The experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English primary schools

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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To Dina and Viktor Gundarin,

my dearest grandparents, whom I never met
Abstract

This thesis explores the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2 (7-11 years old). Research related to Russian-speaking migrant children has been conducted abroad but to date there is no known study of this in English primary schools. While addressing this gap, this thesis also addresses the dearth of research into personality development, which is underexplored in L2 (Second Language) migration, middle childhood, and the educational context of L2 schools. The methodology comprises a qualitative longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study research approach with five embedded cases. The evidence is based on 79 interviews with creative techniques and seven months of participant observations.

By employing McAdams’ personality development theory in a migration context, personality development was found to be inseparable from children’s L2 schooling experiences. The findings revealed that often Russian-speaking migrant pupils felt excluded, isolated, and unable to achieve or show achievement (i.e. fulfil their need to be/feel ‘smart’) in their L2 schools. These feelings were intensified when their L1 (First Language) was limited or forbidden. The experiences impacted, directly or indirectly, on children’s motivations and social relations, i.e. on their personality development. Namely, (1) migrant pupils preferred more accessible subjects (mathematics, art), as opposed to English; (2) pupils’ lack of knowledge gain, rather than lack of interest, caused their low learning engagement in academic subjects; and (3) pupils exhibited silence (quietness, submissiveness, or reticence) in class but not outside of class, which was an adopted pattern of behaviour rather than ‘silent period’. The thesis furthers an understanding of Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ place and voices, which can be extended to other linguistic minority groups in the diverse cultural realities of UK and other European classrooms. Pedagogical recommendations for EAL (English as an Additional Language) specialists and policymakers are discussed.
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List of Abbreviations

CIA – Central Intelligence Agency
DfE – Department for Education
DSG – Dedicated Schools Grant
DBS – Disclosure and Barring Service
EAL – English as an Additional Language
EFL – English as a Foreign Language
ELL – English Language Learner
EMAG – Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant
ESL – English as a Second Language
EU – European Union
FLL – Foreign Language Learning
GCSE – General Certificate of Secondary Education
IPC – International Primary Curriculum
IT – Information Technology
L1 – First/dominant/home language (Russian)
L2 – Second/non-dominant/foreign language (English)
L3 – Third/non-dominant/foreign language
L4 – Fourth/non-dominant/foreign language
LA – Local Authority
LL – Language Learning
L2M – English Language Motivation
MFL – Modern Foreign Language
NALDIC – National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum
NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NFF – National Funding Formula
NLS – New Literacy Studies
NPD – National Pupil Database
OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PE – Physical Education
SATs – Standard Attainment Tests
SEN – Special Educational Needs
SENCO – Special Educational Needs Coordinator
SLA – Second Language Acquisition
TA – Teaching Assistant
UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
ZPD – Zone of Proximal Development
Chapter 1  Setting the scene

1.1 Introduction

The thesis presents an inquiry into the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2. In this introductory chapter I provide the background and rationale for the study (1.2), followed by an indication of the research aim, questions, and an overview of the research design (1.3). I then contextualise and explain the motivations which informed this study and the beginnings of my interest in the topic (1.4). Further, I explain the use and meaning of key terminology in my thesis (1.5) and review the English as an Additional Language (EAL) immersion context of the study (1.6), before outlining the thesis structure (1.7).

1.2 Background and rationale

Recent decades have seen a continuous increase in the number of EAL, or linguistic minority, pupils in the UK. According to official statistics, there were 1,557,511 (19 percent of all pupils) EAL pupils in England in January 2018 (1,185,960 in 2015), the highest number of whom were at primary level. In state-funded primary schools (including academies) there were 998,829 pupils (21.2 percent in 2018, 20.6 percent in 2017; to compare, 9.3 percent in 2003) and 539,895 (16.6 percent in 2018, 16.2 percent in 2017) pupils in state-funded secondary schools (Department for Education [DfE], 2017a; 2018a).

Within this context, since 2004 the number of Russian-speaking pupils in UK schools has been rapidly increasing (Makarova and Morgunova, 2009; Independent Schools Council, 2015; DfE, 2016; 2017b; 2018a). In 2004, the ‘new mobilities were set in place’ (Mariou et al., 2016, p.100) when some of the Russian-speaking countries (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania) joined the European Union (EU), and a significant influx of the Russian-speaking population began – and continues – from former Soviet Union countries. The exact number of Russian-speaking pupils is unknown. According to official statistics, the number of Russian-speaking children in the UK state-funded primary schools has more than quadrupled in the past ten years (DfE, 2016; 2017b; 2018a), with the highest number being in England (Figure 1.1). To compare, the same pattern is observed in state-funded secondary schools: there were 4,656 and 5,069 pupils in 2017 and 2018 respectively, with the highest number of Russian-speaking pupils in England (DfE, 2016; 2017b; 2018a) (Figure 1.2).
Although there is a substantial number of studies which have focused on EAL or migrant pupils in the UK, previous work has not explored the experiences of Russian-speaking pupils. In addition, very few studies took a holistic approach to experiences in learning. This study’s primary interest, therefore, centres on the learning experiences/issues of Russian-speaking migrant EAL pupils with the aim of addressing this gap and advancing the discussion of the comparative studies with other migrant groups or studies in other age groups in the UK and other European classrooms. Particularly important is the need for a holistic exploration of experiences,
including a reflection of children, parents, but also teachers’ views of children’s experiences, supported by observations of in-school learning.

An exploration of the experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils is significant due to this group’s salient unifying, although somewhat paradoxical, features. Coming from former Soviet Union countries, Russian-speaking migrants share some sociocultural values, educational expectations, and child-rearing practices. Generally, the statistically high achievement of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the UK within the Eastern European group (Strand et al., 2015; Demie, 2018c) exists alongside worldwide research identifying a prevalence of mental health issues among Russian-speaking migrant parents (e.g. Landa et al., 2015). Looming in the background of the latter is the malaise precipitated by the collapse of the Soviet Union, which takes root in many forms, including socioeconomic (Goodman et al., 2005).

Additionally, different aspects of the issues of immigrant or EAL pupils, particularly those related to achievement, have been substantially researched. Absent from the research is an exploration of the personality development of EAL or migrant pupils, which has been generally overlooked in education and L2 studies. The personality development area of EAL pupils has been disregarded, especially in relation to context (Hart et al., 2003; Donnellan et al., 2006). Some research has focused on personality development in multilingualism, mostly viewing personality as a combination of traits evaluated through psychometric testing and overlooking the impact of the learning context. Personality development is also underexplored among middle childhood (Key Stage 2) level pupils. Characterised as a fundamental formative stage, with dramatic changes in children’s motivations, behaviour, and cognition (Del Giudice, 2014), this time period is especially peculiar for children post-migration. (I outline this period in 1.5.3.) I am thus specifically interested in the ways contextual learning experiences (in L2 schools) reflect (and are reflected in) the personality development of migrant middle childhood pupils. In the education of migrant EAL children, personality development is significant as it can inform the methodological approaches of their teachers to improve learning processes.

In this study I, therefore, attempt to holistically bring these main contextual (Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ experiences) and theoretical (personality development in the context of these experiences) orientations and foci together. I do so, as I detail in Chapter 3, through uniquely implementing Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory and McAdams’ (2015a; 2015b; 2015c) lines of personality development theory – i.e. the motivated agent and the social actor lines – in an L2 migrant educational context with migrant middle childhood children.
1.3 Research aims and overview of the design

The aim of this study is, thus, to explore the experiences/issues of Russian-speaking migrant pupils and their personality development in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2. The following research questions are used to address this aim:

1. What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?
2. How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

Children’s experiences (research question 1) are conceptualised following Vygotsky’s (1978; 1997; 1998) sociocultural theory (explained in Chapter 3, section 3.2) as participatory processes mediated by L2 and other tools (e.g. practical activities) and the ways children react to and explain these processes in an L2 school sociocultural environment, i.e. experiences in learning. While focusing on L2 school learning experiences, I do not limit this investigation to a particular type or a particular direction of/within the learning experiences of children allowing for the data to emerge empirically (detailed fully in Chapter 4). The research sub-questions 2a and 2b correspond with McAdams’ (2015a) personality development theory as a guiding theoretical framework, which I explicate in Chapter 3, section 3.3.

In order to address these questions, particularly focusing on learning contexts, my research approach was a qualitative longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study, employing participant observations and interviews with five children, their parents, and teachers, using creative techniques. Data collection resulted in 79 qualitative interviews in total (63 with children and 16 with adult participants) and 124 school days of observations, which also comprised 463 photographs taken during the participant observations. During the design stage of the research methods for piloting, I developed and implemented the drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ and the ‘interview-through-game’ creative techniques as part of an exploration of the experiences and motivations of primary migrant pupils. To date, this creative methodology, mostly pertinent to online game-based market research and team-work-for-adults research, has not been applied in educational cross-cultural or trans-linguistic (Lopez et al., 2008) investigations as part of the interview process. I present the research design in Chapter 4.
1.4 Motivation for the research

This research is built upon a long-standing interest in pupils’ experiences after immersion in an L2 learning environment. The first inkling of curiosity in the area of migrant L2-immersed learners commenced when I started my teaching career in 2011 in China, where I witnessed the uniqueness, challenges, and personal struggle of a six-year old migrant non-Chinese pupil’s experiences of being immersed in a FLL (Foreign Language Learning) environment. A few years later, I was preparing to move to London, and my curiosity was reignited as I started exploring current research in the migration, and subsequently EAL, field in the UK. As a teacher, my primary interest was in the way children, rather than adults, embrace migration. Alongside children’s ingenuity, naivety, and endearing nature, the ways children encounter new learning context and filter them through their worlds, going through numerous formative stages of development, are significant and fascinating. Being a Russian-speaker, from a former Soviet Union country (Ukraine), I naturally started my search by looking into Russian-speaking migrant children immersed in an L2 learning school environment in the UK. I soon discovered that very few researchers have addressed the problem of EAL pupils’ experiences in context, overlooking the Russian-speaking group as a focus of investigation.

My interest in personality development was piqued at the commencement of my PhD by the works of Vygotsky and sparked by a lecture by Asmolov, a professor of Psychology in Moscow State University since 1996, and a former mentee of Professor Leontyev who had worked with Lev Vygotsky. Starting his lecture on personality development Asmolov rhetorically asks, ‘Is there anything more perfect in this world than Personality?’ (1997, no pagination, my translation). Perhaps, this question represents a description of personality from a rather humanistic point of view; however, personality as holistic and structured, and at the same time, a unique set of individuals’ differences in their inner beings, a combination that makes the world as diverse as we know it and as deep and seemingly endless to explore: can it be anything but perfect? For educational research this question helped me to conceive the investigation into personality as an interesting and exciting journey.

1.5 Key terminology

It is essential to establish the nuances of key concepts I integrate in this thesis: ‘Russian-speaking migrant’ and, by extension, the ‘EAL’ children; ‘personality’ and its ‘development’; and ‘middle childhood’ (Key Stage 2 primary level) children.

1.5.1 Russian-speaking migrant and EAL

The term ‘Russian-speaking migrant’ is used interchangeably with ‘language [or linguistic] minority’ (Glenn and Jong, 1996) and ‘EAL’ children throughout this thesis. Although the
boundaries between the terms ‘migrant’ and ‘EAL’ children are not fixed – i.e. not all migrants are EAL (e.g. some come from other Anglophone contexts) – in this thesis all migrant pupils are also EAL. These terms broadly signify individuals younger than 16 years old who have migrated with their family (first-generation immigrants) and are immersed in a country and a school foreign to them, emphasising that these children’s first/dominant language (Russian, or L1) is different from the national/official language of the country and schooling (English, or L2). Being relatively recently arrived migrants (up to six years), the notion of ‘Russian-speaking migrant’ pupils indicates that these children are new to speaking English or intermediate speakers (Conteh, 2012). I consciously disregard the further temporal delineation of first-generation immigrant pupils into very recent arrival (newly arrived) and less recent arrival (as discussed by Evans and Liu, 2018, for example) as the range of my participants falls into both categories. I attend to these aspects of the participants’ characteristics in detail, providing information about the cases in 4.7.4. Additionally, highlighting the peculiarities of the participants’ setting (which I outline in 1.6), I refer to my participants as ‘immersed L2 learners’ (immersed in the non-bilingual, i.e. not aimed at bilingual education, L2 schools’ environment).

Although challenging in its ambiguity, the use of the term ‘EAL’, i.e. English as an Additional Language, is unavoidable due to the contextual peculiarities of this study closely pertaining to the teaching and learning of migrant pupils. In the Primary National Strategy (2007), EAL is characterised as a notion with a multilingual connotation signifying an ‘addition’ of English to pupils’ linguistic profiles (p.2). In this thesis I adopt this understanding in alliance with the definition in the official documentation (DfE, 2017a, p.10):

A pupil is recorded to have English as an additional language if they are exposed to a language at home that is known or believed to be other than English. This measure is not a measure of English language proficiency or a good proxy for recent immigration.

It is equivalent to the ELL (English Language Learner) term in the US and has some common features with the terms ESL/EFL (English as a Second/Foreign Language) (Arnot et al., 2014). In fact, EAL has been used in place of ESL since the late 1980s (Leung, 2016). While being somewhat similar, these, nevertheless, signify distinctive contexts.

The terms ‘migrant’ or ‘linguistic minority’, or ‘EAL’ are used with caution in recognition of these definitions’ inherent obscurity (Conteh et al., 2007; Sharples, 2016; Cunningham, 2017), e.g. with the latter (EAL) connoting ‘adding’ languages rather than ‘syncretism’, i.e. the uniting of languages (Conteh et al., 2007, p.18), and covering too broad a range of pupils’ language skills (Cunningham, 2017). The terms ‘EAL’ and ‘linguistic minority’ overlook contextual nuances between recent arrivals (first-generation immigrants), and Russian-speaking pupils born in the
UK into migrant families who are, thus, more ‘advanced’ EAL English learners (second-generation immigrants). The concept of migration is ambiguous in that, on the one hand, it is an advantageous factor, e.g. as an act of agency (Jørgensen, 2017b; Thompson et al., 2019), providing advanced education or healthcare (Oxford Reference, 2018). On the other hand, it is perceived as a disadvantage (e.g. Sime and Fox, 2015b), an association with which is often overlooked (advantage) or downplayed (disadvantage). Such obscurity also pertains to the official statistical records presented in this thesis (both the EAL and Russian-speaking migrant children-related statistics), which are arguably indistinct and problematic. They, nevertheless, represent the only statistical records available.

1.5.2 Personality and its development

‘Personality development’ is understood in this thesis, following McAdams (2015a; 2015b; 2015c) as a process of change in a personality, which consists of three lines: the social actor, the motivated agent, and the autobiographical author, i.e. the unique combination of traits (embodied in social behaviour and emotions), motivations, and narrative identities. I attend to these notions in depth in Chapter 3, section 3.3. As it is important to delineate the structure of a personality from its development, I preface this with the discussion of essential and equally complex notion of personality, which I will discuss now.

Personality is defined as a ‘set of traits that assure individual continuity, as the motivational core of human behaviour, as a self-regulating system designed to maximize adaptation to life’s challenges’ (McAdams and Adler, 2014, p.461). Personality, according to Pervin et al. (2005), is ‘those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving’ (p.6). As Hart et al. (2003) agree, personality is a dynamic, holistic, and continuous complex, which shapes individuals’ emotions, thoughts, and behaviours; therefore, the research into personality development has to answer the questions relevant to the individuals who produce ‘the thoughts, experience the emotions, and emit the behaviours’ (p.5). Maltby et al. (2010) define personality as a ‘mental concept that influences behaviour via the mind-body interaction’ (p.5). In older studies, personality was defined as ‘mental processes and overt actions, as the relation between thinking, wishing, and feeling on the one hand and behaviour on the other’ (Kagan, 1971, p.4), or as a total of what an individual is, was, and will become, thereby understood as a combination of physical, intellectual, cognitive, emotional, social, behavioural, and cultural characteristics (Smith, 1974). The father of phenomenology (a humanistic theory of personality) Allport (1937) defines personality as ‘the dynamic organization of those psychophysical [traits within the self] systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought [‘for survival and for growth’]’ (p.28), i.e. ‘unique way of playing his social roles’ (Smith, 1974, p.6).
Thus, some theorists posit that personality consists of traits (e.g. Molfese and Molfese, 2000; Caspi and Shiner, 2006; Akker et al, 2014; Soto and Tackett, 2015); others, on the contrary, argue that personality structure should not be limited to traits (e.g. Smith, 1974; Leontyev, 1975; Asmolov, 1997; Hart et al., 2003; Pervin et al., 2005; Thomson and Goodwin 2005; McAdams, 2013; 2015a; 2015b; 2015c; Fruyt and Leeuwen, 2014; Reese et al., 2014; Lanning et al., 2018) and should include, for instance, self-concepts (in the form of, for example, individuals’ life stories). However, most scholars agree that traits form the core of personality structure. Traits are defined in many different ways as: the ‘most fundamental dimensions of individual differences’ (Pervin et al., 2005, p.230) or a ‘disposition to respond similarly across a variety of situations’ (p.290); as patterns in behaviour, thoughts, and emotions developing within individual’s environment in a normative and idiosyncratic manner; as self-regulative patterns (Rothbart and Bates, 2006; Boyd and Bee, 2010; McAdams, 2015a; Soto and Tackett, 2015); or as ‘the recurrent and recognizable styles we display as we perform emotion and enact social scripts’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.225). Traits are highly dependent on the situation, and some traits are only vivid in certain circumstances: ‘a trait expresses what a person generally does over many situations, not what will be done in any one situation’ (Pervin et al., 2005, p.227). As may be apparent, social roles and behaviours in the definitions of personality allude to the definition of traits, which can be interpreted as the fact that traits (individual patterns of behaviour) within the sociocultural perspective of personality development may be viewed as closely linked to social roles.

Generally, the definitions of personality have both common and divergent features: most recurring and most general characteristics of personality include thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that originate from traits, motivations, and self-dimensions conditioned by social roles. McAdams’ definition presented in the beginning of this section, which is comparable with Allport’s understanding of personality, is considered to be the main conceptualisation of personality in this study. Social roles, motivations, and the self-domains are deemed as both dynamic and continuous (stable), constituting an overall personality.

1.5.3 Middle childhood

Focusing on middle childhood level pupils (Key Stage 2), it is necessary to outline the peculiarities of this period. As I briefly introduced in 1.2, middle childhood age is a period from 7 to 11 years old (5-12 in Lightfoot et al., 2013) and is characterised as a highly formative stage (Block, 2007) with the most dramatic development (Smith and Cowie, 1991) occurring before the age of 13 (Kagan, 1971), when children cultivate their broad inclinations (Berk, 2009). Del Giudice (2014) similarly defines it as a fundamental dynamic stage of development during which children experience ‘a global shift in cognition, motivation, and social behaviour’ (p.193),
embodied in ‘social integration and social competition’ (p.198). This time is also marked by changeable moods (Dwivedi and Varma, 1997) and a ‘heightened sensitivity to the environment’ (Del Giudice, 2014, p.199). Middle childhood is approximately divided into two phases (early and later years) in the literature. The middle childhood early years (7 – 9 years old) is a vibrant, energetic period during which children start not only to imagine things, view things in images, and picture them, but to create things, activities, think intellectually, and use memories from the past (Goldberg, 2009), which is part of the formation of motivation for children (Coll and Szalacha, 2004; McAdams, 2015a). This is particularly interesting when it comes to exploration of their dreams and wishes as part of the research design in this thesis outlined in 4.8.4.4.

Based on the ‘dialectical principle of the child’s development’ Vygotsky (1997) indicated that from the age of six the behaviour of a child ‘become[s] complicated, and he enters into new relationships with the environment’ (p.215) in which all the spheres of development are interrelated, and language development influences other areas (Vygotsky, 2005). Significantly for this thesis, children’s L2 development at this time (as I indicate in 1.6.1), becomes the L2 learning process, less resembling the natural L1 acquisition (Johnson and Newport, 1989; Vygotsky, 1991; Fabbro, 1999; 2002). This period is also a learning stage marked by the beginning of formal schooling and socialisation. The increased diversity of social experiences generates an increasingly rapid development of personality (Vygotsky, 2005). Equivalently, as argued by Soto and Tackett (2015), childhood and adolescence are considered to be the keystones of personality development, and ‘offer a rough sketch’ of the essence of personality development (p.360). In other words, childhood represents a foundation of research in personality development and can serve to predict pupils’ developing behaviours. The middle childhood later years (10-11 years old) are regarded to be ‘central’ period in childhood (Goldberg, 2009, p.246), and can also be crisis years or sensitive periods (Montessori, 1912), i.e. possibly more challenging and disintegrated as the child starts to ‘judge and criticise the world’ (Goldberg, 2009, p.248). Boyd and Bee (2010) describe this as the increasingly structured versatility of personal evaluations, i.e. children evaluate themselves in different spheres of life (academic skills, physical appearance, friendships, relations with peers, social acceptance, relationships with family members) to various degrees. In view of the overall rapid cognitive development, emergence of motivations, increased evaluations of the world, and language and socialisation, middle childhood is pertinent for an exploration of personality development post-migration.

1.6  EAL immersion context
The aim of this section is to situate this thesis in the context of immersion in L2 schools, starting with an overview of the main features of mainstreaming (immersion) in England (1.6.1),
supported by the historical analysis of EAL (migrant children) policy development (1.6.2), before moving onto current implications pertinent to this thesis regarding L2 and EAL provision for migrant children (1.6.3).

1.6.1 **Immersion in L2 schools**

This part of the chapter reviews the immersion context through which L2 pedagogy aspects are highlighted. Recently arrived EAL migrant pupils in the UK experience non-bilingual immersion/submersion (Baker and Wright, 2017) L2 learning, also referred to as mainstreaming. The exceptions are pupils who are home schooled or placed in alternative provision units (DfE, 2018b). In the context of immersion, there are two peculiar features of L2 learning in the UK that are significant for the context of this study (discussed in 11.2.5). Firstly, English pedagogy is based on a broadly communicative, learner-centred, approach with ‘greater embedded flexibility and differentiation’ (Liu et al., 2017, p.390). Discussing communication-oriented versus grammar-focused approaches to language teaching, Leung and Scarino (2016) caution that the former approach does not assume abolishing the basics of language pedagogy (i.e. learning vocabulary and grammar). This is naturally important for EAL pupils of primary age (starting from approximately seven years old) and older, who, following Vygotsky (1991) and supported by neurolinguistics research (Fabbro, 1999; 2002), predominantly learn L2 as their foreign language rather than acquire it as their L1 (Johnson and Newport, 1989). Vygotsky (1934, 1991) observed that, although L1 and L2 learning are interrelated (L2 relies on L1), in middle childhood pupils do not acquire L2 as simply as they do when they are younger despite high levels of activity and the advantages of memory, attention, and intellect at this age as compared with the earlier years (as I outlined in 1.5.3). Therefore, pupils of primary age and older should be made aware of the language structure (grammar, lexicology). However, the context of immersion in England and abroad reflect ‘common-sense beliefs about multilingualism’ that immersion is an effective way of acquiring a foreign language (Van Der Wildt et al., 2017, p.137). It is assumed that, following immersion, ‘later will a child be made conscious of language as a system, to reinforce and promote communication’ (Baker, 2006, p.307). The problem arises when this does not occur, leading to L2- and attainment-related issues of language development (Johnstone, 2002). The language-related, social, and emotional adjustments, stress, identity, self-esteem, and religion, to name a few, are common problems, which are associated with non-bilingual immersion (mainstreaming) (Baker and Wright, 2017). Baker (2006) describes immersion context as potentially dangerous in that it can cause ‘frustration, non-participation, even dropping-out such that these children become educationally, economically and politically disempowered’ (p.217). Thus, in the situations of limited language support in learning, EAL pupils might unintentionally miss significant explanations and knowledge (Tangen and Spooner-Lane, 2008). In addition, in such a
context some children can be familiar with certain areas but are unable to articulate their knowledge or draw attention to the areas in which they need more help (National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum [NALDIC], 2011).

