barriers to their attendance. In conclusion, I acknowledge that the HL literacy improvement shown by the assessment data cannot solely be attributed to my research intervention, since there could be other factors at home or due to interaction with community members or relatives that had contributed to this. However, it is safe to argue that the relative improvement of HL literacy could possibly be attributed to the research intervention.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

Following on from Chapter 5, which outlined the analysis and discussion of my research findings, this Chapter concludes by summarising the main findings and then explaining their implications. As the data were collected from pupils and parents of

Somali heritage in Bristol, subsequent recommendations are directed at the Somali community in Bristol, primary teachers, educators and policy makers in the UK. The chapter will then make suggestions for further research, before closing with a personal reflection on my experiences of conducting this study and what I have learned as a result.

6.2 Summary of the Main Findings

The study's central research question aimed to understand the beneficial ways of learning Somali HL literacy by KS2 pupils and their parents, who are of Somali heritage. It also sought to understand how that teaching equipped parents of these pupils with confidence to support their children's learning at home. To explore this, major theoretical framework and major studies in the three areas of the importance of HL, bilingualism, parental involvement and social capital theory literature were reviewed in Chapter 2.

In terms of the importance of HL, the findings indicate that pupil and parent participants regard HL literacy learning as an indispensable resource for their identity: as being a member of a group with whom they share values, in the sense of Tajfel's (1978) notion of social identity. Participants not only regarded learning HL as a stimulant to their social identity (being Somali), but to their spiritual identity as well. Although pupil participants used English as their dominant language, the findings from both the pupil and parent participants' data illustrate that they perceived HL as the best medium of instruction for academic achievements, so believed that it should be taught in the classroom alongside the English language. They also thought that it would promote individuals' psychological wellbeing, as learning it was fun. Moreover, they regarded HL learning as serving as a tool for communication with family, relatives and the wider Somali community in the UK and in the heritage country. They believed that passing HL on to the next generation, teaching and learning it in peer groups and using it as in a professional capacity would all help to maintain the HL. Furthermore, the data shows that a HL delay during infancy had a negative impact on how a child could express their opinion using HL speaking skills. Finally, pupils thought that being a member of a big family with many siblings acted as a

barrier to HL learning, because parents may be unable to accommodate the individual needs of each sibling.

Whilst there were similarities between the themes that pupil and parent participants raised, their dissimilarity revolved around the adults' responsibilities, such as childcare, dealing with household tasks and appointments with governmental institutions; and barriers and strategies to maintain HL literacy. Parents explained that teaching children HL in different contexts and reinforcing HL by speaking it at home would be helpful strategies to maintain HL. This addresses the research sub-question 1: *What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning reading, writing and grammar of the Somali language?*

The issue of bilingualism was reviewed in Chapter 2. My research findings build on Cummins' (1976, 1978) work on linguistic interdependence and threshold hypotheses, which argue that certain first language knowledge can be positively transferred in the course of L2 acquisition. My research participants showed certain competencies in understanding how HL adverbs work when they were able to read and understand HL literacy. This understanding might have actually emanated from their knowledge of how English adverbs is constructed. Consequently, this may mean that a concept learned in the English language was being transferred into another language, Somali. This was also found to be the case with parents, who explained that they were able to make more sense of English grammar when they had learned HL grammar. This addresses research sub-question *2: Does learning the reading, writing and grammar of Somali language by the pupils and parents help them with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?* In my study, the intervention sessions delivered aimed to: 1) explore how teaching Somali language – reading, comprehension, listening, speaking, writing and grammar structure – be beneficial for the pupil and parent participants; and 2) how it also enhanced the parents' confidence to support their children's HL literacy and grammar learning at home. An examination of the previous literature on Somali language studies reviewed in Chapter 2 showed that they were mostly motivated by nostalgic feelings for developing the Somali HL. However, this original research was not only motivated by maintaining and developing the Somali HL, but also intended to use it to improve the academic outcomes for pupil participants and further equip their

parents with confidence to support their children's learning at home. The findings also show that pupil participants collaborated and were fully engaged in the board game, as described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.9.4 -D), for example, by making up their own rule: '*no speaking English during the game*'. They also showed a positive attitude toward HL literacy learning even when they were not feeling well. Strategies they explained, to maintain HL literacy, are using HL as a profession and teaching peer groups outside of school. This addresses the research sub-question 3: *How can the reading, writing and grammar skills of Somali language be maintained and developed among the Somali pupils and their parents?*

In terms of parental participation, my research findings show the importance of school -parents working in partnership as outlined by Ofsted (2011), Epstein et al. (2002), Hornby and Lafeale (2011), and Grayson (2013), which all highlight parents' pivotal role in their children's learning. The parent participants spoke of the joy they gained from learning their HL and said that it had given them the confidence to support their children's learning at home. My study found that this level of confidence had a much wider impact in support which was beneficial for their own children and also for the wider Somali community in Bristol. By learning HL literacy, it is also probable that the intervention sessions increased parents' ethnic capital (as defined by Moran, 2016). Furthermore, they might be able to increase other local Somali parents' ethnic capital by sharing their learning experience with them.
However, my findings showed that poverty and household commitments were the key factors impede parents' attendance at the sessions. Poverty and household commitments were found, among others, to be the factors that acted as barriers to HL literacy learning. Some parents missed the intervention sessions because for instance: 1) they had to attend weekly face-to-face meetings with benefit officers to be eligible for certain benefits; and 2) they were caring for non-school age children. In this sense, the poverty they experienced can be related to unemployment and unpaid caring (see Barnard and Turner, 2011). This provides an answer for research sub-question 1: *What are the Somali pupils and their parents' perceptions of learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar?*

As parental HL literacy skills relatively improved during the sessions, parents showed skills of their multilingual skills to transfer concepts across languages. This addresses the research sub-question 2: *Does learning Somali language reading, writing and grammar help the pupils and parents with a conceptual transfer across the Somali and English languages?*

Furthermore, parents showed a positive attitude towards attending the session, they scaffolded each other's learning and used HL literacy with their children in different contexts at home. This addresses the research sub-question 3: *How can the Somali language reading, writing and grammar skills be maintained and developed among the Somali pupils and their parents?*

However, it is also important to mention that I decided which criteria to evaluate the participants' speaking and writing assessments. Finally, although matched English and Somali grammar of pre- and post-assessments have not been conducted, the findings from the grammar assessment conducted by the Year 5 class teacher shows that most of the pupil participants performed well when considered the topics they have learned in the intervention sessions.

In conclusion, I stress that my research was primarily focused on the benefits of learning Somali HL literacy by Somali heritage pupils and their parents in a specific context. Hence, the qualitative approach I have described in Chapter 3 did not seek to attain a generalizable reality of the 'benefit (positive impact) but to understand how learning HL literacy may affect the KS2 pupils and their parents in one school. Thus, only a context-specific answer can be given to the central research question: *In what ways can the learning of reading, writing and grammar skills of heritage Somali language be beneficial for Somali pupils and their parents in a primary school in England?*

My assertion is that, due to pupils' relative HL literacy (grammar) improvement and their positive perception of HL literacy learning: 1) they might be able to transfer this improvement into their English grammar learning; and 2) that participation in the study enhanced the social and spiritual identity of the pupils. It is therefore

reasonable to consider that a similar intervention in similar settings might yield similar results. Because of the parents' relative improvement in HL literacy and their affirmative perception of HL literacy learning, the HL literacy intervention appeared to better equip them to support their children's English learning at home. It is important to recognize that only a small number of pupils, 13, participated in the study, 4 of whom did not participate in the post-intervention data collection, making the data less representative. Only 7 of the 13 pupils' parents participated. Furthermore, I understand that the reality of the how learning HL literacy benefited by pupils and their parents in an English primary school is always subject to further testing and validation which may lead to new assumptions about participants' HL improvement and its positive impact on pupils and parental empowerment.

6.3 Contributions to the Literature

I am convinced that my research has made a major contribution to the literature on teaching Somali HL literacy and how that was benefitted by the Somali heritage pupils in a KS2 class, and also enhanced their parents' confidence in supporting their children at home. There are several reasons for this assertion. First, research in this area is limited and less specific to this particular context. In terms of the actual participants of this study, the pupil participants had never learned any HL literacy (except for some basic speaking of the HL), and their oral skills had diminished, probably as a consequence of starting school and being immersed in English. This study contributes to understanding the teaching and learning process of Somali HL literacy and how pupils may transfer grammar skills across the Somali and English languages. It also contributes to understanding how pupils' social and spiritual identity may be enhanced by developing one aspect of their ethnic capital – heritage language literacy.

Second, the parent participants consisted of those who had learned HL reading and writing in childhood but forgotten it and those who had never had an opportunity to learn it. Thus, this study contributes to understanding the teaching and learning process of increasing Somali parents' HL literacy, and how this can give them the confidence to support their children's learning.

Finally, my focus on the concept of the benefit of Somali HL literacy learning by pupils and parents contributes to the originality of my research. Since its application in school settings in the UK is not observed in a systematic way, the concept and its positive impact on pupils and parents remain unfamiliar to Bristol primary education stakeholders. Therefore, I hope that the findings of my study will be relevant for them and for other UK primary education stakeholders.

6.4 Limitations of the Research

This piece of research had several limitations. The first was the sample size of the parents who participated in both the pre- and post-intervention data collection stages, which impacted on the generalisability of the study. Though an intense approach such as this does not strive for this, the way in which a study can apply to wider contexts is important. As discussed previously, it is reasonable to consider that the findings may equally apply in similar contexts. Second, there was some gender disparity among the pupil participants, as boys outnumbered girls, meaning that my research is less able to contribute to national debates around differential education development between genders of Somali pupils. The parent participants were also all mothers – as fathers worked during the day and as a result of my research methodology design (sessions took place during the day). It would therefore be useful to conduct further studies to ascertain how fathers can be included in supporting their children's educational development. The third limitation related to the time availability of both pupils and parents to take part in the study. Although the school management allowed me to carry out my research on the school premises, I was aware that pupils might have grown tired and hungry by the time my sessions began at the end of the school day. The fourth limitation related to the parents' household commitments and income-related issues. Which created barriers to attendance at the sessions by parents and pupils. The fifth limitation was how these time constraints might have adversely affected the outcomes of the pupils and parents' language assessments and interview data. In other words, if more time had been available, the data might have revealed a different picture.

6.5 Implications of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

This research has demonstrated that learning HL literacy left an enduring impression upon the KS2 Somali heritage pupils and their parents, particularly with respect to its importance for identity and cognitive skills.

It supports an argument for a change in English-only teaching in Bristol primary schools and advocates for teaching HL alongside English for Somali pupils. This would suggest that teaching Somali HL literacy may be an important factor for enhancing pupils' academic achievements. Moreover, the study offers evidence for building parental confidence in supporting their children's learning by becoming involved in HL literacy learning. Thus, if the conclusions of this research project were confirmed by a larger-scale study, then there may be a case for primary school teachers, policy makers and the Somali community in Bristol, and perhaps nationally, to design and embed Somali HL literacy sessions for the benefit of pupils and parents of Somali origin.

6.5.1 *Suggestions for Future Research*

Firstly, future research into Somali HL literacy teaching might usefully focus on larger samples of primary age pupils and their parents. Without further research into the processes of teaching and learning Somali HL literacy (compared to KS1 or KS2 English literacy), it may not be possible to fully understand the positive impact of learning Somali HL literacy upon the English literacy in primary classrooms. Secondly, where the data collection is carried out on school premises during the school day, researchers should consider the need to allow sufficient time for the language assessments and interviews. If possible, the study should be conducted as a pilot project first, in order for pupil and parent participants to become familiar with the assessment and interview processes. Thirdly, consent and information forms in both Somali and English versions should not be considered as all that is necessary when seeking parental consent to participate in research. An additional session needs to be held for parents where a Somali interpreter with a familiarity with the

research process is available. Fourthly, in the case of executing the HL literacy intervention in school premises as an extra-curricular activity, researchers should consider planning a time for physical exercise and light refreshments for pupils to mitigate the fatigue caused by the additional session after school hours. Furthermore, due to the originality of this piece of research, certain resources which were specific to the aims of the study were unavailable. Thus, future researchers should allow for intensive pre-planning in procuring resources appropriate and standard assessments for their study aims.

Finally, a reflection on methodology is useful because, during the study, choices were made that might have affected the nature of the study. The interventions had positive as well as negative results. At the beginning of the study, pupils were less confident in decoding whereas parents were less familiar with grammar. I had to repeat the lessons to reinforce understanding as much as I could. Future studies could adopt this approach by planning for extra time for each session. As I worked with participants for a long period, I had both personal and professional expertise and was able to anticipate many of the potential pitfalls whereby a different researcher may not. For example, selecting texts that appeal to the participants' sense of belonging was an effective way of engaging and motivating them to read the texts.

6.5.2 *Suggestions for Future Action or Policy*

1. Due to the large number of Somali-origin pupils in Bristol schools, this research project reviewed the literature concerning the advantage of heritage language literacy in the classroom. Thus, policy makers should consider ways of fostering Somali HL literacy for the benefit of Somali-origin pupils' academic attainments.

2. Bristol policy makers should encourage and facilitate parental HL intervention activities to empower and equip them with the confidence to support their children's learning at home.

3. Bristol and other schools in the UK with large Somali-heritage pupils should replicate the activities of this study with the aim of developing their pupils' HL literacy and empower their parents with the confidence in supporting their children's HL and English literacy at home.

4. As they may be the first port of call for Somali HL literacy maintenance and development, the Somali supplementary schools in Bristol should replicate the findings of the current study for the benefit of Somali-origin pupils and their parents. They should also make every opportunity to celebrate and raise awareness of Somali pupils' identity, partly through their HL language.

6.6 Personal Reflection

Looking back on how I conducted this research project, I can reflect on its impact from the perspective of my role as a learning support assistant (LSA) working with pupils in the classroom and facilitating parents' communication as an interpreter /translator; and at the same time as researcher. These multiple identities required me to manage the power relationship between myself and participants, and among participants themselves. At the start of the study, although I had known pupil participants since when they began the Reception Class, I was worried about how to manage the parental sessions, as the parents' HL literacy knowledge levels varied. Moreover, undertaking this research made me question the nature of my previous relation with parents, as for the first time I considered the extent of trust parents had in me. This was crucial for collaborative learning and gaining confidence but presented me with dilemmas that needed sensitive handling and which I have given strong consideration to in Chapter 3 (Section, 3.2.1.7). For example, when a parent began disclosing private information while other parents were around, I intentionally steered the parent away from others whilst listening to what they wanted to tell me. This was to avert '…potential feelings of powerlessness and embarrassment' among the other parents (Loo, 2013 p.124).

Additionally, when it came to comparing pupils' and parents' abilities to sound out the HL letters, I was anticipating that pupils would outperform parents, since they learn English reading and writing every day. However, this proved not to be the case.

Nevertheless, when pupils grasped the sounding and decoding skills, they showed a faster pace of language development than their parents in translating English grammar concepts into HL concepts.

To sum up, I have learned the intensity of feelings which pupils and parent participants associate with learning HL literacy, which they believe is important for social and academic purposes. The pupils' spontaneous decision to embrace HL literacy learning made me question how different their academic attainment would be if HL was the medium of instruction. As a primary school learning support assistant and a member of the Bristol Somali community, I feel guilty for not previously attempting to find ways to develop Somali HL literacy programmes. I also learned that parents' trust in a researcher is pivotal for reducing power relations between a researcher and parents, and among parents themselves when learning HL literacy together. There is a reciprocity of trust from parents when the researcher is honest and respects and maintains their dignity (as observed by Cranmer and Nhemachena, 2013).

This study has contributed to understanding the methodology of teaching Somali-heritage pupils and their parents in one primary school Somali HL literacy and basic grammar in the format of KS1 and KS2 literacy and grammar. I assert that it has also contributed to understanding how that teaching may positively impact on pupils' and parents' conceptual transfer across Somali HL literacy and English.

In conclusion, it is important to recognize that this study was undoubtedly informed by multiple identities: as a learning support assistant, as a researcher and as a student; and that the analysis and conclusions were both intentionally and unintentionally magnified by the lenses of these identity perspectives. This reflects the multiple perspectives on the positivity of bilingualism noted in the literature review, which advanced different theoretical perspectives on how to view the effect of learning L2 on academic attainment. I acknowledge the existence of such different perspectives in both the process and outcomes of this study.