Secondly, for primary level EAL pupils L2 is cross-curricular, appearing as the language of instruction and a tool for learning academic notions (Krashen, 1989; Conteh, 2012; Baker and Wright, 2017; Cummins, 2018; Leung and Solomon, 2019), with L2 literacy taking a special place for migrant pupils (as we see later in 11.2). As Baker (2006) reviews, L2 literacy has been regarded differently: as a skill of understanding messages of communication, which represents a more traditional, functional, cognitive view of literacy (e.g. among EAL pupils – Grewal and Williams, 2018); and from a ‘critical’ literacy perspective as ‘literacy for empowerment’ offering pupils’ personal views in analyses of texts (Baker, 2006, p.325). Related to a sociocultural view, the ‘constructivist’ perspective sees literacies as embodying various meanings that pupils ‘construct’ based on their previous cultural, linguistic, and social experiences. As a strand of sociocultural approach, the New Literacy Studies (NLS) have been developing since the 1980s as an alternative to traditional cognitive views of literacy, which suggests multiple variations of literacy, seeing it as contextually-dependent social, cultural, and historical practice (Gee, 2015) forming ‘conceptions for reading and writing’ (Street, 1984, p.1). Street (1984; 1998) identifies two models of literacy: ‘autonomous’, i.e. a technical skill independent of context, versus ‘ideological’, i.e. socially-situated literacies formed by sociocultural institutions, which recognises literacy aspects as tools for ‘representing patterns of experience’ (Street, 1998, p.22).

Apart from seeing literacies as socially and culturally-informed, according to Vygotsky’s theory it is also essential in establishing a basis for the development of higher mental functions (Mahn, 2003). In addition, literacy lays a foundation for abstract reasoning and ‘provides tools for students’ imagination and emotional development’ (Kozulin et al., 2003, p.5). These views emphasise the significance of literacy for cognition and as a potential instrument of empowerment (and subjugation) – as a process of a sociocultural practice. This is relevant to the thesis argument, discussed in 11.2.5.

1.6.2 EAL policy development

In order to understand the nature of mainstreaming, which informed the current non-bilingual immersion context, setting the stage for the issues of immersed recent migrant Russian-speaking pupils presented later in this thesis, I will briefly outline the historical underpinning of EAL policy development in England. The rights of the linguistic minority pupils to use their home languages in learning have been growing as an issue in policy (and research) for the past 70 years with the arrival of Commonwealth citizens when L2 proficiency first became a problem (Leung, 2016).
Costley (2014) outlines three broad trajectories in EAL policy and practice development – *EAL and assimilation, EAL and withdrawal, and EAL and mainstreaming* (p.277) – which will be adopted here in order to provide a general clarity of periodisation, although the boundaries between these are not clear-cut and are somewhat arbitrary.

A phase of assimilation (c. 1950–1974) may be described as having diverse provision and substantial reforms with an uneven distribution of pupils and support (Costley, 2014). In 1963, Edward Boyle advised presenting ‘zoning schemes’ in order to restrict admission of EAL pupils making it no more than 30 percent of EAL pupils in a school (Costley, 2014), signifying the underlying ‘assimilation’ ideology (Conteh et al., 2007, p.3). Developed in this period, the Newsom Report (1963) focused on attainment and the organisation of schools and was a precursor (as regards its contents) of the National Curriculum (1989). The year 1966 was marked by Roy Jenkins’ speech on the integration of immigrant citizens that had triggered further educational reforms. Jenkins (1966) defines integration ‘as equal opportunity, accompanied by cultural diversity, in an atmosphere of mutual tolerance’ as opposed to viewing it as a ‘flattening process of assimilation’, let alone ‘the loss, by immigrants, of their own characteristics and culture’ (no pagination). This ‘equal opportunity’ did not seem to encompass linguistic diversity, as is evident from the Plowden Report (1967) on primary schools. Its statement that the imperative aim of language education for immigrant children is to reduce language constraints has shaped the ideology of educational policy of contemporary England. Although, overall, the report created a pupil-focused pedagogy (Conteh et al., 2007), it, nevertheless, expounded the underlying assimilation ideology (The Plowden Report, 1967, p.72):

> When the concentration of non-English speaking children in a particular school reaches a level, which seems to interfere with the opportunity for other children to learn, or with the teacher’s ability to do justice to the immigrant children, there may be a demand for dispersal of the immigrants.

A withdrawal (c. 1975–1986) phase started when migrant pupils were separated from the majority of pupils into ‘language centres’ for additional English lessons (Monaghan, 2010, p.16). Three types of provision for withdrawing pupils are distinguished: total, partial, and non-withdrawal. Total withdrawal meant learning in separate classes until L2 proficiency was sufficient for attending mainstream lessons; partial withdrawal comprised part-time L2 learning in-between or after lessons; and non-withdrawal meant students were allowed to attend mainstream classrooms (Leung and Franson, 2001, p.154). The total withdrawal was brought to an end as a result of an investigation by the Commission for Racial Equality (CRE) which had established that provision of withdrawal English lessons for EAL were socially and educationally detrimental (CRE, 1986).
Mainstreaming (c. 1986 – until now), which is referred to as (non-bilingual) immersion in this thesis, involves the ‘integration of all students, regardless of language and ethnic backgrounds, into age-appropriate classes’ (Costley and Leung, 2014, p.29). A prerequisite for a mainstreaming phase was the recognition of bilingualism, cultural identity, and cultural knowledge presented in the Bullock Report (1975) which placed language ‘at the very heart of the curriculum’ linking language, culture, and identity (Conteh et al., 2007, p.3) with academic achievement (the Bullock Report, 1975, p.286):

No child should be expected to cast off the language and culture of the home as he crosses the school threshold, nor to live and act as though school and home represent two totally separate and different cultures which have to be kept firmly apart.

Importantly, the report defined for the first time the significance of the use of L1 in schools, almost foreshadowing and endorsing translanguaging practices (the Bullock Report, 1975, p.294):

Certainly the school should adopt a positive attitude to its pupils’ bilingualism and wherever possible should help maintain and deepen their knowledge of their mother tongues.

Despite the report’s virtues, it took approximately 10 years to implement its recommendations into policy and practice (Leung, 2016) when the Swann Report (1985) was published. The Swann Report (1985), while imparting ‘assimilationist “Education for All” ideology’ (Conteh and Brock, 2011, p.348), illustrated the detrimental effect of withdrawal for pupils, whereby the involvement of EAL children was normalised (Mistry and Barnes, 2013). This established a legal regulation which guaranteed fair admission to education (Leung, 2016). Although the report’s (the Swann Report, 1985) aim was to increase the openness of schools to EAL pupils (Leung, 2010), mainstreaming, nevertheless, places emphasis on pupils’ engagement in the standard curriculum, rather than on ‘integrating the specialist pedagogic concerns of EAL-minded language teaching’ (Leung, 2016, p.98). The report (1985, p.408) stated, ‘we do not believe mainstream schools should seek to assume the role of the community providers for maintaining ethnic minority community languages’, which resulted in the separation of heritage languages and mainstream schools (Conteh and Riasat, 2014, p.605).

1.6.3 Current implications: L1 and EAL provision
As is clear from the historical review of EAL policy development, the linguistic diversity in England, which, while being a part of daily schools’ reality (Leung, 2002), is currently contested, challenged, and undermined through the discourses of power in the educational policy promoting a monolingual ideology in education (Blommaert and Verschueren, 1998; Gal, 1998; Conteh et al., 2007; Leung, 2007; Roberts et al., 2007; Conteh and Brock, 2011; Cooke and Simpson, 2012;
Simpson and Whiteside, 2012; Costley, 2014; Simpson, 2015). Thus, being underpinned by monolingual ideologies, immersion (described earlier in 1.6.1) is a form of education of migrant children that essentially rejects and minimises multilingualism (Van Der Wildt et al., 2017). The current National Curriculum for England (DfE, 2013) acknowledges that the needs of EAL pupils should be considered by the teachers only in order to ‘develop their English’, framing it as being central to ‘inclusion and equal opportunity’ in order to ‘provide the support pupils need to take part in all subjects’ (p.8). At the same time, it promotes and reinforces a monolingual ideology in education, by putting the English language at the core of being ‘essential to participating fully as a member of society; pupils, therefore, who do not learn to speak, read and write fluently and confidently are effectively disenfranchised’ (DfE, 2013, p.13). As noted by Costley and Leung (2014, p.29), educational policy sees language learning (LL) as ‘delayed naturalistic first language development’. This may explain the absence of a unanimous EAL pedagogy in the curriculum (Leung, 2002; Conteh et al., 2007; Costley and Leung, 2014; Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). This traces back to the 1980s when ‘English as a subject’ ideology, being part of a neoliberal agenda, advocated English literacy as a ‘basic competence necessary in a competitive global economy’ (Goodwyn, 2014, p.28). Referring to Blackledge (2005), Cooke and Simpson (2012) note that the main feature of British political debate is that illiberal suggestions are camouflaged in liberal terms.

Correspondingly, such a policy landscape begets and exacerbates the monolingual and thus problematic mind-set concerning bilingualism in the UK schools (Geneseee, 2002; McEachron and Bhatti, 2005; Bourne, 2007; Butcher et al., 2007; Murakami, 2008; Drury, 2013; Bligh and Drury, 2015) and abroad (e.g. Pulinx et al., 2017; Van Der Wildt et al., 2017). The monolingual or fractional attitude towards pupils’ bilingualism holds a deficit view of pupils’ previous linguistic resources (Wielgosz and Molyneux, 2015), thereby maintaining the ‘language as a problem’ orientation (Ruiz, 1984) as opposed to a holistic attitude, which means seeing pupils as having a ‘unique linguistic profile’ (Baker and Wright, 2017, p.9). This contrasts with the broad direction of the EU, which advocates for multilingualism as a significant factor on the journey towards educational inclusion, economic growth, and European citizenship (e.g. Cooke and Simpson, 2012; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO], 2014). Furthermore, research evidence likewise highlights a need for a multilingual direction in British policies and schools’ ethos (Conteh et al., 2007). More specifically, it asserts the promotion of L1 (Chalmers et al., 2019) through bilingual pedagogy (Conteh and Riasat, 2014) and the support of L1 in English and MFL (Modern Foreign Language) classrooms in the UK and abroad (e.g. Rubin and Bhavnagri, 2001 – in the USA; Conteh, 2003; Rutter, 2003; Chumak-Horbatsch and Garg, 2006; Liu and Evans, 2016; Liu et al., 2017; Van Der Wildt et al., 2017;
Costley et al., 2018; Slembrouck et al., 2018). L1 is considered to be an important resource of L2 literacy development (Ball, 2011; Baker and Wright, 2017), essential for well-being, achievement (Cummins, 2001; Chen, 2009; Garcia, 2009a; Conger et al., 2011; Ramaut and Sierens, 2011; Chalmers et al., 2019), cognition (Ball, 2011), and communication expansion (Kenner and Kress, 2003). These studies are underpinned by bourgeoning ways of implementing forms of bilingualism and bilingual pedagogies, e.g. dynamic bilingualism (Garcia, 2009b), translanguaging (Garcia, 2009b; Conteh, 2018; Garcia et al., 2018; Rowe, 2018), demonstrating successful translanguaging (Ollerhead, 2018), dual-language programmes (Duarte, 2011), raising linguistic awareness among teachers programmes (Sierens and Ramaut, 2018), and a range of classroom activities for bilingual pupils (Kenner et al., 2008) in everyday L2 schooling.

Clearly then, schools and teachers are communicated contradictory statements about celebrating cultural and linguistic diversity while they evaluate pupils’ achievements only in English (Conteh et al. 2007). These ‘conflicting policy paradigms’ (Conteh, 2012, p.101) in English policy structure are particularly influential as, although in 2018 the DfE has introduced direct funding through the schools national funding formula (NFF) of £402 million (increased to £407 million in 2019/20) to support EAL pupils, there is no oversight or any direct assessment of the ways this funding is used (DfE, 2019). Prior to this, the Local Authorities (LAs) were subsidised by the DfE with the Dedicated Schools Grant (DSG) (£43.6 million in 2018/19), which was used in place of the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant (EMAG) (1999-2011) (House of Commons, 2015). The implication of the previous and the new funding is that the schools are given ‘full freedom’ to apply required approaches in distributing the funding as regards EAL pupils (British Council, 2014, no pagination; DfE, 2019). This prompts the schools to adopt their own adjusted student-focused strategies to meet the needs of pupils (Overington, 2012), generating the context of the isolated/disjoined practice of schools differing from the main lines of research (Wardman, 2013).

This is relevant to the thesis argument in 11.2.4.

Such practices are evidenced in the studies showing different attitudes towards the home languages in the context of UK schools. Among high school students, Safford and Costley (2008) find that the multilingual resources of pupils are ‘undervalued and/or overlooked’ (p.145), which is also the case in Sneddon (2007), Walters (2007), Moskal (2016), and Costley et al.’s (2018) work. Liu and Evans (2016) conduct a study with the Eastern-European EAL pupils (Polish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Bulgarian, Slovakian/Roma) in one primary and one secondary school in England, focusing on the role of languages in the curriculum as perceived by teachers and students. They found contrasting attitudes towards the L1s and English, suggesting the development of school language policies in which multilingualism can become a ‘mediating
cultural tool to empower individuals’ making ‘difference as a social norm in a super-diverse society’ (Liu and Evans, 2016, p.565). Based on two secondary schools in the east of England, Liu et al. (2017) identify that both schools in their study communicated the importance of celebrating linguistic diversity and L1s socially, while emphasising the need for prompt L2 acquisition in a learning context. As an implication, Liu et al. (2017) provide 10 foundational rules of pedagogy in multilingual classrooms referred to as ‘the knowledge base of teaching in linguistically diverse contexts’ (p.389), including using L1 for learning and communicative aims.

The use of the L1 in learning is also reported to be minimised in Dakin’s study (2017), in which she says that the L1s in the school are ‘neither encouraged nor discouraged but relied on the attitudes of individual teachers to promote and value it’ (p.432) and seen as the way of improving the L2 rather than as an important facet of cognitive development and well-being. Strobbe et al. (2017) identify two essential types of attitudes towards L1 among pupils in Belgium (Flanders): control-based and the amount of dominant language use, aimed at increasing the use of the dominant language. The attitudes towards L1 review pertains to the thesis argument in 11.2.4.

Along these lines, it is important to delve into the learning support in L2 schools for migrant children, pertinent to the discussion in 11.2.2. The ongoing controversies surrounding research versus national policy regarding the amount of support pupils are to be given post-migration seem to be increasing in England. All children, including EAL and Special Educational Needs (SEN) pupils, need learning support to be able ‘to gain full access to the curriculum to which they have entitlement’ (Hall, 2001, p.2). UNESCO’s (2005) report stresses that sufficient and adequate support for all children is essential for inclusive education, which should be well-prepared in order to manage diversity. However, in practice, as research reveals, it is not always the case (Safford and Costley, 2008; Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). Suggested causes for this failure include limited funding and, consequently, a lack of specialist teachers (e.g. EAL teaching assistants or TAs) in L2 schools (Chen, 2009; Moskal, 2016). Examples of learning support are the use of bilingual translation including Google Translate (e.g. Liu et al., 2017) and the promotion of bilingual learning support specialists (Chen, 2009; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014). Similarly, other examples highlight the significance of systematic and holistic approaches to EAL school provision (McEachron and Bhatti, 2005; Pong and Landale, 2012), and ‘stronger partnerships’ with staff and parents (Mistry and Sood, 2012, p.292).

At the same time, the funding at school level is not the only issue in learning support. Pertinent to the argument of this thesis (in 11.5.2.3), another issue stems from the teacher training peculiarities in relation to EAL and bilingualism. Skinner (2010) discusses how teachers shared their confusion in dealing with EAL pupils when it came to the exact ways of positively and
effectively integrating their diversity in the classrooms. A lack of knowledge among teachers of using ‘multilingual home language pedagogies’ is identified by Bailey and Marsden (2017, p.301). Regarding teacher training, different studies call for a promotion of ‘cultural intelligence’ (Hue and Kennedy, 2013, p.305), linguistic awareness, EAL resources, and training in teaching practical methods as regards EAL (e.g. Cajklera and Hall, 2009; Chen, 2009; Skinner, 2010; Conteh, 2012; Mistry and Barnes, 2013; Conteh and Riasat, 2014; Moskal, 2016; Liu et al., 2017).

There are also no nationally developed official assessment recommendations for EAL pupils (Conteh, 2012; Leung, and Solomon, 2019), in contrast with adult migrants (e.g. Blackledge, 2009). One exception, conducted after Conteh’s (2012) study, took place during the years 2016–2017. In 2016, following Strand et al.’s (2015) report, L2 assessment of EAL pupils at the national level by the schools has been changed and a new assessment of immigrant pupils’ L2 level was introduced in England. Teachers and schools were required to submit the ‘Proficiency in English’ level of all of the EAL pupils (School Census, 2016, p.63). The assessment has been regarded positively; however, it was not entirely clear whether the data were collected solely for L2 improvement or, for example, monitoring migration data (Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). Despite its positive aspects (Demie, 2018b), this assessment ended in 2017 (NALDIC, 2018; Leung and Solomon, 2019). Assessment of primary age EAL pupils in the UK and abroad, therefore, does not differ from that of monolingual pupils (Shohamy, 2011; Mueller-Gathercole, 2013; Backer et al., 2017) in relation to both summative (assessment of learning, i.e. knowledge assessment based on national standards) and formative (assessment for learning which aims to stimulate learning) (NALDIC, 2011; Assessment Reform Group, 2017).

As per the summative assessment, the standardised tests (both verbal and non-verbal) are found to be ‘particularly prone to bias’ for EAL pupils because low results in these tests ‘might simply indicate a bilingual pupil whose verbal talents have not been accurately reflected because of the language bias’ (Hall, 2001, p.13; Baker, 2006 – on assessment bias; also in Akresh and Akresh, 2011). In terms of formative assessment, language is named as the main issue in effectively implementing assessment for learning by teachers and general recommendations are provided for the teachers to conduct effective assessment (NALDIC, 2011). However, these recommendations do not include any specific guidance: for instance, on error correction/marking in relation to the formative assessment of EAL pupils. There are a few standpoints found in the literature pertaining to such specific recommendations. In L2 writing (non-immersion context) error correction, for instance, has been both advocated (e.g. Ferris, 2004; 2006; Beuningen et al., 2012) and criticised (e.g. Truscott, 2007); if especially excessive it can be ‘self-defeating, even penalising second language acquisition’ (Baker, 2006, p.309). In Cook’s (2002) opinion, language and linguistic
competence is something that exists in the present time, rather than an incomplete simulation of its future state. Therefore, L2 assessment against a standard norm is inherently deficient, implying a ‘failed native speaker[s]’ (p.19).

Advanced views marked by a linguistic multi-competence notion, which suggests a unity of languages within a person or a community (Cook, 2002; 2016; Cook and Wei, 2016; Wei, 2016), impeach a monolingual perspective. These views refuse to accept the very notions of mono- or multi-/bilingualism and their derivatives, e.g. semilingualism: i.e. a limited proficiency in both languages (Cummins, 2000, p.175) or transitive (rather than additive, or balanced) bilingualism (Cummins, 2000; Conteh and Brock, 2006; Conteh, 2012) – all insinuating deficit views on language users. Similar advancements of Shohamy (2011), Sierens and Van Avermaet (2014), and Backer et al. (2017) suggest a way forward to develop a content-related assessment of multilingual pupils using all their language repertoire (translanguaging). These seem to be potentially effective ways of resolving instances of inadequate assessment such as those described by Baker (2006) with which some ineffective schools and classrooms assess emergent bilingual or migrant pupils’ depth of thought by their L2 proficiency. In addition, the Bell Foundation (2019) has been developing the EAL Assessment Framework for Schools, which includes aspects of considering using L1 (Leung and Solomon, 2019). The assessment of migrant pupils is significant for my argument in the thesis in 11.2.3.

In summary, analysis of current research and national policy documents suggest conflicting perspectives embodied in vague and isolated local practices, ‘confused’ EAL pedagogies, and unevenly distributed provision and support in schools with little or no multilingual (or linguistic multi-competency-directed) options. It means that for individual recent migrant pupils, L2 immersion becomes a blind wheel of fortune with their well-being at stake. As we see later, this incoherence will be explored and to some extent exposed.

1.7 Thesis structure

This section communicates the content and focus of each chapter of this thesis. The thesis is divided into 12 chapters, including this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 critically analyses the available literature regarding the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant children in English state-funded primary schools. I start with the review of literature related to Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the UK and abroad, explicating the reasons why Russian-speaking migrant pupils merit attention. Furthermore, I review the literature related to the experiences of pupils with a first/dominant language other than Russian in the UK. I then review personality development literature, including the ways personality develops, identifying a gap in EAL, migration, middle childhood, and L2 studies.
Chapter 3 deals with the presentation and construction of the theoretical framework of this study. I first provide an overview of the relevance and use of Lev Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory, before moving onto Dan McAdams’ personality development theory, dwelling upon the social actor and the motivated agent lines of personality development. Aiming to theorise personality development within a migration context of immersion for middle childhood children, I contextualise these lines in relation to findings relevant to this thesis (Chapters 5 to 9) and discussion (Chapter 11). Such literature focuses on motivations in middle childhood, LL motivations in immersion context and social behaviour, and emotions characteristic of this behaviour, and social relationships. Finally, I include a note on the authorship line of personality development.

In Chapter 4, I explain the methodology and research design of this thesis, starting with the establishment of the research questions based on the literature review and theoretical framework, outlining the philosophical underpinning of this study. I then discuss the peculiarities of research with children, and as an implication of these, I outline the research tradition and approach chosen for this study – longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study. Furthermore, I present the research setting and the participants. I then describe the methods of data collection, followed by the data analysis section, before the final section dealing with trustworthiness and ethics.