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8. Appendices

Appendix A Pupils' Assent Form

The Study: ***Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language.***

My name is Shamsudin Abikar and I am a student at the University of the West of England, Bristol. For my university exam, I need to investigate how the teaching of reading and writing in Somali language to the Somali children in KS2 can further develop their literacy in English language.

For this, I need to teach you the reading and the writing of the Somali language once per week (Thursday afternoon after school club) and will take for about 45 minutes. The club will be held in school. A Somali book and other resources which I prepared will be taught during the sessions and they will last for 5 months.

You can ask any question about these sessions and your participation is voluntary: you can say yes or no even after you said yes you have a right to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

Before the start of the sessions, you will be asked to read a Somali text and then answer questions, you will be asked to write in Somali about a topic and you will also be asked to speak about a topic in Somali. At the end the study you will again do the same reading, writing and speaking to see how much your Somali language is developed.

Your name or whatever you do in the sessions will not be shared with others and it will only be known to me. When the sessions are finished, I will share the details with you if you wish so.

………..

Name:………………………………………….   Yr……… Date:…………………………….

I have understood that taking part in these sessions are voluntary: I can choose to take part and, I can choose not to take part. I will tick the below diagram to show my choice.

Appendix B   Participant Consent Form:

Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language:

I hereby give my consent to participate in the above study which will be conducted by Shamsudin Abikar.

I was informed of the aim of the study and my data will be treated as confidential. I am also aware that I have the right to withdraw the study at the beginning of the writing-up phase of the study by contacting the researcher.

Shamsudin Abikar (Researcher)   Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Dr. Helen Bovill (supervisor)   Helen2.Bovill@uwe.ac.uk

_____

Name (print)

_____

Signature

_____

Date

Appendix C1 Participant Information Sheet

' Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language'

Dear participant KS2 parent,

Thank you for your interest in this study that aims to develop Somali children's literacy (at school) through developing their first language (Somali). This is a very important issue as researches indicate that concepts learned in one language can be easily transferred to the other languages. The study also aims to develop the Somali parents' literacy through the first language and will empower and enable them to support their children's literacy at home.

The study is part of my EdD education, and the results will be used to fully understand how developing first language literacy can advance the second language literacy. It is impossible to anticipate the precise outcomes of the study; however, the study is a collective endeavour for you as a parent and me as the researcher with the aim of discovering the outcomes when first language is used to develop the second language literacy.

The data collection of my study consists of assessing parents and children separately. The focus of assessments will be: reading and writing in Somali and questionnaire about your child's language status which is hoped to last (ca 15 minutes each). Also, a weekly session of Somali language will be run up to the end of the academic year (2015 -2016).

Children will be asked to do the reading, writing, listening and speaking assessments in Somali language which will last (ca. 15 minutes each). The speech assessment will be recorded and transcribed. You and your child can choose to opt out of the study at any time - without having to give a reason to the researcher.

Your name and the child's name will only be known to the researcher. I will make both of your data anonymous, which means removing your names and other identifying information. That means that others won't be able to see the answers you have given. If you or your child would like to access again what I have collected, you will be in position to let me know if anything in particular should be treated confidentially.

Thank you for your help!

Shamsudin Abikar

Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

University of the West of England

BRISTOL

Appendix C2 Participant Information Sheet (in Somali Language)

Akhbaarta ka qeyb-galaha: ' Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy at a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language'

Gacaliye ka-qeybgale (Waalid KS2),

Aad ayaad ugu mahadsan tahay sida aad u daneyneysid baaritaankaan qasdigiisu yahay sidii loo horumarin lahaa akhrinta iyo qoraalka dugsiga ee carruurta Soomaliyeed iyadoo la isticmaalaayo luqaddoodii hooyo. Baaritaankaan aad ayuu muhiim u yahay maadaama baaritaannada kale ay muujinaayaan in afkaarta lagu barto luqad ay sahlan tahay in afkaartaas loogu gudbiyo luqado kale. Baaritaanku wuxuu u qasdaayaa oo kale in la horumariyo akhrinta iyo qoraalka luqadda hooyo ee waalidka si ay u awoodaan in ay carruurtooda ka caawiyaan suugaanta marka ay joogaan guriga.

Baaritaankaan waa qeyb ka mid ah waxbarashadeyda EdD natiijada ka soo baxdana waxaa loo isticmaali doonaa in lagu fahmo doorka ay horumarinta suugaanta luqadda koowaad ka ciyaari karto horumarinta suugaanta luqadda labaad; Macquul ma aha in la saadaaliyo natiijooyinka ka soo bixi doona baaritaanka, si kastaba baaritaanku waa mid wadareed: adiga waalid ahaan iyo aniga baare ahaan si aan wadajir u ogaanno natiijooyinka marka luqadda koowaad loo isticmaalo in lagu hoarumariyo suugaanka luqadda labaad.

Macluumaad ururinta baaritaanka wuxuu ka koobnaan doonaa tijaabo waalidiinta iyo carruurta oo kala gooni ah. Tijaabada waxaa diiradda lagu saari doonaa: akhrinta iyo qoraalka oo Soomaali ah iyo su'aalo la xiriira luqadda Soomaaliga ee canuggaada. Tijaabada midkiiba waxay qaadan doontaa (qiyaastii 15 daqiiqo midkiiba) oo ah waqtiga kugu habboon. Waxaa kaloo jiri doona casharro luqadda Soomaaliga ah oo socon doona ilaa dhammaadka sannad dugsiyadeedka.

Carruurta waxaa la weydiin doonaa in ay sameeyaan tijaabo akhrinta, qoraalka, dhageysi iyo ku-hadal luqadda Soomaaliga (mid walbana wuxuu qaadan doonaa ilaa 15 daqiiqo qiyaastii). Tijaabada hadalka waa la duubi doonaa oo qoraal loo rogi doonaa. Adiga iyo canuggaadaba waqtii aad doontaan ayaad ka bixi kartaan baaritaanka idinkoo aan wax cudurdaar ah aan bixineynin.

Magacaada iyo kan canuggaada waxaa ogaanaaya oo keli ah baaraha. Macluumaadkiinana waxaan ka dhigi doonaa qarsoodi taasoo macnaheedu yahay inaan magaciina akhbaaraadka ka tiro taaso macnaheedu yahay in dadka kale ay arki karin jawaabta aad bixiseen. Haddii aad adiga iyo canuggaada dooneysaan waxaad arki kartaan macluumaadkii aan idinka ururiyey waadna ii sheegi kartaan haddii aad dooneysaan in waxyaabaha qaarkood ay tahay in si aad ah loo xifdiyo.

Aad ayaad ugu mahadsan tahay caawintaada!

Shamsudin Abikar

Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Appendix D1 Participant Consent Form:

Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language:

I hereby give my consent to participate in the above study which will be conducted by Shamsudin Abikar.

I was informed of the aim of the study and my data will be treated as confidential. I am also aware that I have the right to withdraw the study at the beginning of the writing-up phase of the study by contacting the researcher.

Shamsudin Abikar (Researcher)   Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Dr. Helen Bovill (supervisor)   Helen2.Bovill@uwe.ac.uk

_____

Name (print)

_____

Signature

_____

Date

Appendix D2 Participant Consent Form (in Somali Language)

Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language: Daah-furidda habka loo horumariyo suugaanta ardayda Soomaaliyeed ee dugsiga hoose iyadoo la isticmaalaayo suugaantooda luqadda koowaad

Waxaan halkaan ku bixinaayaa oggolaanshaheyga ka qeyb-qaadashada baaritaanka habka ay ardayda Soomaaliyed u bartaan suugaanta iyadoo la isticmaalaayo suugaanta afkooda hooyo uuna sameynaayo Shamsudin Abikar.

Waxaa la igu wargeliyey qasdiga baaritaanka. Macluumaadkeyga waxaa loo tixgelin doonaa si xafidan waxaana dooran karaa inaan ka baxo baaritaanka billowga qoraalka baaridda anigoo la xiriiraaya baaraha.

Shamsudin Abikar (Baare)   Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Dr. Helen Bovill (kormeere)   Helen2.Bovill@uwe.ac.uk

Appendix E   Participants Information Sheet (UWE Trip)

Participant information sheet: ' Exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language'

Dear participant (Yr5 parent),

Thank you for your continuing support for the study that aims to develop Somali children's literacy at school through developing their first language (Somali). As you know, children who participated in the study requested me to perform at the University of the West of England (UWE), Bristol. They also intend to show-case the Somali language skills they learned during the study. Therefore, on the 5th of May 2017, your child, other children who participated the study and yourself are invited to attend a conference where the children will perform.

During the day, I intend to collect data from your child: what he/she will say about the event (to and from UWE), his/her emotions and their performance at (UWE) using a reflective diary. Also, the next school day, I will organise a group discussion for the children where they will discuss about their experience at UWE. The time for the discussion will be discussed with the Yr5 class-teacher so as to not disrupt the learning. The discussion will last 20 minutes, and I will record the discussion using a tape recorder.

The data collected from both instances are important for the research as I hope it will shed light on the magnitude of the study's impact and I will incorporate it into the dissertation report. You have a right to decline data to be collected from your child in both instances without having to give a reason to the researcher.

Your child's name will not be used during the data collection period instead a pseudonym will be used which will only be known to me, as the researcher. If you or your child would like to access again what I have collected, you will be in a position to let me know and if anything in particular should be treated confidentially.

Thank you for your help!

Shamsudin Abikar
Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Appendix E2 Consent Form (UWE Trip)

Dear Parents,

During the Somali sessions, as part of the Somali language study which I conducted at a Primary School in the Southwest of England, the children asked me whether they could show-case their learned Somali skills at the University of the West of England (UWE) in which I study.

On 5th of May 2017, there will be a conference, English as Additional Language Conference which will be held at UWE on the 5th of May 2017. Therefore, your child and you, as a parent, are invited to attend it.

As the children requested, they will perform an activity/ies of their choice. All activities are learned during the Somali sessions.

We will be leaving the school at 9:30 am and will be back to school at around 2:30pm. A minibus is organised by UWE and you are not required to contribute to the cost. However, children are required to wear school uniform for the day.

If your child is eligible for school meal, the school will provide one otherwise you are expected to provide packed lunches for your child and yourself.

If you have further questions about the event, can you please contact me at the beginning or at the end of the school-day.

Yours sincerely,

Shamsudin Abikar

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Please sign the slip below to give your consent and return to me or give it to your child's teacher.

1) I give permission for my child (name) ……………………………………. To attend/perform at the EAL Conference which will be held at the University of the West of England on 5th of May 2017

Name of Parent (Print): ……………………………..

Signature:……………………….. Date: ………………………………….

Please tick the appropriate box

2) As a parent,
   a) I will be able to come along and attend the ☐ conference

   b) I will not be able to come along and attend the ☐ conference

Appendix F <u>UWE trip to Attend EAL & Equality Conference 5th May 2017</u>

Questions

1. how were you feeling before the trip?
2. How did you find Dr Helen's presentation?
3. What do you think of your presentation?
4. How was your experience on the trip?

Appendix G   Expressing Gratitude (Parents)

Dear Parent,

Thanks to both you and your child for participating in the study which looked at exploring ways of developing Somali pupils' literacy in a UK primary school through developing their literacy in their first language.

I really appreciate your help and motivation as well as your contribution to this important study which was invaluable.

I reiterate my appreciation for your honesty and willingness to assist me with this important study.

Thank you for your help!

Shamsudin Abikar

Shamsudin.Abikar@live.uwe.ac.uk

Appendix H Parents' Questionnaire about the Child's Language

Su'aalaha waalidiinta ee Luqadaha Canugga *(Parents' questionnaire about the child's language)*

Magaca canugga *(Child's name)*:--------------------------- Taariikhda *(Date)*: --------------------

Fadlan goobaabin geli midda saxda ah *(Please circle the appropriate one)*

1. Adiga iyo xaaskaada/odaygaada xaggeed ku dhalateen? *(where wereyou and your partner born?)*
   b)UK   t) waddankii   j) meel kale: -------------
   b)UK   t) the country   j) somewhere else:------------

2. Xaggee ayuu ku dhashay canuggaada? *(where was your child born?)*
   b)UK   t) waddankii   j) meel kale: -------------
   b)UK   t) the country   j) somewhere else:------------

3. Inta uu iskoolka billaabin luqaddee ayaad adiga iyo xaaskaada/odaygaada kula hadli jirteen canugga? *Before the child started school which language did you and your partner used to speak to them?*
   b) Soomaali   t) Ingiriis   j) labada   x) Luqad kale
   b) Somali   t) English   j) both   x) other language

4. Heerka canugga ee luqadda iskuulka ka hor Soomaaliga wuxuu ahaa? *Their level of Somali language was*
   b) hal eray (haa/maya) t) laba eray (aabbo kaalay)   j) weer   x) sheeko sheegid)
   b) One-word (yes/no)   t) two words (dad come)   j) sentence   x) telling story

5. Ka dib markuu iskuulka billaabay luqaddee ayaad canugga kula hadashaan? *After starting school which language do you speak to them?*
   b) Soomaali   t) Ingiriis   j) labada   x) luqad kale
   b) Somali   t) English   j) both   x) other language

6. Markaad Soomaali kula hadashaan luqaddee ayuu idinkugu jawaabaa? *When you speak to them which language do they respond to you?*
   b) Soomaali   t) Ingiriis   j) labada oo isku jira   x) luqad kale
   b) Somali   t) English   j) both   x) other language

7. Luqaddee ayuu guriga ku isticmaalaa canugga? *Which language do they use at home?*
   b) Soomaali   t) Ingiriis   j) labada   x) luqad kale
   b) Somali   t) English   j) both   x) other language

8. Canuggaada weli ma booqday waddankii? *has your child ever visited to the country of origin*?
   b) haa   t) maya haddii ay haa tahay ilaa intee ayuu/ayey soo joogay/joogtay ?
   b) 0 – 1 bil   t) 2- 6 bilood   j) 7 – 1 sano   x) ka badan 1 sano
   b) Yes   t) No   if yes how long did they remain there?
   b) 0 – 1 month   t) 2- 6 months   j) 7 – 1 year   x) more than 1 year

Aad ayaad u mahadsan tahay (thank you very much)

Appendix I <u>Reading Assessment</u>

<u>Celceliska akhrinta saxda ah</u>

Magaca			Taariikhda:		
Cinwaanka akhrinta					
Tirada ereyada (100)			Khalad 1:	Sax	%
Faallo					

<div align="center">Reading assessment (Somali)</div>

Fadalan akhri nuqulka hoos ku qoran ka dibna ka jawaab su'aalaha

<div align="center">Biyaha</div>

Biyaha waa shey meel walba laga helo. Biyaha waxaa laga helaa circa iyo dhulkaba. Waxaa lo isticmaalaa siyaabo kala duwan. Biyaha muhiimaddooda waxaa ka mid ah in loo isticmaalo siyaabo kala duwan oo nolosha la xiriirta. Tusaale ahaan, waxaan u baahannahay inaan biyaha cabon, inaan ku qubeysanno, inaan dhirta ku waraabinno, inaan cuntada ku karsanno iwm. Dhulka aan ku nool nahay boqolkiiba todobaatan waa biyo. Qofka Bini'aadamka jirkiisa ka badan kala bar ayaa biyo ah.

Haddii ay biyo jirin, dhirta, dadka iyo xayawaanka dunida ku nool oo dhan harraad ama oon ayey u dhiman lahaayeen.

Sida aan ognahay, cimilada dunida

Appendix J Ontario Ministry of Education and TFO Reading Calculation

		Fudud	Dhexdhexaad	Adag
N/khaladka 100/2= 50 Khaladka= 1:50 1:50= 98% sax		1:200 99.5% 1:100 99% 1:50 98% 1:35 97% 1:25 95% 1:20 95%	1:17 94% 1:14 93% 1:12.5 92% 1:11.5 91% 1:10 90% 1:20 95%	1:9 89% 1:8 87.5% 1:7 85.5% 1:6 83% 1:5 80% 1:4 75% 1:3 66% 1:2 50%

Adopted from education Ontario Ministry of Education and TFO [2019].