Chapters 5 to 9 present the findings of this study: five embedded cases within a multiple case study, with each case representing a pupil. Arranged chronologically, the cases follow each other: from the most recently arrived migrant pupil (Yulia), followed by Rita, Alisa, and Katerina, to Ivan (the least recent arrival). Each chapter starts with the background information about the case, moving onto the main overarching themes (Experiences, Motivations and Social behaviour and relationships in L2 school), and the sub-themes unique to each case, before finalising with the case summary.

Chapter 10 is a cross-case analysis of the cases’ findings (Chapters 5 to 9). Structurally, the cross-case analysis follows the logic of the cases: arranged by the three main overarching themes (Experiences, Motivations and Social behaviour and relationships in L2 school) within which the typical and atypical findings are analysed. This chapter embodies a necessary ‘bridge’ between the findings and the discussion.

In Chapter 11, I discuss the findings’ significance in relation to the current literature attending to the research questions. The chapter is structured accordingly, following the research questions. Finally, Chapter 12 summarises the findings, communicates the contribution, implications for EAL professionals and policymakers, and the future direction for the research. I finalise this
chapter with the limitations of the study, followed by an autobiographical reflection in the final word.
Chapter 2  Literature review

2.1  Introduction
This thesis is concerned with an exploration of the experiences/issues and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant middle childhood pupils in the context of English primary schools. The aim of this chapter is to systematically elaborate on and present the argument which informed my research questions. This argument is organised following a general-to-specific principle allied to common themes. The chapter begins with the literature review of Russian-speaking migrant children’s experiences (2.2) discussing why this group merits attention. Next, I review the studies of the experiences of EAL or migrant pupils in the UK. Then, I examine personality development (2.3) in relation to migration, middle childhood, and L2 studies, identifying a gap in this area. This is preceded by a brief outline of the main trajectories and theories of personality development, explaining the relevance and applicability of the theories. As the aim of this thesis is to explore the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English state-funded primary schools, my literature review will focus primarily on the experiences and personality development of migrant primary level pupils’ studies in an L2 learning environment. It does not intend to cover secondary or pre-school levels, or studies pertinent to adult migration, nor the ESL/EFL, or bilingual schools’ context, unless particularly relevant to the findings (Chapters 5 to 9) and the discussion (Chapter 11) and absent in the EAL or migration context of the UK. The incorporation of the studies from other than English contexts is done with caution, recognising contextual differences outside of (and within) England.

2.2  Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the UK
This section deals with an overview of research into Russian-speaking migrant pupils (2.2.1), elaborating on why this language group merits special attention (2.2.2), and reviews studies on the experiences of other language groups (2.2.3). These are relevant to the overall argument of this thesis focusing on an exploration of the experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils.

2.2.1 Research into Russian-speaking migrant pupils
Globally, research related to Russian-speaking immigrant children has been undertaken in various contexts: education in Finland (Laihiala-Kankainen, 1998; Räty et al., 2011; 2012; Nieminen and Ullakonoja, 2017; Säävälä et al., 2017); sociolinguistics in Ireland (Eriksson, 2015), Germany (Chirkina and Aruin, 2013; Gagarina et al., 2014; Walters et al., 2014; Gagarina, 2016), Slovenia (Tomitec, 2015), Israel (Schwartz et al., 2009; Shulova-Piryatinsky and Harkins, 2009 – including Ukraine and the US; Ronen, 2012; Zbenovich, 2014; Putjata, 2017); bilingualism in the US (Schmitt, 2000; Unik, 2006), Canada (Makarova and Terekhova, 2017), Israel (Altman et al.,
psychology in the US (Sekerina and Trueswell, 2011), Greece (Palaiologou, 2007), Turkey (Antonova-Ünlü and Wei, 2016); the Baltic States (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania) (Leino et al., 2006; Kemppainen et al., 2008; 2015; Cara, 2010; 2013; Kello et al., 2011; Šumskas et al., 2012); adoption in New Zealand (Johnstone and Gibbs, 2010), the US (Farina et al., 2004; Pronchenko-Jain and Fernando, 2013), and Italy (Caprin et al., 2015; 2017). In Scotland, Ivashinenko (2019) conducts a study in Russian Saturday (supplementary) schools with respect to the parents’ social networking. Nevertheless, to date there are no known precedents concentrating on the experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in UK primary or secondary schools.

The absence of studies into Russian-speaking pupils in the UK may be the result of the way of life that Russian-speaking families lead, defined as an ‘invisible community’ by Kopnina (2005, p.205), or a lack of feeling of belonging to a community. Kopnina (2005) maintains that the Russian-speaking population in London has accumulated diverse adaptation strategies and leads a disintegrated existence which, inter alia, bears influence on their children as they attend schools with subjects taught in English while using Russian as the main/dominant language at home. Other reasons comprise the recent phenomenon of the increasing number of Russian-speaking children in UK schools (as I introduced in 1.2) due to the growing prestige of the British educational system (Chankseliani, 2018) and the recent acquisition of free migration status, now threatened by Brexit, for some partially Russian-speaking countries in the EU (Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia). Despite this rapid increase, there is a relatively small number of pupils in comparison with other language groups, constituting about 9 percent in state-funded primary and 5 percent in secondary schools out of all EAL pupils in England (DfE, 2018a). The perceived logical generalisability and applicability of research into other immigrant groups in the UK is an additional factor together with the fact, perhaps obviously, that Russian-speaking children are mostly racially homogenous with the majority of the UK population (Malyutina, 2013). Representing 90 ethnicities (Anderson and Silver, 1990), including Bashkirs or Turcik, Russian-speakers are in fact a heterogeneous multinational and multi-ethnic population (Central Intelligence Agency [CIA], 1990; Gitelman, 1994). Furthermore, Russian-speaking migrant children have not been separated from the studies into Eastern European minority children (Thomas, 2012; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014; Sime and Fox, 2015a; Liu and Evans, 2016; Demie, 2018c; O'Shea, 2018). Although significant, these studies did not pay sufficient heed to the plurality of the distinct sociocultural aspects of Eastern European peoples. Both Eastern European and non-EU Russian-speaking countries, may share traces of their Communist pasts, but divides remain including those defined by the limits of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) alliance and the EU’s new boundaries.
2.2.2 Why Russian-speaking migrant pupils merit attention

It has long been acknowledged that one cannot entirely generalise from the experiences of one linguistic minority group to those of another. There are commonalities in the experiences of immigrant children but there are also features specific to particular groups (Chuang and Moreno, 2011). Moreover, as Parke and Chuang (2011) say, ‘there is no single image of immigrant children but many portraits. Progress will only be possible if we recognize the heterogeneity of immigrant children’ (p.272).

Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ linguistic minority group is distinctive in several ways. In respect to the Russian-speaking children’s achievement in the UK, the National Pupil Database (NPD) analyses (Strand et al., 2015; Demie, 2018c) disclose that Russian-speaking pupils progressively outperform ‘other EAL White groups’ of pupils, being the second highest achieving group of pupils in ‘White other group’ in Key Stage 2, outperforming English as a first language speaking group and appearing second after the French-speaking group (Strand et al., 2015). In 2016, Russian pupils performed above the national average (54 percent) in Key Stage 2 Standard Attainment Tests (SATs) (Demie, 2018c). This corresponds with a cross-contextual presentation of students from the former Soviet Union who are found to be highly achieving, successful, and motivated (e.g. Eisikovits, 2008). Similarly, Russian-speaking pupils at Key Stage 4 were reported to be relatively high achievers provided they had high L2 proficiency (Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014). An additional characteristic of them is expressed by teachers in Finnish schools. Russian-speaking pupils are described as friendly, ‘very polite, attentive, and well-mannered and treat teachers with great respect’ (Laihiala-Kankainen, 1998, p.67). Moreover, they are very capable in terms of cognition and problem-solving, which is ‘present in their [Russian pupils’] upbringing’ (p.77).

Nonetheless, while being high achievers academically, some evidence connotes Russian-speaking migrant pupils might be at risk of having issues of a cultural and/or psychological nature. In their article ‘Russian child mental health’ Goodman et al. (2005) establish that, compared to British children in the UK, Russian children in Russia have twice as many behavioural and emotional pathologies. Similarly, low resilience, and a prevalence of psychological, mental health disorders (e.g. depression) was found among Russian-speaking migrants (Aroian et al., 2001; Aroian and Norris, 2002; Landa et al., 2015). This was catalysed by the breakup of the Soviet Union followed by economic regression and instability (Goodman et al., 2005). While this study did not focus on Russian speakers in the UK, it allows one to construe some features of a portrait of Russian-speaking pupils who are (mostly) from the former Soviet Union countries and use the Russian
language (for a review, e.g. Pavlenko, 2008; Yelenevskaya, 2015), as exposed to post-migration mental health disorders.

What also merits attention to Russian-speaking migrant children is that Russian-speaking families are distinct from native English pupils and many other language minority groups because they conceivably share different expectations of schooling (Elliot et al., 2005). Russian-speaking parents impart a culturally and socially embedded understanding of education and schooling to their children (Hufton and Elliott, 2000; Elliott et al., 2005), potentially intensified by a common notion of nostalgia about the Communist regimes, and their motherland among Russian-speakers abroad (Isurin, 2011). They also share a specific ‘pedagogical nexus’ of Russian schools – i.e. the high value of education, fostering and up-bringing styles, support and engagement practices – which Russian-speaking families bring to the UK and into which they root their children’s formation in a new environment (Hufton and Elliott, 2000, p.115). This allegedly makes Russian pupils more motivated than pupils in American and English schools. In addition, Russian mothers have been portrayed as highly involved in the education of their children adopting the ‘child as project’ (Hallden, 1991; Vincent and Ball, 2007) child-rearing practices in different contexts (Payne, 2015; Akifyeva, 2017). Indirectly warning against unintentional generalisations in their study of Russian-speaking migrant youth in Finland, Pikkarainen and Protassova (2015) caution that one should, nevertheless, also take into consideration heterogeneity within a Russian-speaking migrant group.

2.2.3 Experiences of migrant pupils

As stated earlier, much of the research that has been conducted in the UK on the experiences of linguistic minority immigrant children has not focused on Russian-speakers. This section reviews the studies into the experiences of other language groups, starting with the studies which focus on a representative of a particular language background, moving to the studies of experiences of migrant pupils in general.

In relation to specific language groups, a few studies into migrant pupils’ experiences have tended to emphasise identity. Employing a multi-method qualitative study, Tereshchenko and Archer (2015) explore the experiences and identities of 12 Albanian and 8 Bulgarian children, comparing complementary and mainstream schools in London. Archer and Francis (2007) and Chen (2007) conduct qualitative research into the identities and experiences of a Chinese group of high-achieving migrant pupils. Focusing on Chinese pupils, Ganassin (2017; 2018) explores community, rather than the mainstream schooling experiences of Chinese pupils. Chinese-British pupils’ educational values are a focus of Francis and Archer’s (2005) qualitative research. The views of Polish migrant parents, as opposed to children, on their experiences and expectations of
schooling have been analysed (Ryan and Sales, 2013) as have their parenting issues (Cheah and Li, 2010). Displaying teacher perceptions, Flynn (2013; 2018) conducts a longitudinal qualitative research of Bulgarian children. Similarly, Walters (2007) examines teachers’ assessments of Bangladeshi pupils based on three primary level pupils. Bangladeshi pupils’ have also been explored in relation to the migration-related rapid development of middle childhood maturation by Houghton et al. (2014) in their quantitative study of first-generation migrant girls. Although significant, these studies overlook more holistic perspectives on in-school learning experiences.

A broader view of the experiences of some migrant pupils has been conveyed in several studies. Amniana and Gadour’s (2007) qualitative study of the experiences of newly arrived Libyan children in England highlights a need for equality of educational opportunity and a dialogue between parents and school. Sales et al. (2008) reveal tensions in the education of Polish pupils in four primary schools in London. This, however, has been based on school members and parental interviews, rather than expressing the voices of children. In Scotland, Moskal’s (2016) ethnographic research into the experiences of Polish pupils, inter alia, highlights a need for holistic support in the learning of migrant pupils and promotion of their cultural capital, and finds that schools do not support pupils’ L1 retention. Valkanova (2009) conducts a qualitative study of 12 Bulgarian children and their parents about their experiences during the transition to English schools from Bulgaria, which were stipulated by their parental strategies, and the unpreparedness of English schools in addressing language support. Valkanova (2009) finds that a more complex holistic approach in addressing the adjustment of Bulgarian children during the transition to UK schools is imperative: one should focus on their ‘cognitive as well as affective engagement’ (p.134). While this study is an important contribution to the experiences of Eastern European migrant pupils, it would have been beneficial to include observational data of in-school learning experiences, as well as the views of teachers, in order to provide a more multi-faceted and holistic perspective.

A lot of research into migrant children to date has tended to focus on academic achievement. Demie and Lewis (2010) explore the achievements of Portuguese pupils in London using an ethnographic approach. Hammer and Dewaele (2015) similarly study acculturation as a predictor of achievement of Polish pupils in their quantitative research. Achievements of immigrant pupils of no particular language group (Demie and Hau, 2013; Strand et al., 2015) have been extensively explored in relation to ethnicity (Archer and Francis, 2007; Demie and McLean, 2007), the length of stay (Strand, 2016), socioeconomic situation and attainment gaps (Strand, 2012; 2013; 2014a; 2014b; Lenkeit et al., 2015), mobility of pupils including migration from abroad (Strand and Demie, 2006; 2007), individual schools’ effectiveness (Demie and Lewis, 2010; 2018), the effect
of urban versus rural migration (Resosudarmo and Suryadarma, 2014), and achievement and school engagement (Motti-Stefanidi and Masten, 2013).

Important to the argument of this thesis (discussed in 11.2.1) is the considerable amount of research into migrant/EAL children which acknowledges the link between academic achievement/attainment/progress with the L2 in the UK (Hall, 2001; Conteh, 2003; 2007; Strand and Demie, 2005; Conteh et al., 2007; Safford and Costley, 2008; Chen, 2009 – achievement linked with linguistic and socioemotional safety; Ryan et al., 2010; Mistry and Sood, 2011; Demie and Hau, 2013; Arnot et al., 2014; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014; Evans et al., 2016; Whiteside et al., 2017; Demie, 2018a; 2018b; Strand and Hessel, 2018). This has also been identified abroad (Palaiologou, 2007 – in Greece; Pong, 2009 – achievement and redshirting in Hong-Kong; Mantovani and Martini, 2008; Azzolini and Barone, 2013 – Italian context; Portes and Fernández-Kelly, 2008; Lutz and Crist, 2009 – in North America; Jarkovská, 2015 – in Czech context).

Additionally, as Winterbottom and Leedy (2014) show in their study of immigrant children (from Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Kosovo) in a northeast England school, achievement barriers can originate from differing academic achievement perceptions of teachers and children. Similarly, in a Dutch context, Haan and Wissink (2013) disclose contrasting views of parents and teacher on children’s academic achievement and success, reflecting teachers’ attributions of success and failure. Apart from language, achievement has also been linked with migrant children’s identity (Fuligni, 1998; Conteh, 2003; Akiba, 2007; Archer and Francis, 2007; Conteh et al., 2007; Alderman, 2008), related to well-being, motivation, and stress-coping mechanisms (Syed et al., 2011).

Few studies have focused on the attainment and experiences of EAL pupils in mathematics (e.g. Wallace, 2011; the Bell Foundation, 2017), which is relevant to the discussion section 11.2.5. In contrast with L2 literacy, in mathematics migrant pupils tend to display higher achievement and progress (National Tables, 2015; 2017). In a Canadian context, immigrant pupils outperformed non-immigrants in mathematics, exhibiting higher mathematics and school self-concepts (academic beliefs and perceptions) and academic motivation compared with non-immigrant students (Areepattamannil and Freeman, 2008). Using a universal ‘language of numbers’ (Janzen, 2008, p.1017) illustrates that mathematics is potentially more accessible than L2 learning for migrant children. However, for L2-immersed learners (migrant pupils) mathematics, nevertheless, requires a substantial knowledge of L2, namely, for word problems (Trakulphadetkrai et al., 2017). This is known as a language component called mathematical LL (Thompson et al., 2008) or Content Area Literacy in mathematics (Armstrong et al., 2018) among other multiple conventional and unconventional (e.g. notes) mathematical literacies (Cobb, 2004).
It thus posits a challenge for all pupils in that it requires specific vocabulary which cannot be learned using everyday communication (Janzen, 2008). EAL pupils’ experiences in mathematics remains under-researched and lacks explanatory value, especially for recent migrant pupils in primary schools.

Importantly, an exploration of the achievement of migrant children and the associated experiences of pupils is particularly challenging, especially in the UK, because, as Demie (2018a), Demie and Lewis (2010) suggest, a statistical inaccuracy as regards different ethnic groups (e.g. a failure to distinguish between different European groups) potentially distorts the results of such investigations. In this respect, Demie (2015, p.732) asserts that there is:

A clear requirement for further research into language groups whose needs are obscured in the White Other ethnic category, speaking languages such as Polish, Albanian, German, Spanish, French, Portuguese, Italian, Turkish, Greek, Lithuanian etc.

Hutchinson (2018) also emphasises that the high attainment statistics in 2016 of EAL pupils in the UK are misleading as many EAL pupils’ assessment results were not included in this assessment as they arrived after the assessment took place (approx. 30 percent in primary schools). In addition, these results were based on the learning support provided by the EMAG (Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant) (pupils arriving in UK schools during the time this grant was in place) (see 1.6.3). Thus, pupils arriving after 2011 might receive much less learning support, which also impacts on their attainment (Hutchinson, 2018; Leung and Solomon, 2019).

At the same time, Qin and Han (2011) point out that high achievement should not be equated with the psychological adjustment and well-being of immigrant children, and an understanding of high achievement for immigrant pupils, as Conteh (2003) argues, should be modified and extended. Correspondingly, Due et al. (2014) define well-being of migrant children as their own ‘holistic experience of schooling that includes overall perceptions of being at school in a resettlement country (…) of migrant and refugee children that may or may not be related to academic achievement’ (pp.210-211). This, according to Due et al. (2014, p.211) referring to Fattore et al. (2007), contradicts the more common well-being definitions, which comprise behavioural issues, achievement, and meeting developmental milestones. This is supported by the studies into EAL pupils’ experiences post-migration, which are often found to be linked with anxiety, a lack of agency and voice, and being ‘plagued with psychological distress’ (Sonderegger and Barrett, 2004, p.342). Relevant to the argument discussed in 11.4.3 and 11.5.1.3, an increased risk of well-being issues and psychological traumas is associated in the literature with the migration of children (Peček et al., 2008; Sales et al., 2008; Chen, 2009; Oznobishin and Kurman, 2009;
Shelley, 2009; Li, 2010; Daglar et al., 2011; Ryu, 2013; Glick and Scott, 2016; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2018). General tensions and issues have appeared among children at primary level (Conteh, 2003; Hamilton, 2013; Jones, 2015; Welply, 2015 – the impact of the global; Moskal, 2016; Dakin, 2017; Neitzel et al., 2018 – regarding low social status). Children who used EAL had more emotional (vulnerability) and peer problems, and general difficulties compared to English as a first language pupils in Leavey et al.’s (2004) study. As for the causes of the issues, Leavey et al. (2004, p.194) say:

We cannot clarify whether this vulnerability is related to language attainment per se or a combination with risk factors associated with adaptational and other social stressors faced by migrant and refugee families living in the UK.

Pertaining to the argument of this thesis in 11.2.5, in relation to language, other studies, which explored the experiences of EAL pupils in association with L2 or with specific peculiarities of the English pedagogy in L2 schools in the UK, suggest tensions and difficulties (with the exception of e.g. Flynn, 2007). For instance, concerning, inter alia, an interplay of language, identity, and social integration (Evans and Liu, 2018), cognitive demands in L2 learning (Safford and Costley, 2008; Moskal, 2016), vocabulary and comprehension of primary level pupils (Hutchinson et al., 2003), communication issues and language barriers (Winterbottom and Leedy, 2014), LL, identities, and citizenship experiences of secondary level pupils in a London school as influenced by curriculum in English (alongside mathematics and humanities) (Wallace, 2011). It is particularly topical then to explore the holistic experiences (including academic and non-achievement and L2) of Russian-speaking migrant groups (part of the White Other ethnic category), seeing achievement in broader terms, as part of children’s own successes and well-being.

Another aspect of the experiences of migrant pupils relevant to this thesis (cross-analysed in 10.2.1 and discussed in 11.2.1) is teachers’ academic expectations. Teachers’ positive expectations, known as the Rosenthal (or Pygmalion) effect (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968), are found to be crucial in children’s learning, progress, and achievement (Demie and McLean, 2007; Bodovski and Durham, 2010; Demie and Lewis, 2010; Strambler and Weinstein, 2010; Ewijk, 2011). Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968, p.55) explain:

Sometimes the teacher recognizes disadvantages and perhaps, sometimes, she [he] creates them. An evaluation of a child, lowered or raised by halo effects, may lead to a specific expectation of performance which is communicated to the child who then may go on to fulfil the teachers’ prophecy.
Machovcová’s (2017) study of teacher’s expectations of migrant pupils in primary schools in the Czech Republic identifies that the academic success of migrant pupils was attributed to their individualised traits and not their migrant L2 status; however, low academic success was attributed to a migrant L2 or foreign cultural background. Essentially, these findings support previous studies of teachers’ expectations of migrant children in different educational contexts. For children post-migration, expectations are found to be lowered (Dee, 2005; Figlio, 2005; Bourne, 2007; Robertson, 2007; Anderson-Clark et al., 2008; Sirin et al., 2009; Ewijk, 2011; Sood and Mistry, 2011; Intxausti and Etxeberria, 2013; Sprietsma, 2013; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014; Pulinx et al., 2017). Pupils, as Safford and Costley (2008) disclose, face ‘preconceived negative assessments of their abilities which were based solely on their lack of experience in English’ (p.141). Dakin (2017) finds how teachers erroneously describe a pupil as ‘deliberately holding back’ his/her progress which is, as she argues, due to EAL learning specificities (p.430). Conversely, in a German pre-school context Kratzmann (2013) in a longitudinal quantitative study finds no cases of lowering expectations for children from immigrant families.

2.3 Personality development of migrant pupils

As seen from the review of experiences of EAL/migrant pupils, no attention has been paid to personality development of EAL or migrant pupils in L2 primary schools in the UK. Thus, in order to theorise personality and its development trajectories for middle childhood migrant children (Chapter 3), this section considers the literature on personality development. Through critically examining its structure and major perspectives of personality development in middle childhood (2.3.1), the topicality of an exploration of personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils accounting for learning context (L2 schools) is brought to the foreground (2.3.2). I start with an outline of the general process of personality development as construed from the literature.