Appendix K   <u>Comprehension Assessment</u>

Magaca……………………………………   Taariikhda:………………….

<u>Comprehension Assessment (Somali)</u>

Fadalan akhri nuqulka hoos ku qoran ka dibna ka jawaab su'aalaha

Biyaha

Biyaha waa shey meel walba laga helo. Biyaha waxaa laga helaa circa iyo dhulkaba. Waxaa lo isticmaalaa siyaabo kala duwan. Biyaha muhiimaddooda waxaa ka mid ah in loo isticmaalo siyaabo kala duwan oo nolosha la xiriirta. Tusaale ahaan, waxaan u baahannahay inaan biyaha cabon, inaan ku qubeysanno, inaan dhirta ku waraabinno, inaan cuntada ku karsanno iwm.

Dhulka aan ku nool nahay boqolkiiba todobaatan waa biyo. Qofka

Bini'aadamka jirkiisa ka badan kala bar ayaa biyo ah.

Haddii ay biyo jirin, dhirta, dadka iyo xayawaanka dunida ku nool oo dhan harraad ama oon ayey u dhiman lahaayeen.

Sida aan ognahay, cimilada dunida hadba waa isbedeshaa iyadoo tirade dadka adduunka ku noolna ay tiradooda sii kordheyso kuwaasoo u baahan biyo ay isticmaalaan. Marka waxaa muhiim ah in biyaha si wanaagsan loo isticmaalo.

Su'aalo

1. xaggee laga helaa biyaha?

....

2. Sheeg waxyaabaha aan biyaha u istcimaalno?

....

3. Haddii biyo la waayo maxaa dhacaaya?

....

4. Ilaa iyo intee ayaa jirkeenna biyo ah?...

Appendix L   Writing Assessment

Magaca:……………………………….   Taariikhda:………………………

Writing assessment (Somali)

Fadlan qor waxa aad la kulantay laga soo billaabo markaad hurdada ka toostay ilaa iyo hadda.

Appendix L   Writing Assessment

Appendix M <u>Listening Assessment</u>

Magaca:…………………………………… Taariikhda:…………………………

<u>Listening assessment (Somali)</u>

Maalin maalmaha ka mid ah ri' ayaa timid ceel si ay biyo uga cabto. Ri'dii markii ay ceelka timid ayey oo ay rabtay in ay biyo cabto ayey maqashay dhawaaq. Dhinacyada ayey fiirisay si ay u ogaato meesha dhawaaqa ka imaanaayo. Ugu dambeyntii ayey maqashay dhawaaqii oo dhahaaya " waxaan ku jiraa ceel".

Ri'dii markii ay fiirisay ceelka ayey waxay ku aragtay dawaco ceelka ku jirta.

"maxaa ku geliyey ceelka dhexdiisa?" ayey ri'dii su'aashay dawacadii.

"biyaha ceelka dhexdiisa ayaa ka qaboow kana macaan kuwa bannaanka" ayey ku jawaabtay dawacadii. Waxayna sii raacisay "soo bood anigaa ku qabanaayee si aad biyahaan macaan u cabtid".

Ri'dii iyadoo aan ka fiirsan ayey isku tuurtay ceelkii. Ka dib markii ay biyaha ka dheregtay, ayey dawacadii tiri "adiga ceelka waad soo gashay ee ma ka fekertay sidii aad uga bixi lahayd?"

Ridii wey naxday, "maya kama fekerin!" ayey tiri.

"ii oggoloow inaan dhabarkaada ku istaago oo aan ka baxo ceelka ka dibna anigaa gacanta ku soo qabanaaya si aad adigana u soo baxdo ayey dawacadii tiri".

Ri'dii wey oggolaatay.

Markii dawacadii bannaanka u baxday ayey tiri "macasalaama ! ma rabo inaan kaa soo saaro ceelka"

Sidaas ayey dawacadii uga tagtay ri'dii oo ceelka ku jirta.

Su'aalo- goobaabin geli midda saxda ah:

1. Yaa ku jiray ceelka?
   b) Ri'da t) ceelka j) dawacada
2. Ri'dii markii ay ceelka timid maxay maqashay?
   b) dawaco   t) dhawaaq   j) nin
3. Maxay dawacadii ku qancisay ri'dii si ay ceelka u soo gasho?
   b) in biyaha kore ay ka qaboow yihiin kana macaan yihiin kuwo ceelka
   t) in ceelku fiican yahay
   j) in ay ceelka dhexdiisa ku sheekeystaan

Appendix N

<u>Speaking Assessment</u> (Somali)

Magaca:………………………………………. Taariikhda:………………………………

1. Fadlan ka hadal marka aad saakay soo toostay ilaa iyo hadda waxa aad qabatay?

2. Fadlan ka hadal dugsiga aad dhigatid?

Appendix O Somali Language Lesson Plan for Pupils

Lesson: 12	**Date**: 10.11.16 (after school)	**Venue**: in Yr5	
Previous-assessment outcomes (for the most pupils): • Most parents understood adjective	• **Learning Objective**: to be able to identify and use the adverbs (fal-sifeeye).	**Resources**: OHP	**Medium Instruction**: Somali Language
Activate prior knowledge: Recap the adjective using OHP	**Main teaching**: • Using the OHP write: • Wiilku wuu socday (the boy walked). • Wiilku wuxuu u socday si tartiib ah (the boy walked slowly). • Ask PUs what is the difference between these sentences focusing the different? • Illicit many answers and build on the correct or the near correct ones.	**Main activity**: • Explain that fal-sifeeyaha (the adverb) is used to describe the verb. **Evaluation:** • No time for writing adverbs. PUs developed awareness of how the two languages (Somali and English) are structured. • Difficulty in sounding the numbers (count)	**Plenary**: • If time permits, PUs to write more example of adverb.

Appendix P   Somali language Lesson Plan for Parents

Lesson: 09	**Date**: 12.10.16 09:00am – 09:45am	**Venue**: Studio Room	
Previous-assessment outcomes: • Parents requested for grammar teaching.	**Learning Objective**: to be able to identify and use pronouns.	**Resources**: OHP.	**Medium Instruction**: Somali Language
Activate prior knowledge: • Recap using OHP the Somali articles (main: ka-for male & ta- for female	**Main teaching**: • Using the OHP write: • Axmed wuxuu joogaa gurigu (Ahmed is at home) and isagu wuxuu joogaa guriga (he is at home). Ask PRs what is the difference between the two sentences. • Explain that certain words substitute the nouns. • Explain the 1st, 2nd and 3rd person concept.	**Main activity**: • PRs to write down sentences with different pronouns. **Evaluation**:	**Plenary**: • If time permits, PRs to write more example of words with article and those without

Appendix Q Intervention Sessions (Lesson objectives)

Lesson No	Lesson objective
01	Identifying and sounding out the alphabets and vowels
02	To reinforce Lesson 01
03	Reinforcement of Lesson
04	To use phonics and vowels confidently
05	To be able to use double consonants.
06	To consolidate previous learnings.
07	To embed and consolidate understanding the double consonants.
08	To be able to read a familiar recount story
09	to effectively use the capital letters and the full stop and understand the difference between a proper noun and common nouns.
10	To be able to identify and use pronouns
11	To be able to identify and use the adjectives (Sife)
12	To be able to identify and use of adverbs (fal-sifeeye)
13	To be able to identify numbers up to 1000 in Somali language
14	To be able to read a non- fiction text: African continent
15	To be able to identify and use the verbs (ficil). + Active & passive sentences (for parents)

Appendix R Somali Language Board-Game

Meeqa xarafka 'a' ayaa magacaada ku jirta?	Wiilka adeerkaa dhalay maxaad isu-tihiin?	Lixdan iyo afar u qeybi siddeed waa meeqa?	BILLOOW ℗	Maalin wanaagsan ku dheh qofka midigta kaa fadhiya	Weydii qofka bidixda kaa fadhiya magaciisa	Kor u bood seddex jeer	Xaggeed ku dhalatay?
Akhri: basal, toon, guri, faras							Aax! Nasiib xun. Gadaal u noqo seddex tallaabo
Nasiib darro afar tallaabo dib u noqo							Sheeg jawaabta seddex lagu dhuftay shan
Doonta Dugsiga Cabot taal xagee loogu magac daray?							U ciy sida libaaxa
Waddanka Suudaan Qaaraddee ayuu ku yaallaa?							Lugta midig oo keli ah ku istaag ilaa tiro toban
Nasiib wanaagsan shan tallaabo horay u soco	Sheeg caasimadda Sacuudi Caraabiya?	Waa meeqa afar lagu daray siddeed?	Sheeg meeqa qaaradood ayaa dunida jirta.	Sheeg magaca xayawaanka laga liso caanaha aan cabno	Istaag aadna qolka geeskiisa	Sheeg shaqallada dheer ee af-soomaaliga	Sheeg caasimadda waddankaan Ingiriiska

Appendix S Reflective Diary

Appendix T Diary Entries

Diary entries	
Dates and place where	**Comments**
1. **07.06.2016**	*Tonight, I am excited about how it will turn out to be tomorrow. I have checked again the info, consent forms and the USB in case I need to present the information and consent forms on the whiteboard.*
2. **08.06.2016**	
4. **14.06.2016**	
5. **15.06.2016**	
7. **22.06.2016**	
8. **23.06.2016**	
10. **27.06.2016** at 08:40am	
11. **28.06.2016** at 07:05 (home Livingroom)	

13. **04.07.2016** at 01:25 (after midnight prayer- Ramadan time)	
14. **05.07.2016** at 08:00 in the school staffroom	
16. **11.07.2016**	
17. **15.07.2016** at 07:55 in the school ICT room	
19. **05.09.2016** (first day of the Academic Year)	
20. **14.09.2016**	
22. **18.09.2016**	
23. **28.09.2016** at 17:30 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
25. **05.10.2016** at 17:30 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
26. **07.10.2016** at 07:30 in the school ICT room	
28. **13.10.2016**	
29. **19.10.2016** at 17:10 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
31. **26.10.2016** at 17:20 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
32. **02.11.2016** at 17:15 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
34. **05.11.2016** at 19:45 on the bed	
35. **07.11.2016** at 19:42 on the bed	
37. **10.11.2016** at 18:29 on the bed	
38. **16.11.2016** at 08:45 in the school studio	

|	
40. **30.11.2016** at 08:45 in the school studio-room + at 17:20 at Easton Leisure Centre- my son is swimming	
41. **14.12.2016** at 09:00 in the school studio-room	

Appendix U Pupils' Semi-Structured Interviews

Participants	Questions	Responses	Comment	Theme
Mr. Muallim	1	80) The thing that is good about the Somali language is because it is my first language. All my ancestors learned Somali. It is my first language and it is easier than English	80)Somali is Mr Muallim's first language His ancestors were Speakers of Somali language. Establishing that first language is easier than second language (in this case) Relating learning HL to Somaliness identity	Identity
Mr. Muallim	2	81) Nothing was bad	81)	
Mr. Muallim	4	83) Yes! Because…em…em..because…em…em first 'ma ogeyn wuxuu leyli ahaay iyo in ii barto ay ahayd' now I can answer questions. Yes…because…em…em…em at first, I didn't know what Leyli was and I was to learn it. Now I can answer the questions	83)He was confident that he could answer the HL comprehension questions. Talked about 'leyli' 'exercise'. It is fascinating that pupils remember this word 'leyli'. Two other pupils mentioned it. Proud of HL (identity) + HL promotes learning vocabulary.	• Identity • Cognitive advantage
Me		84) OK! But what about grammar?	84)Layli was about comprehension. I wanted to know his learning about HL grammar and how that facilitated English grammar if any.	
Me		86) Is there anything else you want to say?	86)Probing for more information	
Mr. Muallim		87) I want to learn more about the numbers because I know only up to --1000. No. 1 -900,000	87)Assessing his learning-what he knows and what he needs to learn more	Cognitive advantage
Mr. Muallim		89) No. 1 -9000	89)He corrected himself	

		305		
Me		90) And you want to learn more	90)Checking	

Appendix U1 Pupils' Colour-Coded interview: Blue for identity, Green for cognitive advantage, Red for communication and Ruby for strategies for maintaining Heritage Language and barriers to learning Heritage Language literacy

Pupil	Utterance Number	Utterance
Mr Farah	9)	…ee…um… I can get things for my mum because she has diabetes and she is very ill most of the time. To get things for her, she says them in Somali, and I don't know what those things are. If I learn more Somali I can…I can figure out what these things easily.
Mr Gelle	73)	Eem… to be ...to teach other people Somali when I am bigger
Miss Said	99/101)	I want to learn more in Somali, but I can't come… Because I don't have time.
Mr Muallim	80)	The thing that is good about the Somali language is because it is my first language. All my ancestors learned Somali. It is my first language and it is easier than English.
Mr Muallim	85)	The grammar I am now able to translate from English to Somali

Appendix U2 Pupils' Extracts Regrouped Under Two Themes: HL as a right and HL as a resource)
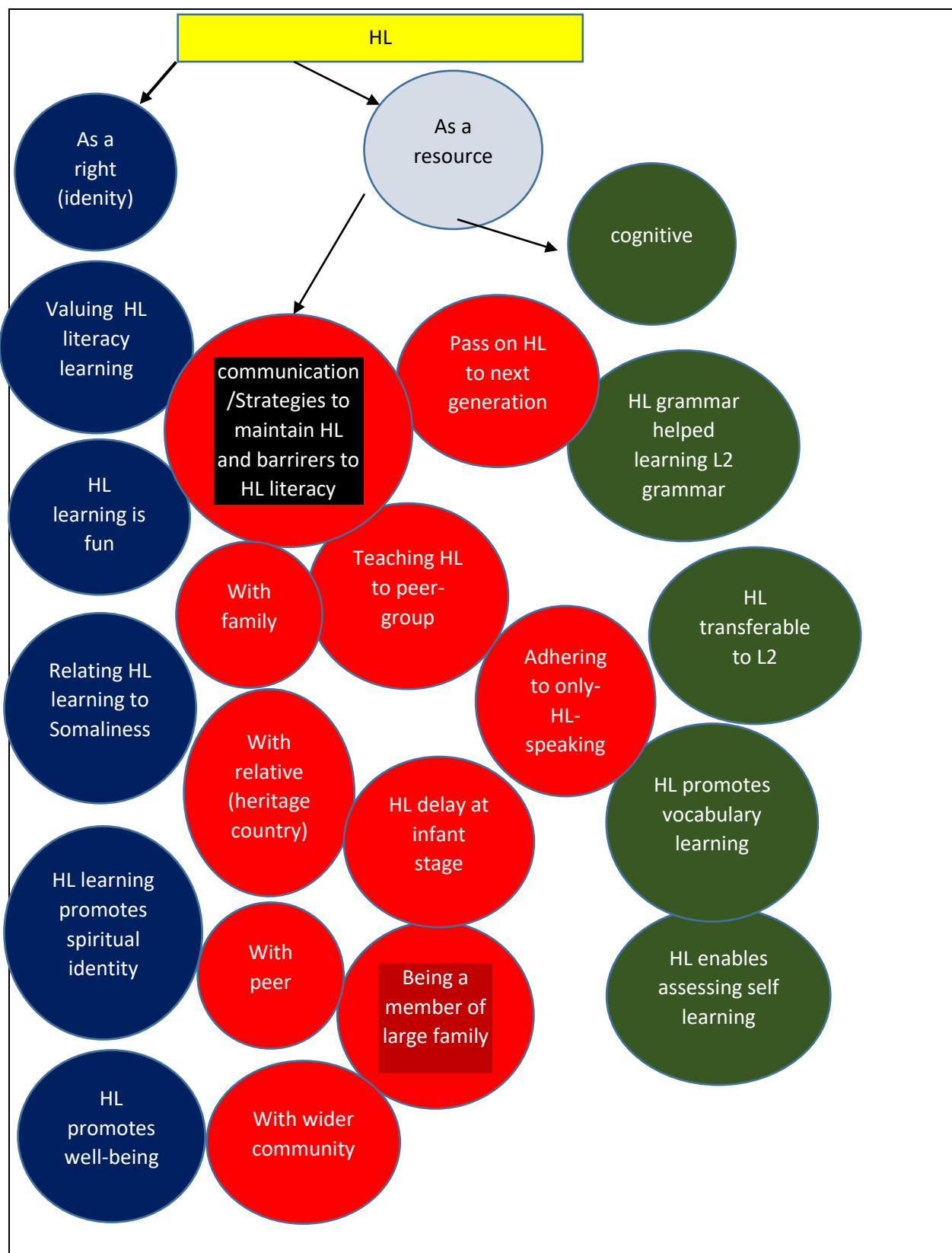
Appendix V   Parents' Pre-Intervention Semi-Structured Interviews