2.3.1 How does personality develop?

Many researchers support the view that personality and individuality develop as ‘both exceedingly personal – touching at the heart of our sense of self – and socially constituted. This is true at the beginning of life and throughout the life course’ (Thomson and Goodvin, 2005, p.421). Thus, personality development may be understood as a study of change (Cohen, 1976), the process of systematic and successive growth and change through life (Smith and Cowie, 1991), an exploration of which is determined by the researcher’s philosophical positions (Lerner et al., 2005). The question is, how does personality develop? What seems clear, as McAdams and Adler (2014) put it, is that ‘there is no single, all-encompassing course of development for
It is certainly challenging to trace such an abstract and individualised phenomenon as personality, which is difficult to separate from other forms of development.

Slotkin, back in 1952, said that personality development includes aspects of inheritance, socialisation, culturalisation, and individualisation. Kagan (1971) affirms that the motives, anxieties, and critical periods embodied in feeling, wishing, and thinking are the core principles in personality development. Smith (1974) says that it is possible to view personality development as a change in the structural entity of traits within the self, performing certain social roles. Cohen (1976) suggests three sources of personality development, notably: biogenic (heredity), psychogenic (maternal influences and other early experiences, motivations, and learning potential), and sociogenic (experiences that originate from both social and cultural environment). These views coincide with the recent trends in developmental psychology. Namely, the basic model of personality development, according to Smith and Cowie (1991), consists of genotype, environment, and the process of development, which beget certain behaviour. Hart et al. (2003) consider personality development to be a slow process balanced by externally imposed limits of behaviour (e.g. strictures of parents and expectations of teachers) and internal biologically shaped behaviour (e.g. anxiety). Thomson and Goodvin (2005) admit that personality development is not limited to temperament, self, and emotions, but also includes numerous levels of environmental, contextual, societal, and cultural factors. In other words, personality development is, indeed (Thomson and Goodvin, 2005, p.420):

> an inclusive construct that incorporates the variety of psychobiological, conceptual, social, and contextual influences that self-organize to constitute developing individuality through the life course.

Personality development of children, according to Rothbart (2007), is understood as their ‘developing cognitions of self, others, and the physical and social world as well as his or her values, attitude, and coping strategies’ (p.207).

As one may notice, some of these views are very encompassing, broad, and perhaps somewhat vague. Personality development has not been regarded as a conceptually holistic system but equated with other forms of changes pertinent to social, moral, religious, and ethnic/racial identity changes, thereby failing to present a unified yet flexible and fluent theory of personality development that acknowledges diversity (e.g. Simanowitz and Pearce, 2003). One may infer that those researching personality define personality development in terms of wide-ranging psychological, social, moral, ethnic, religious, and other forms of change. Devoid of structure, conceptual logic, and theoretical congruity, these views on personality development are then unanalysable and inapplicable in the context of my study.
2.3.2 Middle childhood, migration, and L2 studies: identifying a gap

In this section I review personality development regarding childhood research, followed by personality development pertaining to migration and education including L2 studies. In relation to children, the determination of personality structure is complex and the complexity is considered to diminish with age, i.e. the study of young children’s personality structure is more complicated and manifold than adults’ structural peculiarities (Caspi and Shiner, 2006; Kavčič et al, 2012). This is confirmed by other studies (see Pervin et al., 2005): personality structure is proven to be ‘more complex and less integrated in childhood than in adulthood’ (p.270). Nevertheless, the adult personality structure models, e.g. the five-factor model or the Big Five, or OCEAN, which includes Openness to Experience/Intellect, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism that originate from Eysenck’s three-factor model (neuroticism, extraversion, and introversion) (Pervin et al., 2005), have been widely applied in research with children and adolescents through factor-analysis questionnaires, observations, adjective lists, and the California Child Q-sort from parents reports, teachers reports, and self-report questionnaires (children aged 5 to 10) (for a review – Caspi and Shiner, 2006). Boyd and Bee (2010) point out that by middle childhood temperament develops into five dimensions of personality (the Big Five). Other studies relating to middle childhood demonstrate occurrences of the Big Five in young and late childhood by means of parental reports using the California Child Q-sort (Caspi and Shiner, 2006), children’s self-reports in puppet interviews (Measelle et al., 2005), and teacher’s reports using a list of trait descriptions (Digman and Shmelyov, 1996). Digman and Shmelyov (1996) have concluded that the ‘five-factor model for the organisation of personality descriptors, founded on samples of American adults, appears to be a valid model for the description of individual differences in children in the Russian language and culture as well’ (p.346).

Critics of the Big Five (e.g. Fruyt and Leeuwen, 2014) say that the disadvantages of the model consist in the overly structured (its hierarchical and multifaceted form) pattern of personality, which might not be a suitable personality assessment strategy for specific purposes; that is, when the Big Five model might not fit the researchers’ objectives then other, more abstract, forms of personality assessment should be employed. Moreover, the five-factor model represents broad individual differences and some traits ‘are relatively difficult to portray’ through this model (Fruyt and Leeuwen, 2014, p.764). Alternative explanatory taxonomies of personality types in childhood and adolescence have been identified in various studies. Hart et al. (2003) suggest a taxonomy of Resilients, Overcontrollers (inhibited), and Undercontrollers (uninhibited). The Little Six (HECAXO) model of children’s personality traits has also been introduced, which incorporates the Big Five and includes the sixth factor, honesty-humility (Maltby et al., 2010).
The Big One factor of child’s personality determines the general factor of personality underlying the five-factor model: stability or plasticity (Musek, 2007). While these models have attempted to address some limitations of the Big Five, they fail to account for its other fundamental disadvantages: an inability to account for context, a denial of agency, and the neglect of dynamism (ongoing change) in the model. In other words, a researcher who conducts Big Five factor model-based research will not be able to explain the reasons for the trait’s occurrence, the developmental trajectory of this particular person, reasons for particular trait dominance or their shift, etc. These might imply that in personality development research each specific case should be considered critically in terms of the adoption of a specific personality development model.

Pertaining to migrant children, personality development is peculiar for a few reasons. It has been found that biological sources have the most influence on stability in a personality; however, the environment mostly impacts on personality change (Spengler et al., 2012). In addition, accentuation hypothesis (Caspi and Mottiff, 1991) in personality psychology conjectures that ‘stressful life events and transitions tend to intensify existing individual characteristics’ (Donnellan et al., 2006, p.290). Accentuation implies that some behaviours or traits are more prominent and noticeable (Allport et al., 1953; Donnellan et al., 2006). Following these models, migrant children go through various adjustment processes resulting from sociocultural changes, which would catalyse personality development and bring about new directions at different levels of their lives as opposed to non-migrant children whose relatively stable personality development is ‘uninterrupted’ by new sociocultural environment.

Overall, there has been relatively little literature published on personality and migration in different contexts. Some examples are the study of personality traits in correlation with L2 proficiency among international students in the Netherlands (van Niejenhuis et al., 2018), the personality development and stress of immigrant youth in health research (Merino, 2016), and the personalities of migrant adults (Boneva and Frieze, 2001). Situated within multilingualism, studies on ‘Third Culture Kids’ (Fail et al., 2004; Moore and Barker, 2012; Lijadi et al., 2014; Selmer and Lauring, 2014; Morales, 2015; Tannenbaum and Tseng, 2015), or children ‘in-between’ (Anderson, 1999, p.13) disclose identity and transition issues for migrant children. Similarly, focusing on Third Culture Kids psychological studies (Dewaele and Stavans, 2014; Dewaele and van Oudenhoven, 2009) reveal a correlation between personality traits and multiculturalism. A growing body of literature reviewed by Dewaele (2016) expound the relationship between personality and multilingualism/multi-competence, which aims to explore the ways multi-competence (e.g. language use) impacts on personality. Such studies mostly see
personality as a set of traits, a variable, explored outside of an educational context, rather than a sociocultural dynamic process.

As with migration, in relation to education and L2 studies, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) observe: 'the role and impact of personality appears to be curiously limited, and the amount of research targeting personality in L2 studies has been minimal compared to the study of most other ID [identifier] variables' (p.150). This, as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) explain, might have been caused by the inability to determine an apparent applicability of personality in the education of L2 learners, and so regarded as unimportant in education (Dörnyei, 2005). However, Dörnyei (2005) admits the necessity of investigation into the ‘situational factors on the variation of personality and behaviour’ in the L2 field (p.13). Another explanation can be found in sociological research when, as a term criticised in sociology for being overly individualistic, personality has been intentionally avoided in research, replaced by social identity (Hagstrom and Wertsch, 2004).

Interestingly, in line with this, the very word ‘personality’ is omitted in one English translation of Leontyev’s (1977) work ‘Activity, consciousness, and personality’, appearing as ‘Activity and consciousness’.

Contrasting views on the educational learning context more broadly (irrespective of migrant children in L2 schools) (e.g. Bhatta, 2009; Timchenko, 2011; Sutton Trust, 2016) suggest that personality development research is highly significant for education. The Sutton Trust (2016) report posits that a correct understanding of personality development links to proper (socially demanded) behaviour, academic achievement, and self-fulfilling living. Bhatta (2009) explores personality development through education following Indian educational frameworks, which consists of four dimensions: the ‘physical body, the development of intellectual and aesthetic sensibilities, the development of socially desirable moral values, and finally, the inner dimension of spiritual growth’ (p.50). Timchenko (2011) focuses on personality development within the process of education, employing a theoretical framework of a tri-dimensional structural development of personality: biological, psychological, and social. In contrast with the aforementioned psychometric studies into personality, personality formation, according to Timchenko (2011), occurs only in a social environment with purposeful up-bringing and education. In summary, these studies impart global socio-philosophical and sociocultural views of personality development that underline its significance in the educational process and as an important field of research.

Just as with the leading models of personality structure of children reviewed above, personality development investigation might have seemed inapplicable in education and L2 studies due to an
unsuitable and therefore somewhat limiting approach which overlooks the contexts’ impact (Hart et al., 2003). In respect to this, Donnellan et al. (2006, p.289) point out,

Research attention should focus on the contexts likely to have the most significant reciprocal relations with personality development because surprisingly little is known about the interplay of experiences in these contexts and the development of personality.

In their ‘guide to structuring more holistic thinking about psychology’ of language learners, Williams et al. (2015) warn against overlooking the impact of contexts on individuals often induced by a commitment to accuracy which ‘risk painting an incomplete and or even inaccurate picture’ (p.142). Earlier authors, such as Chave (1937), Slotkin (1952), and Cohen (1976), supported the importance of considering the impacts of sociocultural conditions and contexts rather than merely trying to understand the behaviour patterns of individuals. Accounting for contexts pertains to the explanatory (as opposed to descriptive, i.e. traits have a predictive aim, and dispositional, i.e. traits as inclinations that determine behaviours, the ‘if-then’ dependent hypotheses) view, or realist neo-Allportian view in the ontology of the personality traits debate (Caspi and Shiner, 2006). It enables an analytic understanding of an individual’s inner psychological processes and constructs that cause internal conditions. In other words, an explanatory view tries to provide explanations of actions, behaviours, and motivations (Caspi and Shiner, 2006) and thus will have more practical value in the research of personality development. Overall, particularly in accounting for contexts (i.e. an explanatory view) salient for migrant children, migration, education, and L2 studies are underexplored areas of personality development.

2.4 Summary

Having elaborated on the significance and peculiarities of the Russian-speaking migrant group (2.2) in this literature review I have identified that much of the research which has been conducted in the UK has focused on the experiences of linguistic minority immigrant children other than Russian-speaking ones. Broadening my scope of review to other primary migrant groups, I have further analysed that the experiences/issues of EAL/migrant pupils have been considered. Very few studies took a holistic approach, preferring to somewhat haphazardly focusing extensively on achievement (2.2.3). Absent from the research has been an exploration of the personality development of EAL pupils. I have subsequently referred to the personality development literature (2.3) in relation to migration, middle childhood, education, and L2 studies, demonstrating the significance of such exploration particularly in the educational contexts post-
migration. In the next chapter I turn to the theoretical framework elaboration, which, among other things, provides valuable guidance with regard to a consideration of contexts for migrant pupils.
Chapter 3  Theoretical framework

3.1 Towards theorising experiences and personality development

In this chapter following the literature review, I introduce the theoretical framework for understanding the experiences of Russian-speaking migrant middle childhood children and their personality development. In order to holistically theorise the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils I constructed a theoretical framework with levels of relevant theories (Anfara and Mertz, 2006) including overarching theories, i.e. broader social level or macro-substantive (particular social) dimensions, and narrower conceptual theories, i.e. individual level theories, or micro-formal (local social organisation) and micro-substantive (situation-specific) dimensions of theories (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, p.188). I draw on a combination of Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural and McAdams’ (2015a) personality development frameworks, supported by additional individual level theories or narrower conceptual theories, used to explain micro-formal, situation-specific data, i.e. micro-substantive dimensions (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, p.188), relevant to the thesis argument in the discussion (Chapter 11). I will now elaborate on the relevance of these frameworks, attending to a belief that theoretical frameworks should ‘guide and inform, rather than determine and force’ the emerging research design and process’ (Harris, 2006, p.145, italics in original; also, Walter, 2010).

3.2 Lev Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory

Lev Vygotsky’s (1934; 1978; 1997; 2005; Vygotsky and Luria, 1993) sociocultural theory is chosen as an overarching theoretical framework for my study. It allows me to explore psychological and language-related processes in the context of the L2 school, linking sociocultural environment, language, and personality, and it enables a focus on an individual (and his/her experiences) as a centre of analysis with attention to ‘how the child experiences the situation’ rather than ‘the situation in itself’ (Vygotsky, 1998, p.294). Another strength and pertinence of a sociocultural approach in this thesis is that it, following Gregory (2002, p.2),

Rejects the difference between psychology and anthropology. (...) It’s not just interdisciplinary; it actually transcends disciplines, as it focuses on the inextricable link between culture and cognition through engagement in activities, tasks, or events.

This facilitates a coherent exploration of the educational, language-related, and psychological experiences of migrant pupils. The theory has various branches and foci that have been applied in different studies in education (e.g. Lantolf and Pavlenko, 1995; Lantolf, 2000; Kozulin, 2003; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006; Smagorinsky, 2007; Lantolf and Poehner, 2008; 2014; Swain et al.,
Particularly relevant to this study are Vygotsky’s dialectics, his historicism, his views on language as a fundamental mediational tool, and his developments related to children’s personality (Vygotsky, 1982; 2005).

Based on Vygotsky’s materialist psychology (Wertsch, 2000), sociocultural theory originated from Marx’s (1955) ‘Theses on Feuerbach’ dialectical materialist methodological approach. The dialectical approach suggests that psychological development is sociocultural in its origin and arises from sociocultural interactions. It starts from the premise that the ‘development of human thinking and behaviour is driven by material (practical) needs, rather than theoretical or ideal interests’ (Vygotsky and Luria, 1993, p.70, my translation). If the sociocultural environment is a source of development, therefore, to change the process of development, one needs to change their environment: ‘change the environment and the process changes’, and it is in the process of change over time that a ‘phenomenon reveals its nature’ (Lantolf and Poehner, 2014, p.40). Change of the environment, in relation to my study, involves change in language, school routines etc. as a result of migration, i.e. the change of cultural realities (Hollday, 2011) of Russian-speaking migrant children. Language change is crucial. Being fundamental to all mental processes, ‘as a tool for intellectual activity’ (Luria, 1973, p.307, italics in original), language mediates children’s view of the world (Kozulin et al., 2003). Vygotsky (1999) sees language as a ‘product of human becoming’ (p.275, my translation) and as ‘the fundamental element realised by our thinking as a system of inner organisation of experience’ (Vygotsky, 1997, p.169). It is also described as a tool in achieving a purpose of materialist psychology, i.e. to understand the interactions of ‘brain, body, human practical activity, and consciousness’, and hence it is a unit of analysis of these relationships (Lantolf and Poehner, 2014, p.22), the main instrument ‘through which humans construe the world’ (Thorne and Tasker, 2011, p.491). The change of language in a learning environment due to migration naturally leads to a change of the LL process (including learning through a different language) incurring new, unpredictable developmental changes and mental processes that are cultural in their nature (Leontyev, 1997; Mahn, 2003). Therefore, Russian-speaking migrant children immersed in an L2 language school environment (i.e. cultural reality), according to sociocultural theory, go through new processes of cultural and psychological development.

What constitutes a dialectical approach, as Vygotsky (1993) says in relation to the dynamics of a child’s character, is ‘emergence and unfolding’ (p.155), including an exploration of the experiences as dynamic, manifold, and perpetually changing (Mahn, 2003). Vygotsky (1997, p.205) explains,
The social environment comprises an inexhaustible collection of the most diverse aspects and elements, which are always in the most outright contradiction with each other and always engaged in the most brutal struggle against each other. We should not think of the environment as a whole as a static, elemental, and stable system of elements, but rather as a dialectically developing dynamic process.

Hegelian dialectics (Hegel, 1874), which informed Vygotsky’s theory, includes three main features: ‘everything is in a process of change’, ‘everything is contradictory’, and ‘everything has to be understood in its context rather than in isolation’ (Norman, 1994, p.25). Struggle in dialectics is ‘not merely destructive but also productive’ (Sayers, 1994, p.23). The process of dialectical change comprises: the abstract, dialectical, and the speculative (the positive reason) stages (Hegel, 1874, p.122), or thesis (harmonious state), antithesis (individual conscience; being unstable), and synthesis (a unity of the previous two) (Magee, 2000, p.192). Vygotsky (2004) describes this in reference to a child’s critical period as a process of ‘revolution, destruction of the previous equilibrium, and a search for a new equilibrium’ (p.35). In effect, these processes of change happen within a dialectics of abstract (theoretical systematic observations made by, for example, a child in an L2 school) and concrete experience (practical implementation), and it is in this unity the change (and development) occurs. In other words, a practical need, e.g. the use of mediational tools in learning, stimulates human development as a result of learning.

Based on such an understanding of human development, Vygotsky (1978) infers that the developmental process ‘lags behind the learning process’ (p.90) and that ‘there are highly complex dynamic relations between developmental and learning processes’ (p.91). Learning is defined by Vygotsky (1978) as ‘a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organised, specifically human, psychological functions’ (p.90). Essential for my argument in the discussion (section 11.2.5) is an aspect of learning, which catalyses development, namely, the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978, p.90) maintains that

An essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development; that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalised, they become part of the child’s independent developmental achievement.

Overall, in order to explore the developmental processes of migrant children one needs to analyse the social environment of L2 schools (Shooshtaria and Mirb, 2014, p.1772) and migrant children’s ‘participation in social interactions and culturally organized activities’ (Scott and Palinscar, 2009, p.1). The first is seen as the cultural world ‘where it is understood that all things that are cultural
are also historical, i.e., they come with a history of social use that has established expected meanings, practices, traditions, and so forth’ (Hagstrom and Wertsch, 2004, p.172). This is also referred to as sociogenesis or the sociocultural domain (Shaffer and Kipp, 2007; Thorne and Tasker, 2011). The participation is reflected in practical experiences (the concrete) in a dialectical unity with abstract ideas or theoretical observations of a child (the abstract) in the transformational process treating an individual as a whole. This is also referred to as macrogenesis, or the microgenetic domain (Lantolf, 2000) and comprises the specific development of psychological processes, functions, and abilities that emerge over time or during short periods (Thorne and Tasker, 2011; Lantolf and Poehner, 2014) e.g. personality development.

With regard to personality development, Vygotsky (2005) sees it as a socially and culturally embedded notion ‘created together with higher functions’ which are ‘transported into personality, interiorised relationships of social form’ (Vygotsky, 1986, pp.54-59, my translation). That is, growth and change encompass the historical (rather than innate) characteristics of a person acquired as a result of cultural development based on social communication with more competent individuals who interact with the child (Shaffer and Kipp, 2007). The essence of cultural development lies in a deepening understanding of a person’s own behavioural processes formed by the development of socially determined behaviour (reflected in a person’s inner speech) and the use of tools including language. These two fundamental processes serve as a basis for cultural development, i.e. a transition from natural to cultural life. During such developments personality appears ‘in inevitable conflict with the demands of the surrounding reality’ (Vygotsky, 1997, p.207). For Vygotsky’s adherents, Asmolov (1997) and Leontyev (1975; 2009), to create a portrait of one’s personality is to create a portrait of an individual’s motives, and meaningful actions, in other words, in order to understand personality, one needs to understand the individual’s motives. Asmolov (1997) argues that an understanding of personality development is only possible through the understanding of the system (biological, social, etc.) that creates the personality. This can be done by answering the questions pertinent to the context important for a researcher (i.e. important for the particular research aims): why does the system require personality? Why does this system require personality? What are the motives of this personality? This view coheres into and complements the personality development theory of Dan McAdams, which I will now analyse.

### 3.3 Dan McAdams’ personality development theory

The concerns outlined in the literature review in relation to context, coherence, and the dynamism of personality development are refashioned in this thesis with the help of a recent prominent advancement in the field of personality development – Dan McAdams’ personality development
theory. McAdams (2015a; 2015b; 2015c) suggests three new approaches (lines) to the research into personality development. They include tri-dimensional mutually interacting standpoints: a persona as a certain kind of a social actor; a certain kind of a motivated agent; and a certain kind of an author; or, the social actor (human individuality, culturally and socially evolving traits) (McAdams and Adler, 2014), motivated agent, and the autobiographical author (narrative identity), respectively. The social actor line focuses on the present and answers questions: ‘How do I act? How do I feel?’ The motivated agent line focuses on the present and future, asking, ‘What do I want? What do I value?’ and the Autobiographical Author focuses on the past, present, and future, asking ‘What does my life mean? Who am I? Who am I becoming?’ (McAdams, 2015b, p.260). The construct parts are described as multifaceted, dynamic, complex, and, possibly, contradictory (McAdams and Adler, 2014). However, the theory does not assume that the lines are disjoined selves, but rather ‘three different psychological perspectives from which the self considers itself’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.311).

Reflected in the social actor line, McAdams’ (2015a) theory coheres with a sociocultural perspective (analysed earlier in 3.2), stating that traits are shaped and influenced by social roles and circumstances. In this regard, McAdams’ theory can be seen as an extension of Leontyev’s (1975) view that personality formation is generated by a child’s ‘mediated connection with environment’ by means of activity (p.101, my translation). Thus, a fundamental premise of McAdams (2015b) is that personality is not limited to traits and social roles. McAdams (2015b) argues that people are ‘complex individuals whose problems and potentials cannot be boiled down to a single psychological factor’ and a single factor might not allow us to consider unique individual issues (p.261). Thus, he suggests explaining personality development by employing a composite of the three lines of development or any of the lines separately. McAdams (2015b) emphasises the need for a broader and more inclusive approach in understanding personality development; in his approach, he unites the theoretical perspectives which, as illustrated in the literature review (2.3), have been developing somewhat independently. Indeed, an individual’s personality structural ‘parts’ can only be seen holistically. Personality is too complex and multifaceted to understand it as a set of traits.