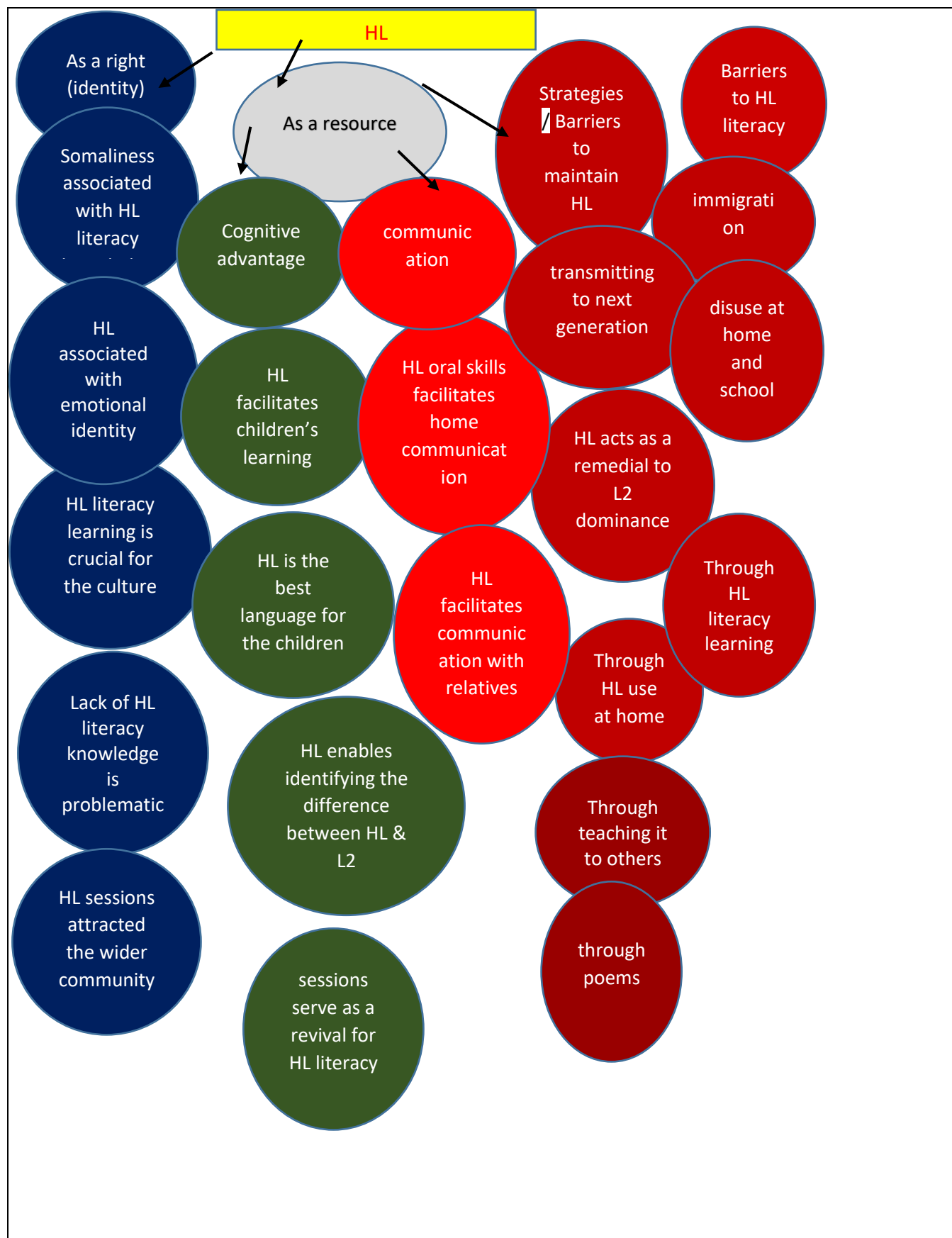| Participant	Questions		Translation into English Emerging extracts (in red font)	Theme
Mrs Abdi	1	31)Wallaahi casharrada Soomaaliga horta waxaan u arkaa wax weyn oo faa'iido ah. sababtoo ah…een. aniga ahaanba Soomaaliga waqti hore ayaa iigu dambeysay. Af Soomaalina wax waa koo bartay haddana anigoo ilaabay wax badan ayaa ii faa'iiday oo alifbeetadii aan ilaaway aan dib u xasuustay haddeertaan. Ilmaheygii oo haddeertaan af-Soomaaligii si fiican u hingaadinaayey iyagoo aan markii hore waxy yar yar aan barbaray faa'ido weyn ayey gabadheyda yar ka heshay.	31)By Allah the Somali lesson, firstly, I regard them a big and beneficial thing. This because…een… for myself it is a long time since dealing with the Somali language. The Somali language was my medium of instruction and now as I forgot a lot, I will be able to retrieve the alphabets. I attempted to teach my children how to sound out the Somali letters, she will benefit • Regards HL literacy learning a great opportunity (valuing HL literacy). • Despite used HL as a medium of instruction (in Somalia), the parent forgot it and the sessions serve her as revival of what was forgotten sessions served as a revival for HL literacy	• identity • cognitive advantage (stimulation-reminiscent of what was learned years ago)
				•

	2	32) Faa'iido badan ayaa ku jirto waayo gabdha badan oo aan saaxiib nahay oo waalid ah ayaa iyagana ayaa xataa jecleystay in class-ka adiga aad sameysid in ay yimaadaan laakin unfortunately ma dhicin sababtoo ah iyaga ilmahood iskuul kale ayey u dhigtaan. Iskuulkaan ma dhigtaan. Marka aniga xataa af-Soomaaliga hadda hingaadda badan awal waa qoraayey hadana wixi macnaha double-ahaa ayaa laga yaabaa inaan hal xaraf ahaan u qori jiray. Haddana in ay laba-laba yihiin ayaan ogaaday.	32)There is a lot of benefit because some ladies who are my friends and are parents themselves showed interest in attending these sessions which you are running. Unfortunately, their children attend at other schools. They are not in this school. So, even me the Somali language now, I used to write a lot of alphabets and now, what I mean is, I may write the double letters as a single letter. Now I now they are double • The wider community (other parents in other schools) interest in attending the sessions. • HL sessions attracted the wider community. • Sessions enabled the remembrance of HL sounding pattern (double consonants).	• Wider community identity • Revival of phonics. • Cognitive stimulationphonics
	3	33) Wallaahi aad iyo aad ayey iila fiican tahay. Sababtoo ah hadduu maanta afkiisa uu barto waxaa jira waalidiin ayeeyayaal, awoowayaal oo aan af-ingiriiska aan aqoonin oo ilmihii hadhoow in ay hadhoow kula hadlaan af-Soomaali. Faa'iidada ugu weyn waa taas in ay ilmaha bartaan luqaddooda hooyo.	33)By Allah for me it is very good. Because if the child today learns his language, there are grandparents grandmother, grandfather who don't understand English and want to communicate the child with the Somali language. The main benefit is that- that the children learn. Their mother tongues. This parent indicates that children should learn their HL speaking in order to effectively communicate with relatives back in native country. • HL facilitates communication with relative	• Communication

		34) Dhinaca casharrada waxay ogaanaayaan hadda een… faraqa u dhaxeeya af-Soomaaliga iyo af-Ingriiska. Sida dhawaaqa G, F wey ogaanaayaan sida loogu dhawaaqaaya af-soomaaliga.	34)For the lessons, children will understand the difference in sound between HL & L2. • HL enables identifying the difference between HL & L2 sounding system.	Cognitive advantage (Metalinguistic awareness-HL as a resource).

Appendix V1 Parents' Colour-Coded Pre-Study Interview: Blue for identity, Green for cognitive advantage, Red for communication and Ruby for strategies for maintaining Heritage Language and barriers to learning Heritage Language literacy

Parent	Utterance Number	Utterance
Mrs Farah	2)	The Somali sessions, I think, are very important sessions. It is very important for the person to learn his mother tongue and then teach it to his children.
Mrs Farah	8)	It will help him to understand when he is told it as an English word, he should be able to compare it with a Somali word.
Mrs Duale	11)	Assalamu Aleikum. Attending the Somali sessions is very important for me and the children. This because the person needs to know and understand his language, culture and everything.
Mrs Abdi	33)	By Allah for me it is very good. Because if the child today learns his language, there are grandparents: grandmother, grandfather who don't understand English and want to communicate the child with the Somali language.

Appendix V2 Extracts Regrouped Under Two Themes: HL as a right and HL as resource

HL

As a right (identity)

Somaliness associated with HL literacy

HL associated with emotional identity

HL literacy learning is crucial for the culture

Lack of HL literacy knowledge is problematic

HL sessions attracted the wider community

As a resource

Cognitive advantage

HL facilitates children's learning

HL is the best language for the children

HL enables identifying the difference between HL & L2

sessions serve as a revival for HL literacy

communication

HL oral skills facilitates home communication

HL facilitates communication with relatives

Strategies / Barriers to maintain HL

transmitting to next generation

HL acts as a remedial to L2 dominance

Through HL use at home

Through teaching it to others

through poems

Barriers to HL literacy

immigration

disuse at home and school

Through HL literacy learning

Appendix W Parents' Post-Intervention Semi-Structured Interviews

Participant	Questions	Text in Somali	Translated into English (italic) Emerging extracts in **(Red font).**	Theme
Mrs. Ahmed	1	32) Bismillaahi Raxmaani Raxiim een waxaan u arkaa si fiican. Qofkii ra'yigaan keenay kuwii support-gareeyey iyo kuwii fuliyeyba waxaan leeyahay Jazaakum Allah Kheyr. Ka soo qeyb galkiisana aniga shakhsi ahaan wax caqabad ah oo ka soo qeybgalkiisa iga hor-istaagay ma jirin. Qofka haddii uu rabo inuu wax sameeyo wax walboo ka hor yimaada wuu sameyn karaa. Aniga nafteyda intaan carruurta caawinin garaamar ahaan aniga nafteyda bay ahayd markii iigu horreysay ee aan barto qoraal ahaan iyo garaamar ahaan luqadda Soomaaliga. Luqado kala Ayaan bartay laakin anigoo waalid ah waa markii iigu horreysay. Aad iyo aadna waan u jecleystay.	*32)May Allah reward those who thought, who supported and who executed this project.* (The use of this kind of blessing in Somali culture can be regarded as an ultimate well-wishing and sincerity). *Personally, participating the sessions, there were no barriers whatsoever. If the person is motivated, they can do whatever they want to do. For me, prior to supporting the children with their grammar, this was the first time that I learn the Somali language grammatically as well as a written method. I learned other languages while I was young, but I am learning Somali as a parent. I loved it so much.* • Valuing (nostalgic) HL literacy learning • HL literacy learning needs motivation. • Gained confidence of supporting her children •Cognitive advantage	• Identity • Strategy • confidence
Mrs Ahmed	2	33) Aad iyo aad qofka markuu barto, luqaddiisana uu wax ku barto garaamar ahaan u baddalo ee uu fahmo First Language-kiisii English-kiina wuu soo galaayaa. Waxaa	33)Very much so. When the person learns grammar in his first language, it encompasses the English grammar. There was what I didn't know in Somali language, but I know now: verbs, adverbs and adjectives. If they (the children) would have asked me in Somali before, I	• Confidence • Metalinguistic awareness

		jiray wax aan af-Soomaaliga ku aqoon hadda carruurta waa ugu sheegi karaa verb-ka, adverb-ka adjective-ka. Af-Soomaali ahaan haddii ay igu weydiiyaan awal uguma sheegi karin laaki hadda maasha Allaah waa ugu sheegi karaa waana ka caawin karaa	wouldn't have been able to tell them. However, now I am able to explain them. • Gained confidence of supporting her children • Cognitive advantage	
Mrs Ahmed	3	34) Haa. Horta qofka bini'aadamka waa inuu yeeshaa wax luqad ah isaga u gaar ah. Dadka dunida ku nool Ilaah Subxaanahu Wa-Tacaalaa qof walba wuxuu ku abuuray luqad uu isagu leeyahay. Marka qofka inuu luqaddiisa yaqaan waa fan isaga u khaas ah. Marka luqadda adiga ayey muhiim kuu tahay inta aad qof barin waa inaad adigu taqaan. Marka maashaa Allah waxaan aniga helay confidence aan dad ama carruurteyda wax ugu sheegi karo reading ama writing ahaanba.	34)Yes! In the first instance, the human being should have a language which is unique for him. Of all people in the world, Allah has given them a language which is special for them so if the person knows their language it is an art which is unique for them. The language is important for you and before you teach it to someone else you should learn it. By Allah, I gained confidence in explaining how the reading and writing method of Somali language work things to my children as well as to other people. • HL is basic need for human. • Importance of the confidence in HL before passing it on. •Gained confidence of supporting her children • Cognitive advantage	• Identity • Strategy • Metalinguistic awareness
Mrs Ahmed	4	35) Haa. Waayo waxayna ugu noqoneysaa qofku si kale haddii aan la eegin research-yada la sameeyey in qofka labada luqaddood yaqaan inuu ka chance- wanaagsan yahay qofka luqadda keli ah yaqaan. Marka haddii uu ilmahaan Ilaahey siiyey chance inuu luqaddii ku barto in canugga lagu	35) Yes. It is important for the child. If the child knows their first language, they have better chance than the chid who know only one language. So, if Allah provided a chance for the child to learn their first language, it is better that they be helped. Because the more language that go to the child's brain the more flexible the brain becomes. So that will help in developing the child's education in any way. Then the child will become aware of themselves and	• Metalinguistic awareness • Brain flexibility • identity

| | | caawiyo. Waayo maskaxdii the more language ay gasho the more ilmihii u sii furanto. Markaas tacliintiisii meel walbaba isagii bey caawineysaa. Markaa qofkiina wuxuu yeelanaayaa wuxuu yahay buu is-ogaanaayaa luqaddiisii buu ogaanaayaa. Wuxuu kala saaraayaa English iyo Soomaali. English in second language-kiisii yahay buu ogaanaayaa, Soomaalina first language-kiisii inuu yahay buu ogaanaayaa sow aad iyo aad ilamaha. | *become aware of their language. They will be able to distinguish between English and Somali languages and realise that English is their second language while Somali is their first language.*
• HL important for cognitive advantage
• Brain is flexible (cognitive advantage)
• HL promotes self-awareness. | |

Appendix W1 Parents' Colour-Coded Post-Study Interview: Blue for identity, Green for cognitive advantage, Red for communication and Ruby for strategies for maintaining Heritage Language and barriers to learning Heritage Language literacy

Parent	Utterance Number	Utterance
Mrs Ali	9)	Firstly, the Somali language is important because it is my first language and mother tongue, and it is important for my children will use it for teaching my children
Mrs Gelle	14)	Yes. I attend English language classes twice per week. Thus, this grammar (meaning HL grammar) and the English grammar complement each other. It seems that they are quite close to each other (meaning their structure). So, thanks to Allah I can help them (meaning that she has now confidence in supporting her children with the English grammar).
Mrs Abdi	29)	Yes! The Somali language is very important. When families are at home it is important that they speak Somali as their first language and English as the second language. So it is very important in anyway. Relatives who are not in this country and want to communicate with the children how will they communicate with them? English? (rhetorical question) Relatives don't speak English. .
Mrs Farah	48)	On the other hand, if you tell him a story at home and transmit what have you done when you were in home country and the world as general, he will get excited especially the childhood stories. It is just a matter of getting time for your child at night-time which is the best time for stories. This will create a good relationship between parent and child and closeness between them I believe that.

Appendix W2 Parents' Extracts Regrouped Under Two Themes: HL as a right and HLas a resource.