Discussing McAdams and Pals (2006), Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) acknowledge that McAdams’ advancement in personality psychology has ‘great potential for SLA [Second Language Acquisition] researchers’ (p.15). Apart from SLA, these advancements are seen as beneficial for educational studies in relation to language learners in an immersion context of L2 schools. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) note, importantly, that ‘there has been no specific research in L2 studies that apply McAdams’ theory yet’ (p.15). While addressing this gap in the field of EAL/migrant
pupils, I will incorporate McAdams’ (2015a) theory as the most beneficial, all-encompassing view on personality development for this thesis, informing the research questions (section 4.2) and, thus, data collection and analysis. In the next two sections I will expand on the motivated agent (3.4) and the social actor (3.5) lines in relation to children post-migration.

3.4 The motivated agent line

This section deals with the motivated agent line of personality development, formulating a framework for the exploration of the personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils as motivated agents. The development of a person as a motivated agent in terms of life goals and values reveals those facets of an individual that cannot be foreseen or logically worked out from his/her traits (McAdams, 2015a). ‘Personality,’ says McAdams, ‘is more about goals and values than it is about traits’ (2015c, p.156, italics in original). Life values, goals, plans, and dreams form a ‘motivational agenda’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.256). The motivational agenda conveys the steps that an individual takes in order to achieve the attributes of a person’s future self. The development of the motivational agenda is idiosyncratic: it may remain stable or undergo unique shifts. Clear goals and motives start to develop at the preteen period (middle childhood) and shape pupils’ everyday behaviour (McAdams, 2015a, p.314).

Exploring and interpreting the motivational agenda of individuals, the context (immersion in the L2 schools) and the participants (Russian-speaking middle childhood migrant pupils) of my study demands a review of the literature of narrower conceptual theories of learning motivation in relation to the age of the participants (middle childhood pupils; 7-11 years old) and the context of immersion in L2 schools as a result of migration. The latter (L2 immersion and a change of the language of learning) naturally calls for an exploration of language-related (L2/LL) motivational theories. Seeing migrant children as motivated agents (holistically) rather than exploring their learning motivations (e.g. achievement) or their LL motivations in isolation, I will, therefore, account for two aspects in the literature: motivations of middle childhood migrant children and LL motivation in an immersion context (inclusive of the LL theories of motivation that are pertinent to this thesis).

3.4.1 Paucity of studies: middle childhood and immersion context

Middle childhood (not specifically migrant) children’s motivation in learning has often been studied through the lens of Ryan and Deci’s (2000; 2006) self-determination theory (e.g. Barton et al., 2009 – extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions; Robins, 2012; Bakx et al., 2019). However, none of the known studies have explored the motivations of migrant language learners at primary level in England. Abroad, there are three exceptions: Alivernini et al.’s (2018) Italian context study, which employed self-determination theory; Gillen-O’Neel et al.’s (2011) research, which links
low intrinsic motivation and ethnic minority (Russian, African American, Chinese, Dominican, European American) middle childhood children’s ethnic stigma awareness and academic anxiety in the US context; and Chen et al.’s (2013) study of children’s engagement and parental migration in China. In addition, no attention has been paid to exploring motivation as part of children’s personality development in an educational context (pupils immersed in L2 schools).

This paucity of studies is equally apparent in the LL motivation field, in which there has been very little attention paid to LL motivations of primary level pupils. The exceptions include a few FLL/EFL/MFL studies (e.g. Barton et al., 2009; Bolster, 2009; Yunus and Abdullah, 2011; Jin et al., 2014; Graham et al., 2016; Courtney, 2017; Shin and Kim, 2017; Chambers, 2018; Fenyvesi, 2018; Wong, 2018). Indeed, in the period from 2005 until 2014, as shown by Boo et al. (2015), only 5.67 percent of studies in LL motivation focused on the primary (20 percent in secondary; 51.64 percent in tertiary) age group. An absence of studies into LL motivations of immigrant children in the contexts of immersion in primary schools might be explained by the immersion context itself in which children are alleged to have a ‘genuine need to learn the language, and are motivated to do so because it offers them access to the social and economic life of the community they are joining’ (Wong Fillmore, 1994, p.52). Construed as a ‘genuine need’, the real connotation of inconclusive assertions of this kind is, possibly, that of migrant children’s limited agency as well as children’s adaptability in middle childhood. In addition, such motivation is clearly externally imposed by migration and, thus, might not be genuine. In view of the dearth of studies on migration/immersion contexts, in order to theorise the framework fitting the motivational agenda of Russian-speaking migrant pupils (relevant to the section 11.4) I further situate pertinent conceptual theories within the LL motivation field irrespective of migration.

3.4.2 LL motivation theories

Due to space constraints, my aim is to focus on pertinent seminal works during the socio-dynamic period of LL motivation (for an extensive review of LL motivation research and phases, see Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2013; Harvey, 2014; Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015; Lamb, 2017) in relation to the immersion context of migrant primary level pupils. Considering the aims of this study, my particular interest is in holistic ways of exploring LL motivations, which account for contexts, dynamism, and psychological aspects (selves), as well as in the recent developments of the LL motivation (the multilingual turn).

The leading theory of LL motivation (relevant to the argument of this thesis in section 11.4) is Dörnyei’s L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). It consists of the ideal L2 self (L2 specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’ – dreams, goals, perfect vision of oneself in the future), the ought-to L2 self (‘the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and
to avoid possible negative outcomes’ – rules, regulations, responsibilities), and the L2 learning experience (learning environment and experiences) components (Dörnyei, 2009, p.30). Possible selves in the system unite motivation and self-cognition and are based on the possible selves concept delineated by Markus and Nurius (1986) and Higgins’ (1987) self-discrepancy theory. The former includes the expected self, the hoped-for self, and the feared self, each of which has a different influence on motivation. Conceptualising the learning self into actual, ideal, and ought domains and two standpoints (own/other), Higgins (1987, p.319) suggests that the opposition of the ideal and the feared selves serves as an influential tool for motivation as it creates a certain level of displeasure or irritation. The person, then, mostly subconsciously, aims to diminish the displeasure by making the ideal and the ought-to selves consistent with each other. Displeasure as well as other emotions (e.g. fear, hope, joy, pride) are vital for L2 motivation, without which selves are present ‘as cold cognition’ (MacIntyre et al., 2009a, p.47). This, inter alia, alludes to the significance of understanding emotionality as part of the social actor line in personality development (McAdams, 2015a). The emotional bond, to increase L2 motivation, needs to be embodied in a clear picture of future possible selves.

Ideal selves are socially constructed, unique to every person, cognitive images that originate from a person’s desires, values, dreams, goals, and meanings (Lamb, 2012). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) report that pupils with ‘academically focused desired future selves spent more time doing homework and were less disruptive and more engaged in classroom activities’ (p.22). The ought-to/feared self, as a prevention type goal (Higgins, 1987), is sometimes overtly exemplified in avoidance behaviour. Avoidance is relevant to the argument of this thesis in 11.4.3. It has been explored in the psychology of the personality early on in life (Tobin and Graziano, 2006, p.272) and found to be most often expressed by children in cases of increasing distress. General academic avoidance motivation has been regarded as avoidance of failure by Łodygowska et al. (2017) in a clinical study of motivation of children with dyslexia (p.576). In relation to avoidance, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) indicate that having dominant feared selves ‘resulted in fewer school absences’ (p.22), i.e. pupils with dominant feared selves in school were more obedient. The third component, the L2 learning experiences, comprises ‘motives related to the immediate learning environment’ (Dörnyei, 2009, p.29). By employing the L2 motivational self system, Lamb (2013) finds that learning experiences are more influential than the ideal L2 self, which, in turn, is closely linked to a particular context.

The three corresponding orientations in conceptualisation of motivation are: intrinsic reasons inherent in the LL (the L2 learning experience), extrinsic reasons (the ought-to L2 self), and integrative reasons (the ideal L2 self) (Dörnyei, 2009, p.30). Interestingly, Dörnyei
ascribes intrinsic motivation as matching the L2 learning experiences component rather than the ideal L2 self, which he sees as convergent with integrative reasons. Such an explanation, firstly, denotes that the L2 learning experiences are motivational and need to generate a genuine inner motivation to learn the L2, which illustrates how unelaborated and restricted this component is. It has been criticised for its vague, and somewhat illogical, almost outlier-like nature, which has not been properly defined, including the questioned research validity of the studies endorsing Dörnyei’s (2009) theory (Taylor, 2010). Instead of purely intrinsic reasons, in the context of my study, the L2 learning experiences is treated, as we see in section 11.4, as a component, which encompasses dynamism and a contextual impact of the L2 schools of immersed language learners (motivations for learning using the L2 and learning the L2). Secondly, in the context of immersion in the L2 schools (Anglophone countries) the ideal L2 self (integrative motivation) is seen as an obligation and a necessity as opposed to a ‘desire to learn target language’ (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009, p.22), i.e. migrant pupils’ ideal L2 selves would naturally be directed to understand and get familiar with the people who speak L2 in and out of their L2 schools. Previous research has confirmed this explanation as the role of integrativeness for L2 motivation in the case of migration is averred to be substantial (Taguchi et al., 2009, p.67). In relation to Russian-speaking migrant pupils in L2 schools, this explanation limits the ideal L2 self’s essence, making it overly prescriptive and self-explanatory.

Essentially, in the self system an absence of an ideal and ought-to self-image would mean, following Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009), that pupils are not motivated: ‘the more elaborate the possible self in terms of imaginative, visual and other content elements, the more motivational power it is expected to have’ (p.19). For a high motivation trigger, one should have a clear, delineated, and elaborate picture of selves. The time (in terms of age) of the emergence of the possible selves is unclear. Coll and Szalacha (2004) say that it is during middle childhood that children start to form aspirations about the future. In contrast, MacIntyre et al. (2009b, p.197) say that possible selves might not be linked with motivations among younger children (also, Zentner and Renaud, 2007). Lamb (2012) also suggests that ideal selves are absent among primary level children, appearing as their ‘fantasy’ as opposed to clear goals and aspirations; however, he adds that although young adolescents do show signs of ‘visions of future success’, ‘younger adolescents’ ideal selves are less realistic than older adolescents” (p.1015).

Thus, Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system is not directly relevant to the explorations of the motivations of migrant/EAL middle childhood pupils. Dörnyei (2009) states that the L2 motivational self system ‘may not be appropriate for pre-secondary students’ (p.38) and, hence, it might not be possible to entirely apply his motivational theory to primary level pupils. It has
also been suggested (MacIntyre et al., 2009a), however, that the study of the L2 motivational self system is ‘in its infancy’ and different aspects require further analysis, e.g. the shifts in individuals’ selves among language learners and selves in various cultures (pp.50-51). Nearly a decade later, this is still the case. Referring to the FLL specifically, Huang et al. (2015) suggest expanding the L2 motivational self system into different contexts focusing on various languages, which would aid an understanding of the ‘cross-cultural’ aspects impacting on the possible selves (p.37). In his ‘state-of-the-art’ article on motivational research in language education, Lamb (2017) stresses a ‘priority for future L2 motivation research (…) to analyse the classroom experiences of young L2 learners and teachers’ (p.334). So far, in primary level, the L2 motivational self system has only been applied by Chambers (2018) in his study of FLL motivation during the transition from primary to secondary school (10-12 years old). Attempting to validate the system, Chambers (2018), however, has concluded that it is still unclear whether the self system is fully applicable to 10-12 years old pupils whose ideal selves were attuned to ‘the here and now’ (p.9). Additionally, there are no studies which apply this system to migrant primary level pupils learning the L2 in L2 schools. While the current study does not aim to validate the system, it is pertinent as a guiding, narrower conceptual theory explaining the motivational agenda of migrant pupils in the Discussion chapter (section 11.4) of this thesis. This will be supported by the further developments of Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system in later studies (Henry, 2015; 2017; You and Chan, 2015; Mensel and Deconinck, 2017), which advanced the system and addressed its limitations: its positivistic stance (Ushioda, 2011; Lasagabaster et al., 2014), and its individualistic and oversimplified nature, which disregards the constant dynamics of the contexts (Harvey, 2013). Indeed, the self system studies were mostly personally directed and dealt with individual feelings and perceptions in LL, even though, as acknowledged by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009), these were conditioned by contexts. Accordingly, later studies, which I further address, ascertain the interconnectedness and dynamism of the components of the system.

### 3.4.3 Further developments: a multilingual turn in LL motivation

The L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009) has been further extended and developed in various EFL/ESL contexts (e.g. Xu, 2009; Islam et al., 2013; Henry, 2017; Mensel and Deconinck, 2017; Thompson, 2017a, 2017b), signifying the start of a multilingual period in LL motivation research (Ushioda, 2017), which is relevant to the argument of this thesis in sections 11.4.4.2 and 11.4.4.3. Situated in a linguistic multi-competence framework, which attends to ‘the knowledge and use of two or more languages by the same individual or the same community’ in their inter-connectedness (Cook, 2016, p.2), in contrast with centring attention on one language, this turn significantly widens the breadth of seeing motivation more holistically (Ushioda, 2017).
Within this framework, Henry (2017) propounds a multilingual view of L2 motivation as a multilingual L2 motivational self system. The system incorporates a multilingual ideal self defined ‘as an emergent property of interactions between the ideal selves of the different languages known and/or being learned’ (p.555). Examining the concept of an ideal multilingual self (Henry, 2017) and its applicability, Ushioda (2017) mentions ‘developing multilingual language users’ who, with their ideal multilingual self in alliance with their current selves, develop and cultivate their linguistic skills (p.480). However, she mostly refers to MFL motivation specifically in relation to demotivated students rather than to the language users (or emergent multilinguals) immersed in an L2 learning environment.

Mensel and Deconinck (2017) explore the motivations of parents in terms of their children’s multilingual identity in Belgium using Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system and Kramsch’s (2006) construct of LL motivation of ‘desire in language’. Drawing on the concept of integrativeness and extending the psychological construct of ‘desire in language’ (Kristeva, 1980), the latter is understood as ‘the need to identify (positively or negatively) with others, their language, and their ways of speaking’ (Mensel and Deconinck, 2017, p.2). Kramsch (2006) defines it as, ‘the basic drive toward self-fulfilment. It touches the core of who we are’ (p.101).

Mensel and Deconinck (2017) found that parents had vivid images of children’s multilingual selves as opposed to their own achievements as monolinguals (p.1). Thus, they assert that the ‘desire in language’ is not merely internally based but also partly conditioned by parental motivation aimed at the development of multilingual selves ‘vicariously’ projected onto children.

Considering these, the present study will explore motivations of migrant immersed language learners at primary level (Russian-speaking migrant pupils) in an English context using the L2 motivational self system as a way of holistically incorporating the contextual (experiences and the language) with a personal psychological (selves) dimension. As I aim to explore pupils’ learning motivations holistically, rather than validating the theory for primary migrant pupils, I do not limit myself to Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system. Indeed, Dörnyei (2009) asserts that the self and other models are complementary (pp.43-46) and can be all applied to increase language learners’ success levels, contributing to development and nurturing. The self system will neither be used as a singular lens in understanding the LL motivations nor used by applying its original instrument. As aforementioned, the more recent developments in the context of the bilingual and multilingual turns (Henry, 2017; Mensel and Deconinck, 2017) are conceived as particularly relevant for Russian-speaking migrant pupils (attended to in 11.4.4.2 and 11.4.4.3). Therefore, applying the L2 motivational self system in the migration context to explore the motivations of Russian-speaking middle childhood migrant pupils can address the gap in relation
to the context (focusing on the migrant dimension in the L2 immersion context) as well as
deepening our insight into the possible self-guides’ peculiarities among primary level pupils in
the context of the L2 schools in England.

3.5 The social actor line
The social actor line of personality development identifies individuals as social actors who
uniquely perform their emotions through their actions in everyday social life (McAdams, 2015a).
Goffman (1959) defines people’s social behaviour as performances. Individuals’ performances
are portrayed through a ‘routine’, i.e. ‘pre-established pattern of action which is unfolded during
a performance and which may be presented and played through on other occasions’ (Goffman,
1959, p.16). McAdams (2015a) indicates that routines can be premeditated and also spontaneous.
Performances with their routines constitute a personal ‘front’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.32). A front,
as McAdams (2015a) explains, comprises ‘those idiosyncratic behavioural features by which
others repeatedly recognise the character’ (p.43, italics in original). He calls it ‘the rudiments of
personality’ or its dispositions, which are the ‘unique and recognisable style of social display and
deportment’ including emotional presentation (p.44). As McAdams (2015a) summarises, the
social actor line implies actions, emotions, and the self. These are represented through observable
(overt behaviour) and unobservable (dreams, thoughts, memories) facets of personality, or public
persona (public self, i.e. the way a person presents himself or herself to others) and private persona
(private self, the ‘essence of the individual’) (Maltby et al., 2010, p.10). Russian-speaking migrant
pupils’ social actor line, therefore, includes overt (observed) and covert (reported) actions, and
emotions acted out through a unique socioemotional style (social behaviour) with other social
actors (social relationships) in an L2 school environment. I will thence review the literature
situated around Russian-speaking migrant primary level pupils, focusing on social behaviour
including socioemotional well-being (emotions) and social relationships studies pertinent to
migrant pupils.

3.5.1 Social behaviour
Relevant to the thesis argument in the discussion section 11.5.1, the social behaviour of migrant
pupils in early stages of immersion, is mostly characterised in the literature by a ‘silent’ or ‘non-
verbal’ period (Krashen, 1985; 1989; Conteh and Brock, 2006; Safford and Costley, 2008; Drury,
2013; Bligh and Drury, 2015). During this time migrant pupils keep quiet in school (Conteh and
Brock, 2006); they can also avoid and refuse communicating non-verbally, in their L1 (Siraj-
Blatchford and Clarke, 2000; Drury, 2013). The challenge of this period is that it can be easily
misinterpreted by adults (Skinner, 2010; Jones, 2015). As Conteh and Brock (2006) elaborate,
‘language needs can seem like learning needs, and sometimes specific learning needs can go
Importantly, this period needs to be valued and pupils should not be pressurised to speak (Conteh and Brock, 2006; Crosse, 2007). Despite its overt inaction, in their study of the silent period of early (pre-school) emergent bilinguals in England, Bligh and Drury (2015) emphasise that the silent period is in fact ‘fractional, complex, and agentive’ (p.272), and essential for ‘self-mediated learning’ (p.259). Furthermore, in their study of 17- to 18-year-old secondary level EAL migrant students in England, Safford and Costley (2008) report that the silence of migrant students does not solely signify a process of acquiring a new language. They find that silence (alongside self-study) can be the pupils’ unavoidable strategy, exemplified by their ‘reluctance to engage in questioning in class’ (Safford and Costley, 2008, p.142). In other studies, this was also referred to ‘invisibility’ (Leavey et al., 2004) or an isolation strategy (Choi, 2016). Being seen by teachers either as an indication of learning, or, on the contrary, ‘reflect[ing] disengagement, disaffection or disinterest’, in its essence it is also a ‘survival reaction to an indifferent or even hostile atmosphere’ (Safford and Costley, 2008 p.140). Among Malaysian children in the UK, Yamat et al. (2013) find that silence signifies LL-related ‘coping mechanism’ and as a cultural manifestation of ‘Asian identity’, which was perceived positively by the teachers (p.1342). In a Swedish migration context, Cekaite (2007) explores L2 interactional competence in an immersion classroom identifying periods of communication development as ‘a silent child’, ‘a noisy and loud child’, and ‘a skilful student’ (p.45). These periods reveal the non-linear interactional behaviour of L2-immersed learners denoting their atomised learner identity. In the US context, Monzó and Rueda (2009) note that Latino immigrant children express silence in order to strategically mask their L2 proficiency level ‘waiting for their English skills to strengthen’ (p.37). From a psychoanalytic perspective, Granger (2004) conceives ‘the silent period’ as part of the ‘identity-formation process’ (p.6). Overall, these studies identify the silent period as a complex and seemingly inactive, which denotes a natural period of language acquisition, but also, in contrast, it is found to be a deeper coping mechanism – an unavoidable survival strategy of students.

Originating from SLA research the ‘silent period’ has been known in the literature for nearly three decades (for a systematic review of the ‘silent period’ among pre-schoolers see Roberts, 2014). Although definitions are complex (Roberts, 2014), it signifies an initial stage of a passive acquisition of a target language (Krashen, 1985) when ‘a silent period of six months’ duration is not unusual’ (p.9). However, this period may last much longer, e.g. some immersion programmes described by Krashen (1989) exclude native speakers and ‘a year and a half silent period is provided’ (p.60). In more recent work in SLA research, the silent period is also reminiscent of the submissiveness of language learners, in contrast with harmonious, duplicitous, and rebellious dynamic behavioural types (Taylor, 2010; 2013a). Although Taylor (2013a) refers to these
behaviours as the L2 learner’s identity categorisation, or types of self system (or initially, a ‘Quadripolar Model of Identity in adolescent foreign language learners’), comparing it with the Wiggins’s (1985) explanatory psychological typology of traits (comprising: dominant, hostile, friendly, and submissive types), one can identify common features with Wiggins’s psychological personality taxonomy of traits. The similarities can be promptly identified in the two models; nevertheless, closer investigation allows one to see that Wiggins’s model presents two polar personality dimensions (two pairs of opposing types), whereas Taylor’s model presents four somewhat polar dimensions. This implies that Taylor’s model offers more subtle but distinguishable variations of behaviours, rather than being monochromatic and highly polarising. Even though the four types of Taylor’s model are all somewhat opposed to each other, they are (as the model suggests) in dynamic relationships and can be complementary. For instance, a pupil can be characterised as harmonious by parental reports while being duplicitous in self-evaluations. As the social actor line of personality development comprises social behaviour, Taylor’s (2013a) model can be extended beyond ESL, in the context of this study, as a model of behavioural types of migrant children that develop in an L2 educational context, thereby suitable for discussing migrant EAL children’s social behaviour. This is relevant to the research design of the thesis: particularly, the creative technique development in section 4.8.4.3.

Pertaining to social behaviour, another aspect of the social actor level – emotions – denotes pupils’ overall subjective well-being in that migrant children’s well-being in school is expressed through emotional presentation; this is referred to as socioemotional well-being. It is a subjective notion reflecting children’s own perceptions of their well-being and is understood as a ‘general and relatively stable emotional state that indicates the emotional evaluation, positive or negative, that an individual makes of the results of the totality of his/her social interactions’ (Bericat, 2014, p.606). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to go into a discussion in this area; however, it is useful here to briefly define positive and negative emotionality, which is relevant to the argument in 11.5.1. Positive emotionality includes joy, pleasure, excitement, but also sometimes anger, and it is linked with the behavioural approach system (BAS) (McAdams, 2015a, p.50). Negative emotionality comprises behavioural inhibition system (BIS) and emotions of fear (subordinate emotion is anger), anxiety (subordinate is sadness, shyness), irritability, etc. which are performed in an exclusive and discernible manner signifying an issue or a difficulty. As we see later, fear and anxiety are salient in this study. Fear is a short-term response characterised by ‘a strong desire to escape’; anxiety is a learned emotion, as a reaction to uncertainty and ‘potential risk or danger’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.65, italics in original).
3.5.2 Social relationships

Another significant facet of the social actor line is social relationships, which is relevant to the discussion of this thesis in section 11.5.2. There is a growing literature published on immigrant children’s social relationships, i.e. friendship formation (Bagci et al., 2014b) and interactions with adults. The studies have acknowledged the importance (Sime and Fox, 2015a, 2015b) of their protective and supportive function (Martin and Huebner, 2007; Safford and Costley, 2008; Bagci et al., 2014a) but also the challenge of social relationships post-migration (Reynolds, 2007). These are evident in relation to the inclusion of children (10-12 years old) in an Irish context (Devine, 2009) and in the context of Italian secondary schools (Mantovani and Martini, 2008). It has also been linked with well-being and attainment of migrant pupils (Hallinan and Williams, 1989; Cummins, 2000; Moody, 2001; Baerveldt et al., 2004; Mantovani and Martini, 2008; Wong et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2011; Dimitrova et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2016; OECD, 2018) and problem behaviour among ethnic minority pre-schoolers in a Dutch context (Flink et al., 2012). As children’s relationships with their peers are found to directly impact on well-being, they are a significant indicator of children’s well-being for parents, teachers, and other practitioners (Jørgensen, 2017a; Fortuin et al., 2014).

The sources and the structure of friendships after migration are found to be complex and contingent for migrant pupils (Sime and Fox, 2015a; Jørgensen, 2017a). For instance, Mantovani and Martini (2008) show that migrant students form a smaller number of social relations compared to their Italian peers. Some studies suggest that migrant pupils’ friendships are generally formed based on ‘shared attributes’, i.e. their nationality, gender, language (Sime and Fox, 2015a, p.379), ethnic identity, social class, ability (Devine, 2009), and ethnicity; this is reflected in the prevalence of homogamous (same-ethnic) friendships (rather than autochthonous, inter-ethnic/national) (Penn and Lambert, 2009, pp.126-128). Similarly, Boda and Néray (2015) find that minority children form friendships with other minority children, ‘if these also declare themselves as minorities’ (p.57). A more recent study, discusses the peer networks of minority migrant youth in England and Spain in relation to bonding (homogenous) and bridging (heterogeneous), determining that friendships are formed based on circumstantial and spatial features (rather than individual characteristics): a common activity, being in one class, and by a ‘snowball effect’ (Jørgensen, 2017a, p.574). By contrast, Sime and Fox (2015a) posit children’s agency and flexibility to ‘identify quickly strategies that allow them to simultaneously maintain significant ties transnationally and develop new networks’ (p.391). Although some of these studies reveal different peculiarities of friendships after migration, they highlight the social ties’ structural complexity and context-dependency but also their universally (across cultures and contexts) predominantly problematic nature post-migration.
An exacerbated form of disrupted/negative social relationships is the case of bullying, which is relevant to the argument in this thesis in 11.5.2.2. Bullying is a common problem of ethnic minority pupils in the UK (Elliott, 2002; Smith, 2014) and abroad (Riggs and Due, 2011; Albdour et al., 2016). Overall, bullying has three main characteristics: an intention to harm, repeated behaviour (an occasional argument or fight is not considered bullying), and an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1993; 2010; Rigby, 2002; Cowie and Jennifer, 2008; Smith, 2014). Rigby (2008) defines bullying as a ‘the systematic abuse of power in interpersonal relationships’ (p.22). The forms of bullying differ across the research. Cowie and Jennifer (2008) identify: direct physical/material (kicking, spitting), direct verbal (abuse, yelling), cyber (also in Kernaghan and Elwood, 2013), and psychological: relational/social aggression/indirect aggression (indirect verbal, social exclusion). Some elaborated and subtle forms of bullying are allowed and endorsed by teachers (Nassem, 2017).

The reasons behind bullying of migrant children are varied in the literature. Cowie and Jennifer (2008) classify different reasons for bullying, including personal appearance, age, race, religion, culture, SEN/disability/high ability, social status, sexual orientation, and gender. Smith (2014) similarly determines gender, religion, disability, identity, and race-based bullying. The latter is also noted by Qureshi (2013), characterised by transferring accountability for bullying onto victims. Pupils in Albdour et al.’s (2016) study were bullied due to their (perceived or actual) ethnic affiliation. Similarly, in the Netherlands context Jansen et al. (2016) distinguish cultural and physical reasons behind bullying along with reasons based on being excluded from the ‘“in-group” of ethnic majority children’ (p.272). Tereshchenko and Archer (2014) describe non-colour-based racism against Eastern European migrant pupils in the UK. Walsh et al. (2016) name the overall classroom environment as a cause of bullying.

Data from these studies have identified numerous causes of issues in the friendships of migrant children. However, the ways recent migrant children form friendships remain unclear, e.g. on language or ability, or how (if at all) they address the issues (i.e. lack of friendships or bullying) with peers (independently, with the help of their families, or through the L2 schools’ established pathways) among Russian-speaking migrant pupils in England. These are addressed in the discussion of the findings in 11.5.2.1 and 11.5.2.2.

An important aspect of migrant children’s social networks, which should not be underestimated or overlooked, is the relationships with teachers (including EAL specialists and TAs) in L2 schools. This aspect is relevant to the discussion of the findings of this thesis in 11.5.2.3. In the literature, relationships with teachers are reported to contribute to children’s safety and enjoyment (Due and Riggs, 2016), overall well-being (Fang et al. 2016), ‘successful social, emotional and
intellectual development’ (Jones, 2015, p.157), and academic outcomes (Muller et al., 1999; Velasquez et al., 2013). In relation to the latter, other studies have shown the damaging effects of adverse teacher-child relationships, e.g. a lack of interest of the teacher, lack of trust, and authority (Conteh, 2003; Fumoto et al., 2007) negatively impacting on the academic outcomes of EAL or migrant pupils. Dealing with the new migrant children, particularly establishing good relationships and strong rapport, is difficult to manage, as Fumoto et al. (2007) observe in relation to early childhood EAL pupils. It requires a substantial amount of ‘sensitivity and understanding’ about how pupils express their feelings, needs, and thoughts (Fumoto et al., 2007, p.150). In view of the delicate nature as well as high contingency of a situation, there is also a potential threat of exclusion and ‘discrimination and tensions’ (Reynolds, 2008, p.19). In relation to inclusion Reynolds (2008, p.19) elaborates:

Teachers promote inclusion where they are well-disposed to provide equal opportunities in terms of academic and social support and where students are welcomed and fully-included in lessons.

While being reasonable, this, nevertheless, seems to imply that some teachers might not feel positive about providing equal opportunities, evoking more questions than answers: are teachers well-disposed to provide equal opportunities to immigrant pupils? What (and under what circumstances) can make teachers feel negative about immigrant pupils? In view of exponentially increasing global migration since Reynold’s (2008) study, and Brexit-related controversies (e.g. de Zavala et al., 2017; Haynes and Passy, 2017; Higgins, 2018; xenophobia instances – Protopopova, 2018; Rzepnikowska, 2019), these questions require a more detailed examination. Some elaborations of what contributes to positive relations between migrant pupils and their teachers have been presented in the literature. For instance, Soto (2005) argues for a development of a culture of caring (pedagogies of caring). The discourses of caring are similarly discussed by Shelley (2009) in the study of education of ethnic minority (Kurdish) pupils in Denmark. Equivalently, Velasquez et al. (2013) advocate implementing ‘caring pedagogies’. Incorporating moral development and ethical care theories, Velasquez et al. (2013) define ‘caring pedagogy’ as a complex act of moral obligation by teachers characterised by firmness but also kindness which does not imply a lenient demeanour. Supported by a sociocultural perspective, the kindness of a teacher (towards not necessarily migrant children) is highlighted by Vygotsky (1991) in his ‘Educational Psychology’ (p.361). Hue and Kennedy (2013) also mention such a ‘balance between caring and discipline’ suggesting an ‘adaptive teaching’ approach as a result of the development of a ‘connected classroom’ (p.304). Additionally, Rubin and Bhavnagri (2001) stress the significance of being empathetic towards immigrant students. In a similar vein, Ly et
al. (2012) emphasise the affective aspect of the relations, such as the ‘warm’ attitude of teachers and avoidance of conflict.

These studies reveal some features of the relations between migrant children and teachers in different contexts, necessitating teachers’ awareness of sensitivity, overall challenge, as well as contingencies, which arise with the arrival of a new migrant. Apart from teachers’ awareness (and alertness), these studies seem to hint that a formation of positive relations is a continuous process, which requires teachers to be flexible, understanding, and generally caring. However, there also seems to be a challenge in identifying what being ‘aware’ and ‘caring’ in relation to migrant children is: what can be perceived as flexible, caring, etc. by the teaching staff might not be interpreted the same way by the children. It is important, therefore, to consider teachers’ perceptions, but also migrant children’s own perceptions, of the formation and development of their social relationships, which are seldom reflected in the studies in the context of English primary schools.

3.6 A note on the authorship line

The autobiographical author line comprises the self, which develops into narrative identity in the form of a story an individual creates ‘about how he or she came to be the person he or she is becoming’ (McAdams, 2015b, p.259). This line of personality development is pertinent to adolescents and adults (McAdams and Adler, 2014). In middle childhood a child is not yet fully able to construct a story (a narrative identity) (Block, 2007; Taylor, 2010) with a sense of ‘unity, purpose, and meaning’ (McAdams and McLean, 2013, p.233). Thus, it is one of the features of this thesis that it does not focus on the autobiographical line of Russian-speaking primary level migrant pupils.

3.7 Summary

In this chapter, guided by the literature review, I have attempted to construct a coherent and relevant theorisation guiding and informing the present research: a combination of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and McAdams’ personality development theory as an overarching theoretical framework. I have furthered the theoretical underpinning by reviewing narrower conceptual theories, pertinent to the motivated agent and the social actor lines of personality development. This framework’s main attribute for this thesis is seeing the experiences of migrant pupils as deeply embedded in sociocultural processes, within which, with the help of McAdams’ theory, personality development exploration is manifested as a holistic, dynamic, and context-dependent process.

So far, I have identified the main gaps in the literature (Chapter 2) as overlooking Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ experiences and the personality development of migrant pupils,
particularly when accounting for context post-migration. I have also provided a theorisation for an exploration of the experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils (Chapter 3). These informed the research questions and, thus, the research design of this thesis in that the first research question reflects the gap caused by the overlooking of Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ experiences, and the second research question corresponds to the personality development of migrant middle childhood pupils’ gap in L2 educational studies. The qualitative research design reflects the aforementioned importance of considerations of context when exploring these questions. This is explicated in the following methodology (Chapter 4). I start with the explanation and presentation of the aim and the research questions of this thesis.
Chapter 4  Methodology

4.1 Introduction
This chapter describes the way I planned, arranged, and implemented the research methodology that informed the empirical phase of this study, presented in Chapters 5 to 9, providing a justification for its choice and development. I start with the re-statement of the research questions (4.2), followed by a description of the philosophical underpinning (4.3) comprising my ontological, epistemological, methodological, and axiological assumptions within which my research methodology is located. This is followed by an indication of the peculiarities of my positioning and my approach to research with children (4.4). I thereby provide a foundation for an elaboration of the specific research tradition I have adopted (4.5). Next, I discuss the research approach used in my study (4.6) – a longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study. I then present the participants and the research setting (4.7), outlining the research sites (4.7.1), the case selection (4.7.2), recruitment process (4.7.3), and case information (4.7.4). I further move on to the data collection methods (4.8). The penultimate section reports on the data analysis (4.9), in which I detail how I worked with the data in the process of analysis from organisation stage (4.9.2) through coding (4.9.3), overarching themes’ development (4.9.4), data presentation (4.9.5), translation (4.9.6) and cross-case analysis (4.9.7), to data management (4.9.8). Finally, I present the ethical approach, procedures, and trustworthiness strategies in the study in order to assess and demonstrate the validity of the research design with an aim to strengthen the findings and conclusions (4.10). This section also includes reporting on the pilot study, which tested the validity of the chosen and developed methodology (4.10.1).

4.2 Research questions
As demonstrated in Chapter 2, there are no known studies into the experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils within a UK context. The highest number of Russian-speaking migrant pupils, in terms of education level, is in the state-funded primary sector as opposed to the secondary, and regarding location, the highest number is in England, as opposed to Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. I have therefore decided to focus on primary level Russian-speaking migrant children in England. As I elaborated in 2.2.2, in the context of the continuously growing number of Russian-speaking migrant pupils who come from former Soviet Union countries, such an investigation merits particular attention. I have also argued that there are no studies in EAL that focus on the personality development of migrant pupils. What warrants this investigation, concerns a particular methodological approach, which arose from a lack of personality development research in L2 educational migration studies that accounted for learning contexts in their interplay with personality development (Donnellan et al., 2006). The latter has
predominantly been explored in psychometrics, rather than in-depth longitudinal studies. Correspondingly, the aim of this study, as I presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.3), is to explore the experiences/issues and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2. The aim is achieved through the following research questions:

1. **What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?**
2. **How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?**
   a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

As I explained in Chapter 3, section 3.3, the sub-questions were informed by McAdams’ (2015a) theory, with question 2a corresponding with the motivated agent line and question 2b corresponding with the social actor line of personality development, respectively. Within primary level, Key Stage 2 (middle childhood) is chosen due to its essential characteristics concerning personality development, which I detailed in 1.5.3. The research questions will be addressed in the cross-case discussion (Chapter 11) based on the cross-case analysis (Chapter 10) of the findings from five case studies embedded in a multiple case study design (Chapters 5 to 9). Following the research questions, I will now discuss the philosophical underpinning of my research.

### 4.3 Philosophical underpinning

My understanding of the nature of the world and the functions of myself as a researcher fall under the interpretive paradigm encompassing anti-positivist theories (Hennink et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2018). Interpretivism is characterised by subjectivity and centres on individuals and lived experiences in order to ‘get inside the person and to understand from within’ and explain their interpretations of their actions and experiences (Cohen et al., 2007, pp.21-22). Philosophical assumptions of interpretivism include ontological, epistemological, methodological, and axiological assumptions (Creswell and Poth, 2018).

The **ontological** assumptions, or ‘assumptions about how the world works’ (Gerring, 2007, p.53), see reality as subjective and nominalist (Cohen et al., 2007) – as understood by participants in the research (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Human actions and behaviour constantly reconstruct human life (Creswell and Poth, 2018), accepting that there can be different realities (views and feelings
about the world) ‘depending on whose reality is considered’ (LeCompte and Schensul, 2010, p.67). The epistemology is subjectivist, i.e. the knowledge is subjectively constructed by my participants (Bassey, 1999; Rossman and Rallis, 2003; Greig et al., 2007; Creswell and Poth, 2018). Their meanings and experiences are dependent on contextual factors, shaped by ‘historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives’ (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p.24), i.e. the social, political, economic, ethnic, etc.

Methodologically, the research is idiographic (Cohen et al., 2018), focusing on ‘understanding’ human behaviour (p.6). The idiographic approach is a person-centred approach that stresses individuals’ unique nature, aiming at a rich, deep investigation into their personalities (Maltby et al., 2010). This was done through the use of the abductive-deductive-inductive conceptual cycle (Hennink et al., 2011; Patton, 2011; Bendassolli, 2013; Reichertz, 2013), which are seen as interconnected, ‘method neutral’ phases of research (Reichertz, 2013, p.123), i.e. continuously moving from the deductive cycle during the literature review and development of the theoretical framework, which guides the data collection (Chapters 2 and 3), to the inductive cycle during the data analysis and interpretation (Chapters 5 to 11), which comprise participants’ experiences and voices alongside ‘the concepts from the original deductive conceptual framework that guided the data collection’ (Hennink et al., 2011, p.45).

The axiological assumptions accept the biases and the ‘value-laden nature’ of the research (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p.21), acknowledging my personal engagement in the research process, i.e. my actions and investigation can influence the questions I am researching (Bassey, 1999; Boellstorff et al., 2012), and agreeing that ‘complete objectivity is impossible’ (Gay and Airasian, 2000, p.205). I adopt Gay and Airasian’s (2000, p.205) suggestion to address the bias in the research through a position of empathic neutrality:

Researcher’s passion is understanding the world in all its complexity – not proving something, not advocating, not advancing personal agendas, but understanding; the researcher includes personal experience and empathetic insight as part of the relevant data, while taking a neutral nonjudgmental stance toward whatever content may emerge.

Axiological assumptions lead me to discussing my approach and role as a researcher specific to research with children.

4.4 Research with children

The research into childhood is based on and originates from a ‘methodological commitment to listen to those voices that usually do not get heard’ (Hohti, 2016, p.87) or bring ‘multivoicedness’
to the foreground (Eldén, 2012) through *representation, authenticity*, the *diversity of children’s experiences, children’s participation* in the study (James, 2007, p.261). Part of the recognition of these voices was the appearance of ‘new social sciences of childhood’ and the children’s rights discourse (Fargas-Malet et al., 2010; Flewitt et al., 2018), which has changed the research for, from, and with children rather than about and on them (Christensen and James, 2008; Gabb, 2008; Fargas-Malet et al., 2010). Additionally, the age of the participants in my research ‘reinforces generational inequalities of status’ (Gabb, 2008, p.20). Power, according to Davies (2015), is ‘constructed relationally in the process of interactions, rather than being attributable to persons’ (p.36). The ways to minimise power inequalities in the research are reflexivity (Fine and Sandstrom, 1988; Gabb, 2008), appearing as an ‘uneducated’ adult (Christensen and James, 2008), and discussion of the roles of children in the research (Komulainen, 2007; Gabb, 2008; Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008; Christensen and James, 2008; Fargas-Malet et al., 2010).

Following these steps, trying to minimise the power dimensions (Warming, 2011), and taking the least adult role position in order to present children’s perspectives, my research adopted the ‘child as a subject’, child-centred (versus child as an object) research approach. This implies taking a non-hierarchical role as a friend which helps to build trust by showing respect, not being judgemental, and a willingness to understand their social lives (Christensen and James, 2008). Sharing the same language with the participants is also seen as a means of strengthening the non-hierarchical sense of my role and encouraging good relationships with the children.

### 4.5 Research tradition

One implication of the philosophical underpinning described in 4.3 is that a qualitative research tradition is employed. This approach is suited to my study’s purposes, aiming to understand holistically contextually embedded meanings that individuals make (Merriam, 1998), stressing development and change (Brewer, 2007) through the process of ‘drawing out the perceptions and understandings that individuals and groups attach to behaviours, experiences and social phenomena’ (Walter, 2010, pp.25-26). Specifically, considering that my study is aimed at the unique experiences and personality development of Russian-speaking pupils in an English L2 school environment, the qualitative research ‘umbrella’ is chosen in order to understand children’s experiences, ‘lived’, ‘felt’, endured or encountered in context (Sherman and Webb, 1988, p.7), their own ideas about the world, their actions, and motives (Becker, 1996).

### 4.6 Research approach

#### 4.6.1 Multiple case study

Guided by an interpretive paradigm of a qualitative methodology and theoretical framework my study’s approach or genre (Marshall and Rossman, 2016) is a longitudinal ethnographically
informed multiple case study, methodologically informed by my month-long pilot study (see 4.10.1). The case study is chosen due to its ‘explicit focus on contexts, dynamic interactions, often over time’ (Marshall and Rossman, 2016, p.19), thereby providing a ‘detailed examination’ of individuals (Birch and Malim, 1991, p.12) with the help of extensive generation of data (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Another benefit of the case study approach for this thesis is its varied structure, i.e. ‘embedded within them may be more than one kind of research’ (Cohen et al., 2018, p.385). A case study, according to Yin (2014, p.16), is an ‘empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident’. Creswell and Poth (2018, p.96, italics in original) define a case study as a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g. observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case themes.

The case study approach, as LeCompte and Schensul (2010) explain, can be employed when focusing on ‘unclear, unknown, or unexplored’ problems, contexts, phenomena, etc., requiring a focused, long-term study period in order to understand their views, meanings, and the interactions with the environment which are important for them (p.114). Regarding personality development, the case study genre is considered to be a reliable idiographic way to ‘capture the complexities of human personality’ by allowing an in-depth analysis of personalities (Pervin et al., 2005, p.46).

Multiple case design is a beneficial way to enhance the results and strengthen the study by means of cross-case analysis (Yin, 2014), which serves to avoid a ‘disjoined collection of case studies that do not allow you to effectively address your research question’ (King and Horrocks, 2010, p.150). This design provides different perspectives on the research questions through comparisons between the cases (Creswell, 2013).

Alongside its benefits, a case study approach has specific concerns and limitations (Yin, 2014). These comprise the importance of being systematic in the process of the research design, implementation, analysis, and presentation; and limited generalisability, i.e. an inability to generalise statistically. However, it is potentially possible to generalise theoretically (analytic generalisations) and also make consideration of the manageability and contingency of empirical stage of the study in terms of time and the amount of data collected (Yin, 2014, pp.19-20). I attempted to address these concerns through the systematic organisation of the data collection
methods, process, and analysis, which I describe in sections 4.8 and 4.9. I will now review additional aspects in the case study design in this thesis starting with the longitudinal dimension.

4.6.2 Longitudinal research

A longitudinal dimension is a specific ‘way of knowing and understanding the world’, the main advantage of which for my study being that it stresses ‘time [processes] and texture [subjective meanings] – or the interplay of the temporal and cultural dimensions of social life’ (Neale and Flowerdew, 2003, p.189, italics in original). The longitudinal research design of a case study, i.e. ‘conducted over a period of time’ involving the same participants (Cohen et al., 2018, p.347), allows for significant ‘temporality of causation’ as opposed to a single data collection design (Cohen et al., 2018, p.99), thereby helping to more precisely identify causation of the pupils’ issues. It also generates ‘rich insights’ (Pink et al., 2010, p.647), affords an in-depth investigation (Walford, 2008), and provides a dynamic picture (Neale and Flowerdew, 2003). Two aspects are important in a longitudinal design: access to the research sites and temporal organisation of the empirical phase (Cohen et al., 2018). In relation to the former (addressed in 4.7.3), the challenges and limitations of longitudinal research that requires access to the protected educational sites include finding the relevant schools that will be open to the research to be conducted in their institution. The latter, introduced in 4.7.1 and elaborated in 4.8, refers to establishing the time scope and a recurrence of data collection, which are based on ‘practicability’ and a ‘fitness for purpose’ (Cohen et al., 2018, p.347).

4.6.3 Ethnographic dimension

An additional element in the case study, which I will now discuss, is ethnography. Ethnography is seen as a way of enriching my case study (Merriam, 1998; White et al., 2009; LeCompte and Schensul, 2010) by being able to reveal the exact realities of individuals in educational contexts (Angrosino, 2007; Rada, 2007; Christensen and James, 2008; Bagley, 2009; Mills and Morton, 2013; Sum and Yao, 2016). According to Cohen et al. (2018), real-world, or ‘natural’ case studies often embed ethnography within them (p.385). Ethnography implies ‘writing about people’ one purposefully encounters by means of ‘a judgment that is cast upon them [encountered] through a retrospective conversion of the learning, remembering and note-taking’ (Ingold, 2014, pp.385-386), thereby ‘telling a credible, rigorous, and authentic story’ (Fetterman, 2009, p.543).

The advantage of ethnography in this study lies in its ‘principal way of working’, i.e. participant observation, distinguished by an ‘ontological commitment’ (being both: way of knowing and being) and a ‘practice of education’ (Ingold, 2014, pp.387-388). However, the main strength of ethnography is that ‘through close attention to the everyday and familiar through which the social world is both created and sustained, it has enabled the voices of those who would
otherwise be silent to be heard’ (James, 2007, p.255). Overall, ethnographic study is concerned with challenging commonly accepted phenomena, situations, and experiences, making the ‘familiar strange’ (Mills and Morton, 2013, p.4).

Ethnography supposes the collection of descriptive data with the help of extended fieldwork, focusing on particular cultures, their construction and their nurture, from the participants’ perspectives, recognising the researcher as the key research tool (Whitehead, 2004; Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007; Beach, 2008). Even though ethnography allows for moderately unstructured data collection methods from various sources focusing on a few cases or a group of people (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007), it is important that ethnographers follow a systematic, organised research plan and aims. Further, the researcher is supposed to analyse the data and clearly present their relevance and worth (Walford, 2008). Prior to describing these, I introduce the participants and the research setting.

4.7 The research setting and participants

4.7.1 The research setting

The empirical part of the study was conducted in three state-funded primary schools in London, England. One was located centrally, another in the south, and the third in west London. It lasted for seven months – from October 2016 to May 2017. This timeline (see Appendix A.1) was guided by a relatively common observation that, as put by Pink et al. (2010), a long-term ethnographic engagement in the field generates ‘rich insights’ (p.647) and that, according to Gold (1997), the fieldwork phase should last until both the researcher and participants have used up ‘their ability to identify other kinds of informants and other sorts of questions of relevance to the research objectives’ (p.393). Two schools in the study had been evaluated as ‘outstanding’ by an Ofsted inspection (Schools B and C), and one school had been evaluated as ‘good’ (School A). All of the schools are mixed gender schools. Figure 4.1 shows the number and percentage of pupils whose first language is not English at the time of the data collection (School Census, 2016).
4.7.2 The case selection

As I introduced in section 4.6, aiming to conduct an in-depth, detailed investigation I chose to focus on five cases of participants within a longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study design; each child-participant with his/her parents and teachers represent one embedded case. Table 4.1 shows the summary of the research design and a sample.

Table 4.1 The summary of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Longitudinal ethnographically informed multiple case study</th>
<th>Embeded cases</th>
<th>5 Russian-speaking migrant pupils at Key Stage 2</th>
<th>5 Parents</th>
<th>5 class/EAL teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of EAL pupils</td>
<td>69.10%</td>
<td>41.00%</td>
<td>20.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of EAL pupils</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cases have been selected following these steps (Punch, 2005): (1) identifying the cases and setting the boundaries which would most probably answer my research questions; (2) identifying a sample frame; and (3) the selection of a focus within the cases. Employing ‘purposive’ selection (Dörnyei, 2007; Gerring, 2007) of cases I chose typical cases within the criteria (characteristics) based on the aims of the research. The participants’ recruitment criteria were as follows:

- They had recently arrived in the UK – no more than six years before the period of research (first-generation immigrants).
- They speak Russian at home as their dominant language; it is acceptable that they are multilingual, i.e. speak another additional language apart from Russian or English (such as Ukrainian or Kazakh or Latvian, etc.).
- They attend state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2 (7-11 years old).
At least one of their parents/carers is a native Russian-speaking person.

They are willing to participate in the research (together with the schools and parents).

Within the cases, following the research questions, I focused on two main areas – children’s experiences/issues, and the expressions of their personality development – aiming to track the processes of change of these foci in the L2 school environment. Having identified my case selection criteria, I followed the recruitment strategy, which I will now discuss.

4.7.3 Recruitment process

During the recruitment process I used a range of recruitment strategies, which were firstly tested during the pilot study (see 4.10.1), starting with the ‘snowball’ recruitment strategy/sampling (Dörnyei, 2007; Seidman, 2013). For this, I posted my ethically approved advertisement (Appendix C.1) in the relevant groups for Russian-speaking migrants in online social networks (i.e. Vkontakte Ltd., Facebook Inc.). I contacted and visited a few complementary (weekend) L1 schools in London and Leeds to invite participants in these schools. Furthermore, I sent a request to the DfE to receive information that would help me to find primary schools with recent migrant pupils speaking Russian as a first language in London and Leeds (two feasible areas of research). The data from the DfE (2016) comprised the names and addresses of 516 schools in London and 17 schools in Leeds with more than three pupils with Russian as their first language. Using the invitation e-mail template (Appendix C.2), I contacted 216 schools. Out of these 216, two schools expressed their interest in taking part in the study (School B and C) (see Table 4.2), with 10 pupils (School C) and three pupils (School B) fitting my criteria. I then visited the schools in September-October 2016 and had meetings with the deputy head (School C) and EAL specialist (School B) to discuss the project. They then helped to invite parents, children, and teachers by giving them the information sheets and the consent forms. I thus ended up with three children in School C in different year groups, and one in School B in Year 5. One more case was recruited through the social network (Vkontakte Ltd.) advertisement, when a Russian-speaking mother expressed her interest in the study and asked me to contact School A. Having met School A’s special educational needs coordinator (SENCO), I explained the project’s purpose and design, including ethical issues of confidentiality and anonymity. I then obtained consent from the parents, child, and the school’s teacher. As a result of this process, I recruited five pupils, their parents, and teachers and was allowed to visit the schools over a period of seven months. I will now present the information on each embedded case.

4.7.4 Case information

The participants in this study are all first-generation Russian-speaking migrant pupils (five pupils in total) from non-EU countries. At the time of the study they attended different classes at Key
Stage 2 (middle childhood). The background information on participants is presented in the table using pseudonyms for each child (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2 Participant information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Katerina (C1)</th>
<th>Yulia (C2)</th>
<th>Rita (C3)</th>
<th>Alisa (C4)</th>
<th>Ivan (C5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 year</td>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Year 5</td>
<td>Year 6</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
<td>Year 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country of birth</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time period spent in the UK at the start of the study</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>2 months</td>
<td>1 year 2 months</td>
<td>1 year 4 months</td>
<td>5 years 10 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling experience in a L1 country</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes – 3 years</td>
<td>Yes – 3 years</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>School C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the L2 schools my participants were the only Russian-speaking migrants in the whole classroom, except for Rita in whose classroom there was another Russian-speaking migrant boy, with from two to 10 Russian-speaking pupils in the whole of each school. Russian-speaking migrant pupils were a minority as compared to other migrant groups (e.g. Polish-speaking) in the schools. They were also an invisible minority, i.e. it was not clear that they were migrants until they spoke.

### 4.8 Data collection

In this section, I explain the data collection methods and process (actual timeline and schedule).

#### 4.8.1 Data collection methods

The data collection methods (Table 4.3) included the evidence from:

1. Participant observations, ‘shadowing’ (LeCompte and Schensul, 2010, p.93), ethnographic narratives of observations during lessons and during free-time activities in the school,
including chance conversations, informal interviews, observational notes, overheard remarks, records of discussions, and photographs.

2. Semi-structured interviews with creative elicitation techniques, or ‘researcher-initiated stimuli’ (LeCompte and Schensul, 2010, p.177): a drawing, a board game (the ‘interview-through-game’), filling in exercise, and a concentric circle ranking.

3. One semi-structured and one open-ended interview with the participants’ family and school members.

Table 4.3 The summary of the data collection methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection</th>
<th>Participant observations</th>
<th>Interviews with children</th>
<th>Interviews with parents</th>
<th>Interviews with class/EAL teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During 7 months (see schedule in Appendix A.1)</td>
<td>30 minutes twice a month for 7 months</td>
<td>1-hour 1-2 interviews</td>
<td>1-hour 1-2 interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I will now focus on each method, starting with participant observations providing an outline, process, and the timeline.

4.8.2 Participant observations

I chose to employ a participant observation (versus a non-participant type) of an unstructured, ethnographic form in the natural settings of L2 schools. Participant observation is an essential aspect of ethnographic embedding and a valuable tool in researching the emic (inner) perspective (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2011), subjective issues, experiences, views, and feelings of migrant pupils in the L2 classroom, establishing closer relationships with the pupils (Bailey, 1994). Moreover, participant observations may provide answers to the questions pertinent to personality development. The inclusion of the observational data in the research of personality is emphasised as being beneficial for the research outcomes (Tuckett et al., 2008; McAdams, 2015a; 2015b). These data help to create suitable ‘eliciting conditions’ to see the naturally occurring peculiarities of one’s personality development (Caspi and Shiner, 2006; Rothbart and Bates, 2006). Participant observation means spending time with pupils ‘in their friendship groups’, observing and/or participating in their everyday experiences and activities (Davies, 2015, p.48). By allowing the researcher to ‘engage in the very activities they set out to observe’ (Cohen et al., 2018, p.385), it helps to encounter and explain what might be implicit and intricate events in other people’s lives and to reflect ‘closer and empathetic’ views of such events (Pink et al., 2010, p.649).
In participant observations I focused on the participants’ experiences/issues, and non-verbal and verbal behaviours, keeping my research questions (presented in section 4.2) in mind. I also included the layout of the space of the room, different objects or physical elements in the room, people involved, date, time, lesson type, number of pupils in the room, roles of the people, the flow of the lessons, situations, interactions, and perceptions. Participant observations also included chance conversations with the teachers, TAs, parents, pupils and other staff members during the observations, and chance communication with some parents and teachers via the e-mail or social networking. I excluded any other events, which were unrelated to my participants in schools. In lessons, I sat next to or behind my participants, being able to see and hear them closely. I was allowed to communicate with them during lessons and in breaks, taking part in activities in lessons, and moving around if I wanted to.

The participant observations were conducted during whole school days, from when participating children came to school and until children left school, and twice after school (when I went to interview Katerina’s mother, visiting her home), following pupils-participants in lessons and in breaks. I typed observations in situ electronically using an iPad (Apple Inc.) in the form of thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973; Whitehead, 2004; King and Horrocks, 2010; Creswell, 2014). I followed an approximate schedule agreed with each individual school in our initial meeting (for the actual schedule see Appendix A.1). I observed each pupil for approximately one working month, with an average of 24.8 school days. Part of field notes, I also made 463 photographs, which I took during the participant observations (Table 4.4). Photographs comprised learning materials, work produced by participating children, and copies of their assessment/tests.

### Table 4.4 Participant observations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of school days</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of photographs</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.8.3 Interviews

The interview method, alongside participant observations, was used as the main method of data collection in my study, drawing on Pervin et al.’s (2005, p.41) view:

> If one wants to know about people’s conscious perceptions of themselves and their beliefs about the world around them, then we are back where we started: the best thing to do is to ask them.
The open-ended and semi-structured (for adults) (see Appendix A.2 and Appendix A.3 – first interview guides; Appendix A.4 – second interview guide) and semi-structured (for children) (Appendix A.5) interviews were designed in order to try to capture underlying meanings and nuances below the surface of the question (Angrosino, 2007). All of the interviews were audio recorded using a digital voice recorder (Olympus Corporation Ltd.). I conducted 79 qualitative interviews over the course of the data collection period. Interviews with parents were conducted in schools in specially designated meeting rooms (Schools B, C) and at the home of the parents after school (School A). With teachers, interviews took place after school in empty classrooms in all schools. With children, interviews took place in special rooms used for interventions (Schools A, C) or the EAL lesson designated rooms (School B). The interviews took place in private rooms ensuring confidentiality, except when they took place with children in School C as some other children and adults were at times present sharing the room for their own intervention activities. I did not object to other people’s presence in these cases, as, being conducted in Russian, interviews remained confidential.

4.8.3.1 Interviews with parents and teachers

Interviews with the family members and school members included interviewing parents, teachers, and/or EAL TAs. It was planned to conduct interviews twice with each adult-participant: a semi-structured interview at the beginning of the empirical study and an open-ended one towards the end in order to track change and for methodological triangulation purposes (Table 4.5). The semi-structured interview guide was tested during my pilot study (see 4.10.1), adjusted for the main study and combined the themes from the research questions with separate interview guides for teachers and parents. Appendix A.2 is the interview guide for parents (first interview), while Appendix A.3 is the interview guide for teachers (first interview). Appendix A.4 is the interview guide for both, parents and teachers (second interview).

Table 4.5 Interviews with parents and teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dates and number of interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Father, mother</td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It was agreed to conduct the interviews with Yulia’s teachers and parents only once as Yulia was a very recent arrival and teachers had no experience teaching her before the project. Interviews with Rita and Katerina’s teachers were conducted only once (out of two planned) as both teachers did not respond to my invitations for the second interview. Katerina’s class teacher left the school during the study and all of the attempts to contact him through the school were fruitless. Only one interview with him was conducted with no further contact with the teacher after his departure from the school. Rita’s class teacher did not respond to my email about scheduling another interview and did not follow up with me during my visits in the school. In total, with adult participants (the participants’ parents and teachers) I conducted 16 interviews. Each interview lasted for 54 minutes on average (14 hours 28 minutes of qualitative interview time in total, Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Duration of the interviews with parents and teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent Interview 1</td>
<td>97.52</td>
<td>74.05</td>
<td>52.06</td>
<td>55.03</td>
<td>64.17</td>
<td>342.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent Interview 2</td>
<td>108.1</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>30.39</td>
<td>48.26</td>
<td>61.32</td>
<td>248.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Interview 1</td>
<td>52.45</td>
<td>50.48</td>
<td>40.36</td>
<td>23.37</td>
<td>51.51</td>
<td>218.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Interview 2</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>36.35</td>
<td>22.16</td>
<td>58.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minutes, total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>867.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14h28m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average, minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>54.22375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8.3.2 Interviews with children

With children I conducted 63 semi-structured interviews (each lasted for 27 minutes on average) twice a month, except for the first month and the last month of the study when I conducted one introductory/finalising interview (Table 4.7).
Two types of interviews were conducted with each child-participant, focusing on (1) children’s experiences/issues (the first research question), and (2) personality development (the second research question), i.e. motivated agent (question 2a) and social actor (question 2b) lines. However, the interview themes (topics, questions) overlapped depending on the nature of the responses, children’s needs and preferences. These two types of interviews were repeated on a monthly basis during seven months of fieldwork to track the processes of change and ensure an in-depth understanding. The order of the creative techniques was different for every child, depending on which technique he/she preferred; however, each month one drawing, one concentric circle, and one ‘interview-through-game’-based interview was conducted. The ‘Today I’ exercise was also used monthly; however, it was used only twice, one each with Katerina and Rita, following their preferences. Table 4.8 presents the exact interview dates with each child.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month (October 2016-May 2017)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviews with each child</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview focus/type</td>
<td></td>
<td>Introductory experiences-focused ‘Interview-through-game’</td>
<td>First interview: experiences-focused (creative technique – the ‘interview-through-game’ or filling-in exercise) <em>Research question 1: What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?</em> Second interview: social actor (creative technique – concentric circles) and motivated agent lines-focused (creative technique – drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’, the ‘interview-through-game’) <em>Research question 2: How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?</em> Finalising interview focusing on research questions 1 and 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 Interviews’ process and focus
Table 4.8 Interviews with children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>13 Dec 2016</td>
<td>5 Dec 2016</td>
<td>2 Dec 2016</td>
<td>14 Dec 2016</td>
<td>2 Dec 2016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>12 Jan 2017</td>
<td>7 Dec 2016</td>
<td>10 Dec 2016</td>
<td>23 Jan 2017</td>
<td>24 Jan 2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>3 Feb 2017</td>
<td>6 Jan 2017</td>
<td>20 Feb 2017</td>
<td>24 Feb 2017</td>
<td>20 Feb 2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>22 May 2017</td>
<td>21 Apr 2017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>25 Apr 2017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main interview questions for the children were the same each month (with some adjustments). Appendix A.5 is an overview of the general interview guide for the children, stipulated by the technique. Appendix A.6 presents the monthly interview questions for each child (actual).

I conducted more interviews than planned with Yulia (two extra) and Katerina (one extra) due to contingency and schools’ organisation. Yulia’s school was very welcoming and supportive of the study, scheduling the interviews with Yulia to be conducted during the seven months, which meant I eventually conducted two extra interviews. Contrarily, with Katerina, I struggled at times to take her out for monthly interviews (the class teacher often changed his mind about the times); therefore, not being sure if I would be allowed to conduct an interview the following month, I conducted one extra interview in February. The total duration of the interviews was 28 hours (see Table 4.9).
### 4.8.4 Creative techniques

This section details the creative techniques used as part of interviews with children. I first critically examine important features of the creative techniques, which helped me to implement them in my study. This is followed by a description and justification of the techniques chosen and designed for my study as part of the interviews with the children: the ‘interview-through-game’ (4.8.4.1), the filling-in exercise ‘Today I’ (4.8.4.2), concentric circles with statement ranking (4.8.4.3), and the drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ (4.8.4.4).

Creative methods, or child-centred techniques (Barker and Weller, 2003), as part of research involving children, emerged as a more suitable alternative to the traditional methods (questionnaires and observations) (Siibak et al., 2012), resulting in the development of new interactive methods, including, for example, the mosaic approach (Fargas-Malet et al., 2010; Clark and Moss, 2011). The philosophy behind these techniques was to increase children’s meaningful participation and accessibility during the research project (Barker and Weller, 2003; Kramer-Roy, 2015; Peek et al., 2016) through methods authentic to children (Finlay et al., 2013), seeing participants as ‘experts’ in their lives. Creativity facilitates such innovative techniques, in which the aptitudes and personae of children are central, physically and cognitively implemented.

#### Table 4.9 Duration of the interviews with children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interview N</td>
<td>Duration, minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.59</td>
<td>24.14</td>
<td>34.35</td>
<td>22.42</td>
<td>25.07</td>
<td>131.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.06</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>32.33</td>
<td>22.47</td>
<td>24.31</td>
<td>122.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>29.28</td>
<td>23.16</td>
<td>29.23</td>
<td>27.08</td>
<td>20.31</td>
<td>129.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>28.32</td>
<td>26.34</td>
<td>34.09</td>
<td>26.04</td>
<td>23.14</td>
<td>137.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>24.01</td>
<td>27.18</td>
<td>38.06</td>
<td>49.29</td>
<td>17.17</td>
<td>155.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.42</td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td>29.45</td>
<td>39.01</td>
<td>26.01</td>
<td>148.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>31.38</td>
<td>22.43</td>
<td>33.29</td>
<td>18.38</td>
<td>15.10</td>
<td>120.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>37.43</td>
<td>35.13</td>
<td>27.23</td>
<td>24.34</td>
<td>13.46</td>
<td>137.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>21.30</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>27.59</td>
<td>27.17</td>
<td>148.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.04</td>
<td>29.12</td>
<td>32.47</td>
<td>30.10</td>
<td>12.58</td>
<td>134.31</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>27.41</td>
<td>18.21</td>
<td>28.34</td>
<td>32.40</td>
<td>23.04</td>
<td>129.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.29</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>35.31</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>25.35</td>
<td>141.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>41.06</td>
<td>22.56</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>63.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>28.13</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>28.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minutes, total</td>
<td>398.29</td>
<td>340.29</td>
<td>394.15</td>
<td>343.62</td>
<td>252.71</td>
<td>1729.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28h17m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per interview, minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27.4453968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in various settings (playground, classroom, research-specific sites) (Siibak et al. 2012). Significantly for a migration context, creative techniques allow us to reduce the ‘essentialist conceptualisations of children in difficult circumstances’, including migrant linguistic minority children, looking at the children as social actors ‘embedded in complex relational processes’ (Doná, 2006, p.22).

There are, however, essential concerns around the implementation of the creative techniques expounded in substantial criticism in the research literature, which I carefully evaluated. Creative methods require strategic and purposive development and application since, as argued by Komulainen (2007), Gallacher and Gallagher (2008), and Gillies and Robinson (2012), ‘empowering’ children through the research should be implemented with caution. For example, an approach of treating the child as a social actor, or child-participant – ‘methodology of participation’ (Doná, 2006), may lead to the erroneous belief that these methods are a route to ‘ethical and epistemological validity’ being a ‘panacea’ in research with children (Gallacher and Gallagher 2008, p.513). Researchers say that the concern lies in the unpredictability of the social world and children’s behaviours (Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008). Moreover, the challenges of power dynamics are revealed in a common perceived empowerment of creative methods and ethics (Gillies and Robinson, 2012). As Wong et al. (2010) point out, researchers are not able to entirely transfer the burden of empowerment to young people. The ‘discourses of “participation” risk becoming tyrannous in research involving children’ (Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008, p.500). This, perhaps, includes the danger of the researcher’s focus on participatory power becoming self-destructive for a project, and the chances of participation becoming constrained by the researcher’s rules and procedures as a predetermined action rather than freely participating as the methods advocate (Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008).

Another challenge of creativity in research with children lies in the ‘hierarchical and unidirectional’ interpretation of power relations, which ‘adults can give (or take from) children’, distorting how the children actively create and set up their environment and experiences (Lomax, 2012, p.107). It is important to be cautious about overestimating a child’s unique insight into his/her own life and the subjective reality of his/her peers (Buckingham, 1991). Additionally, pupils’ representations of the experiences significant for them may be negated by the influence of adults around them (Lomax et al., 2011). Hohti (2016) said that it is a researcher’s ethical choice to see children as inseparable from surrounding dynamic social relationships or as ‘representatives of categories’ (e.g. a ‘boy’, a ‘student with special needs’). Fundamentally, as illustrated by Lomax (2012), creative methods are dynamic and engaging for children in ways that adjust and rectify adult-centric research rather than superseding it. Thus, an open-ended
attitude towards the research process, accepting that children might behave unexpectedly, and the research design might be in need of adjustment is essential when employing creative techniques. Suffice it to say, by raising methodological, practical, and ethical concerns (Robinson and Gillies, 2012), creative methods need to be used with caution (Lomax, 2012). Nonetheless, the current developments of creative methods in research with children demonstrate (albeit alongside the substantial criticism of the methods, which only reinforces and refines the methods themselves) the formation of an indispensable approach.

Creative methods have been widely expanded and applied, setting up numerous appropriate conditions in research with children, with ‘myriad opportunities’, and ‘dynamic and innovative methodologies’ (Gillies and Robinson, 2012, p.161), such as video-based (Nolan et al., 2017) or photo-based (Woolhouse, 2017) methodologies. Nevertheless, a discussion of specific ways that creative techniques can be used as part of the interviews and adjusted in the process of research, in view of the data collection’s unforeseen issues and without compromising the research aims and holistic structure, are limited in the current literature. This includes the forms and applications of techniques in the context of rich, content-informed interviews, which contribute to the continuous engagement and excitement of children in the research, building good relationships with the participants. While confronted with these limitations, in order to produce the design suitable for my study, I was also faced with the developmental concerns of the creative techniques.

Developmental concerns of the creative techniques in my study comprised a necessity for (1) contextual and (2) design-related considerations, ensuring (3) flexibility of the designs while retaining the holistic and systematic research structure, and building good relationships with the children, with the latter being of supreme significance for my study. Contextual considerations referred to the time constraints on the interviews with the children, as agreed with the schools and parents (up to 30 minutes each session), which meant that I had to design/choose the techniques which would fit this time-frame. Another contextual concern related to the spatial constraints of the school setting for the interviews, in that I was not able to choose the place for an interview; rather, I was given a space with other people present in the room, including other children – which happened often in School C (but not in Schools A and B). The setting for the interviews varied for each participant, but it was important for me to have a safe space for an interview in terms of noise and distractions levels, a space that was not entirely isolated in order to re-assure the schools and parents of the ethical safety of the study. As the children use Russian as their main language of communication, I felt that the presence of other people in the interview rooms did not pose any breach of confidentiality, unless the children wanted to speak English. (I discuss languages in the interviews in 4.9.6.) Therefore, I did not object to having more people in the room. However, the
creative techniques that I was to choose had to be easily transportable across significant distances of travel to schools and in case I was relocated (which happened a few times). This was also linked to the limited resources – namely, my consideration of what I would be able to use in the school (which were pens and pencils) and what I needed to bring (everything else: papers, dice, and other resources, and essentially, the recorder).

The design-related practical concerns included concerns about the purposefulness of the design. It involved assurance that the creative techniques would complement the theoretical framework and the research questions, as well as a significant consideration that the monthly repetition of the interviews (longitudinal design) could accommodate diversification of the techniques without changing the interview questions and compromising the systematicity of the research. In relation to flexibility-systematicity considerations, the challenge was to fuse the flexible design of the techniques with the structural coherence and systematic nature of the study; this challenge was addressed through alternation of the ‘interview-through-game’ design (presented in 4.8.4.1) as well as a varied choice of the techniques.

Taking these into account, the creative techniques chosen for each research question are presented in the Table 4.10 (see Appendix B). All of these activities have been piloted (see the piloted techniques in Appendix D.2) and adjusted (see Appendix D.3).

**Table 4.10 Creative techniques**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Creative techniques</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2? | The ‘interview-through-game’ (adapted from Toth, 1995, p.58)  
Filling-in exercise (adapted from Gregory, 2001, p.129) |
| 2. How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?  
a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?  
b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues? | Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’  
Concentric circles with statement ranking (statements adapted from Taylor, 2010, p.186) |
I turned to variations of creative interviews that allow using additional tools of research that are familiar to children (Griffin et al., 2014) and thus help them to feel relaxed, open, and interested during the research process (Deacon, 2000; Eldén, 2012) and to ‘de-centre’ the interview by incorporating events, feelings, and experiences beyond the interview process (Thomson and Holland, 2005, p.214). Each technique was followed by a conversation based around this technique. I will discuss each technique in order of convenience (not in order of use or importance), starting with the innovative approach implemented in my study: the ‘interview-through-game’.

4.8.4.1 The ‘interview-through-game’

In order to explore children’s experiences, the first creative technique I used was the innovative approach of ‘interview-through-game’. Games-based research in general is broadly pertinent to the discussion of team-work-for-adults (Covert et al., 2017) and online game-based market research (Adamou, 2017). The use of board games as part of interviews in educational research is unknown. More broadly, this approach was used in a variety of ways, for example: to elicit user needs for a future product (Slegers et al., 2015); in medicine to aid the recovery of certain patients (Van Staa and Van Der Stege, 2010; Van Der Stege et al., 2016); as part of mathematics learning (Ramani and Siegler, 2008; Moomaw, 2015); and in teaching the drawbacks of other research methods in higher education (Warburton and Madge, 1994). Game-based interviews including board game-based interviews have also been ignored in educational research with migrant linguistic minority children of primary age. Thus, to address these limitations and, as aforementioned, in order to ensure flexibility of the design (being able to alter the techniques) while retaining the holistic and systematic research structure (being able to ask same questions each month) in order for children to be enthusiastic about the interviews, I incorporated the board games with the interview questions.

The ‘interview-through-game’ is an interview-game that was composed to understand general experiences, issues, and questions the child might have in the new L2 environment. These games required a die, some counters, written questions or question marks, and a set of cards with the research questions. The games were used throughout the data collection period. The design outline was adapted from Toth (1995, p.58). The original game has no questions written on it. Appendix B.1 shows the game and the interview questions I added. Some questions were adopted from Winterbottom and Leedy (2014) and Myles (2000). Importantly, the games did not require vast resources but made the interviews exciting and allowed for flexibility. In order not to repeat the same game, I chose additional games using a set of cards with the same (or slightly adjusted) interview questions (see example of an adjusted game in Appendix B.1.1). Some additional
games-templates were adjusted with the added questions signs, such as the well-known ‘snakes and ladders’. Some of the games already had additional general questions unrelated to the research topic to make the interview more entertaining, e.g. the ‘A Day in my Life’ game (Myles, 2000, pp.58-59) and ‘The Perfect Holiday Board Game’ (Pinigig, no date). Thus, purposeful and flexible designs helped to ‘dissolve’ the general entertaining questions together with the research-specific questions.

4.8.4.2 The filling-in exercise ‘Today I’
The second creative technique was the filling-in exercise ‘Today I’, the design of which was adapted from Gregory (2001, p.129) (Appendix B.2). Children were asked to fill in the exercise and talk about their responses. This exercise helped to reveal children’s learning issues, moods, perceived English level, interests and issues in learning. As it was presented in two languages, it allowed for using children’s L1, L2 or all-language repertoire.

4.8.4.3 Concentric circles with statement ranking
The third creative technique I used was concentric circles or mind maps with statement ranking. The technique of concentric circles was used as a part of the investigation into children’s social actor line of personality development (as I discussed in 3.3) (alongside observations, interviews with parents, and teachers) followed by the interview. This technique, which helped to evaluate the child’s environment, was adopted from psychology and has been used in sociological research with children (Mason and Tipper, 2008; Eldén, 2012; Davies, 2015). It was combined with a ranking exercise (Fargas-Malet et al., 2010) in which children were asked to rank statements (put ‘thought bubbles’ next to a person they drew) about their perceived behaviour patterns as viewed by their parents, friends, and teachers (or whichever people important in their lives they had drawn in the circles). This was done to give the children tools for more detailed expression, regarding their social behaviour and relationships, in our interviews. As I introduced in 3.5.1, Taylor’s (2010; 2013a) system is suitable as a model of exploring behavioural types of migrant pupils. Thus, the statements were adapted from Taylor’s (2010) self-system vignettes (Appendix B.3).

4.8.4.4 Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’
The fourth creative technique I used was a drawing of ‘My hopes and dreams’ (Appendix B.4), which was designed by me to explore the motivations of primary level migrant pupils; as I described earlier in 3.3, this is pertinent to the motivated agent line of personality development, attending to the broad questions, ‘What do I want?’ and ‘What do I value?’ (McAdams, 2015b, p.260). The essence of the sociological use and analysis of drawings is that the researchers ask children to ‘explain their picture, and in analysing these drawings, researchers consider that children actively and consciously create meaning through these explanations’ (Davies, 2015,
The advantages of the method include the fact that while being an everyday activity for children it enables them to participate in the knowledge-making process (Punch, 2002; Christensen and James, 2008; Fargas-Malet et al., 2010) as well as enabling the possibility to broaden and ‘challenge’ the empirical data of the whole research (Eldén, 2012, p.67). The choice of the topic for drawings was guided by the research questions, participant characteristics (their age), and the research setting, and was aimed to be used, primarily, as a basis of the interviews about the children’s motivated agent line of personality development as well as overlap with the discussion of general experiences/issues in the interview. Children were offered to choose what and how to draw (e.g. objects or activities, using pens or pencils). A drawing-based exploration of the motivation of migrant (and non-migrant) primary level pupils has not been used prior to this study, with the exception of recently published research ‘Drawing the future’, which was pertinent to employment research (Chambers et al., 2018), and did not particularly focus on migrant children.

The variety of elicitation activities was designed to allow the child to choose their preference. For instance, if they did not like to draw, they could fill in the exercise or just have a traditional semi-structured interview. None of these activities were obligatory and any of them would end upon the child’s request. There were no cases of the participants initiating the end of the interview sessions; four out of five pupils openly expressed their disappointment and sadness that the research was ending. There were challenges in the use of the techniques (e.g. the rejection of the filling-in technique in Yulia’s case) which were valuable data themselves, revealing the children’s issues. The challenges evolved in the cases when the questions asked were broaching a sensitive or difficult topic for children to explain and the children responded in a playful distraction, running around classroom or making various noises (e.g. slurping) (Yulia, Katerina); in each case the technique could not proceed at that time. Some participants (Alisa, Yulia) freely refused to respond (but not to end the interview session), which reinforced the research’s ethical credibility and an understanding of the ethos of the study by the participants.

4.9 Data analysis

This section outlines the qualitative analysis in my study including its nature, purpose, techniques, stages, and procedures. The analysis was guided by the principle described by Cohen et al. (2018) as ‘fitness for purpose’ (p.347, italics in original), following the analytical approaches of Yin (2014), Creswell and Poth (2018), LeCompte and Schensul (2010), and Bazeley (2009). The broad purpose of the analysis was to understand, describe (‘drawing a map’ of the setting and events, facts), analyse, and interpret the Russian-speaking pupils’ experiences/issues, and their
personality development in the context of the experiences/issues in the L2 school. This was implemented through a systematic process, described below.

4.9.1 Process of analysis

As I explained in 4.3, in the process of my analysis I used an abductive-deductive-inductive conceptual cycle (Hennink et al., 2011; Patton, 2011; Bendassolli, 2013; Reichertz, 2013). In other words, by ‘draw[ing] on evidence from the case of special interest’ (Gerring, 2007, p.197), i.e. focusing on the experiences and personality development of migrant pupils in the context of these experiences, data collection and analysis were carefully constrained by the broad predetermined research aim and questions, and guided by theoretical concepts, and, thus, were not fully ground-up. Within the aims and research questions in each case, the data emerged experientially during the course of the research and were unique to each case. Thus, within cases, the analysis comprised a thematic approach (Bazeley, 2009; King and Horrocks, 2010; Cohen et al., 2018). Additionally, I applied the logic models analytic technique, which involved ‘matching empirically observed events to theoretically predicted events’, i.e. based on the existing theoretical categories (Yin, 2014, p.155). Having completed the within-case analysis (Chapters 5 to 9), I conducted cross-site (cross-case) analysis (King and Horrocks, 2010; Yin, 2014; Cohen et al., 2018) (Chapter 10). Drawing on King and Horrocks (2010), LeCompte and Schensul (2010), Hardin (2013), Creswell (2014), Cohen et al. (2018), and Creswell and Poth (2018), I followed the systematic stages of data analysis repeated for each case: (1) data management and anonymisation, (2) coding, (3) overarching themes, (4) presentation: producing the report, (5) translation of the data and the language of the data generation, (6) cross-case analysis, and (7) data management during writing up. I will now outline each step successively.

4.9.2 Stage 1 – Data organisation and anonymisation

The first organisation stage comprised choosing the software to analyse and store the data, systematically (as the data were collected, carefully noting the dates and times of the observations and interviews, and each creative technique result) storing the data in a password-protected encrypted drive. I stored the data in specially designated folders and then uploaded the files to NVivo 11 (QSR International Ltd.), having a separate file for each case. Physical data (e.g. creative techniques, interview guides with notes) were stored in separate physical folders, then scanned and uploaded with the other electronically collected data (photographs, audio recordings, and participant observations). Storing, entering, and managing data were aided with the development of a meta-data (anonymisation coding) system for my study (Appendix A.7.1). The meta-data were used to store the files in the folders and in NVivo files within five folders (one for each case), allowing me to easily access any original source.
Having organised the data, I then transcribed the data (over the period of approximately five months) verbatim using NVivo 11, treating transcription as the initial phase of interpretation (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). For the transcriptions, I followed Cohen et al.’s (2018) recommendations and (partially) adopted conventions described by Flick (2014, pp.390-391) (see Appendix A.7.2). Having transcribed the data, I moved onto the coding stage.

4.9.3 Stage 2 – Coding

The coding stage for the rich, thick descriptions, as well as the interviews, was a non-linear, iterative, and long-term process. Coding is a process of diminishing the data to ‘meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments’ or ‘aggregating the text or visual data into small categories of information, seeking evidence for the code from different databases being used in a study, and then assigning a label to the code’ (Creswell and Poth, 2018, pp.183-190, my italics). Bazeley (2009) says, ‘reading and interpretation are the starting points for meaningful analysis’ (p.7). Following this, during the coding, or aggregation of categories (Creswell and Poth, 2018), stage I read the transcripts for the first time, wrote initial codes in NVivo, coding the relevant parts using one to three words. In this process, I highlighted an abstract transcript and assigned a relevant code (meaningful summary) to it. I then coded all of the data which were relevant to the aim of the research and research questions, i.e. focusing on experiences and personality development expressions. The types of codes which evolved were expected codes (i.e. using logic models technique – see example of coding in Appendix A.7.4); frequently occurring codes, but also if they were not necessarily frequent but important for other elements (e.g. explaining other data); and ‘rare and influential’, contradictory, i.e. unexpected codes (LeCompte and Shensul, 2010, p.203), including consideration of silences/no answers (Creswell, 2013). One example of a rare and influential code is illustrated in the abstracts in Figure 4.2, based on Yulia’s case.

![Figure 4.2 NVivo screenshot: example of coding](image-url)
It includes observational data of the child being quiet and passive, which I highlighted and grouped under the ‘Sits quietly’ code, which was further grouped under the ‘Social behaviour and relationships’ overarching theme (Code: ‘Sits quietly’; overarching theme: ‘Social behaviour and relationships’). After initial coding, I then read the transcripts again and merged similar codes, repeating the same steps for all the transcripts. I aligned and re-aligned codes under common topics, refining the codes. For this, I put the codes with similar meanings together, interpreting their meaning, and reducing the number of codes. I also decided to include chronologically ordered codes naming them ‘Over time’ (Figure 4.3) as part of focusing on processes of change allowing me to organise and analyse monthly changes within each case.

This was done within each theme, coded numerically from 1 to 7 (1 – signifying October, or an interview in the first month, 7 – April, or the last month of interviews). The code ‘1’ in the ‘Learning experiences’ sub-theme and ‘Experiences’ theme included observed or reported learning experiences from learning in month 1 (October) of the empirical phase. Coding of the photographs and creative techniques involved highlighting a relevant segment and assigning an underlying meaning to it (code) or clustering it under already existing codes. For instance, I highlighted Yulia’s encircled emoji (‘in-between’, or ‘neutral’) and coded it into code ‘1’ signifying the first month of observations and interviews, further clustered under code ‘Over time’ within ‘Learning experiences’ sub-theme and ‘Experiences’ theme (Figure 4.3).
4.9.4 Stage 3 – Overarching themes

The next stage was collapsing the codes into overarching themes. This stage was done almost simultaneously with the coding stage – i.e. I rearranged codes into themes during (or soon after) coding. I aligned the codes under overarching themes hierarchically (King and Horrocks, 2010). As predicted by Bazeley (2009), initially, I struggled with identifying names for the overarching themes. Trying to make sense of and manage the data, I decided to align the codes as relevant to the aim, i.e. the research questions were the guiding frame of the focus of analysis (and further reporting of) the cases. While doing so, as aforementioned, I applied the logic models technique: matching the generated data to the existing theoretical concepts (Yin, 2014) (see an example of coding in Appendix A.7.4). Although these themes, thus, were a priori anticipated and determined by the research questions, within them unique to each case emerging themes/codes were included correspondingly. Such a structure (discussed further in 4.9.5) was helpful in conducting the cross-case analysis (outlined in 4.9.7) and addressing the research questions clearly in the discussion (Chapter 11). The broad overarching themes were pertinent to experiences/issues (research question 1), and pertinent to personality development lines comprising social behaviour and relationships and motivations in learning (research question 2) (Figure 4.4 shows an example based on Yulia’s case), forming one thematic tree node (see an example in Appendix A.7.3). I have also included the ‘Background information’ theme, which contained information about participants that was needed for the contextualising and presentation of the case.

![Nodes](image)

Figure 4.4 NVivo screenshot: overarching themes

4.9.5 Stage 4 – Presentation: producing the report

The presentation of the data stage involved an elaboration of the descriptions from the cases using quotes from the data (Creswell, 2014), aiming to present ‘adequate raw data prior to interpretation so that the readers can consider their own alternative interpretations’ (Stake, 1995, p.87). Having coded the data, I further started writing the narratives of each case, using the data to illustrate
codes and themes. Correspondingly, findings from each embedded case are presented (Chapters 5 to 9) starting from the Russian-speaking migrant child who spent least time in the UK (Yulia) to the one that spent most (Ivan). In each embedded case, I first contextualised the case with the background information in the introduction section using the ‘Background information’ supportive theme. The structure for the presentation (Hussey and Hussey, 1997) was based on the overarching themes (Stage 3) and themes/codes (Stage 2), which emerged in the process of analysis, aiming to present a holistic evidence-based narrative account of each case. Thus, the overarching themes act as the section’s titles for each case: Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school. Within these overarching themes (sections), I included themes/codes for each individual case, supported by the primary evidence from the data (using quotes, photos, and participant observations). The titles for the sub-sections (within the sections) do not necessarily represent exact wording of the codes used in NVivo. Instead, during re-drafting of the reports for each case (see manual re-drafting example in Appendix A.7.5), different wording was chosen for presentation purposes, which, nevertheless, reflects the essence of the codes (e.g. the code ‘Sits quietly’ exemplified above, appears in the report as ‘Quietness in lessons’, as seen in 5.4.1).

4.9.6 Stage 5 – Translation of the data

Conducting what is essentially cross-cultural research (collecting the data in more than one language) requires addressing the peculiarities of data translation (Larkin et al., 2007; Lopez et al., 2008; Regmi et al., 2010; van Nes et al., 2010). One threat of translation in cross-cultural research is inherent in its being ‘an interpretive act’, whereby the ‘meaning may get lost in the translation process’ (van Nes et al., 2010, p.313). In addition, as elaborated by Andrews and Maksimova (2010), the Russian language has peculiar structural aspects, which should be considered during translation. Thus, to ensure the trustworthiness of the translations, I will briefly describe the language of the data generation and translation process in my study. The data were generated in both Russian and English languages. Parents mostly used Russian with sparsely inserted English words. Teachers used English in interviews and observations. Children were given freedom to use all their language repertoire in the interviews according to their preference. For this, they were offered two copies (one in each language) of the creative techniques’ templates. All children used Russian, also inserting English words into the creative techniques (as an example see Figure 9.7 in Chapter 9) alongside Russian. I typed participant observations trans-linguistically/bilingually, either in English or Russian as the data occurred naturally (e.g. conversations with children mostly occurred using Russian and thus were typed in Russian, whereas teachers’ comments were mostly typed in English), and analysed by me without any
translation. The data were copied, then stored in NVivo 11 in the language they were originally collected in.

The data were translated after the analysis for the purpose of presenting the findings (Chapters 5 to 9), rather than for the purposes of analysis (as member-checking occurred in the original language: Russian with parents, English with teachers), due to practicability, manageability, and minimisation of translation-related threats (van Nes et al., 2010). I translated the data myself into English using a literal, i.e. interlinear, word-for-word process (Duranti, 1997; Honig, 1997; Andrews and Maksimova, 2010) combined with a balanced approach, i.e. a translation that aims to retain the most important features of the Russian [source language] and the English [target language] translations (Hervey and Higgins, 2002). For example, a Russian phrase ‘Мотивация идти в школу’ was translated literally into ‘Motivation to go to school’. With less straightforward phrases, I tried to use natural forms of expressions in English (Larson, 1991), adding contextual (implied) details in square brackets ‘[]’, e.g. ‘мы сами’ was translated as ‘[We started it] By ourselves’, whereas a literal translation would be ‘we alone’ where ‘[we started it]’ was implied in the Russian version:

L: Это у вас задание учительницы такое было?
I: Нет. Мы сами.

L: Is this a teacher’s task that you have had?
I: No. [We started it] By ourselves.

Pauses, silences, and emotional expressions were included in the translation alongside other transcription conventions. For instance, ellipses, denoting short pauses, were retained in the translation, a sentence ‘А вот что-то... Выполнять дома... нет, нет’ was translated by me into ‘But well... Doing something at home... no, no’. In the presented cases (Chapters 5 to 9), I provide both original and translated versions with the Russian version followed by the English translation. In cases where no translation is provided, the data were originally generated in English.

4.9.7 Stage 6 – Cross-case analysis
As a ‘bridge’ to the discussion of the findings (Chapter 11), I conducted cross-case analysis (Chapter 10) after I produced the five reports. The aim of the cross-case analysis was to ‘draw a single set of “cross-case” conclusions’ (Yin, 2014, p.18), writing the merged findings across cases into preliminary assertions or concluding statements (Stake, 2006, p.50). Assertions for each theme (Experiences in L2 school, Motivations in L2 school, and Social behaviour and relationships in L2 school, presented in Stage 3, section 4.9.4) were composed in order to understand the themes (Stake, 2006, p.55). Yin (2014) states that cross-case analysis is conducted
using ‘word tables that display the data from the individual cases according to one or more universal categories’ (p.165). According to Stake (2006), cross-case analysis involves, firstly, reading the data of the collected embedded cases, noting the common themes and sub-themes, which correspond to the research questions across cases, and recording them in a table. As Stake (2006, p.47) put it, ‘applying their [individual cases] Findings of situated experience to the research questions of the Quintain [i.e. the phenomenon under investigation]’. I have thus arranged the data in the tables across cases. Secondly, the cross-case analysis involves comparing and contrasting the cases, looking into the common and atypical findings, as well as assessing their prominence and utility (significance) in terms of answering the research questions. I subsequently compared and contrasted the findings following the creation of the tables. As the specifics of each case embody its ‘value, trauma, and uniqueness’, the comparison of the cases, which can ‘obscure[s] the situationality and complex interaction of case knowledge’ (Stake, 2006, p.83), was done with caution. Finally, I compiled the summaries in the form of assertions or cross-case conclusions for each cross-case theme (10.2.4, 10.3.5, 10.4.5).

4.9.8 Stage 7 – A note on data management during writing up

As I initially coded and wrote up all of the data that were relevant to the research questions, I ended up with lengthy reports in each case. During the cross-case analysis (Chapter 10) and subsequent re-drafting of the cases, my next aim was condensing the reports of individual cases (Chapters 5-9) in order to make them more focused and to comply with the spatial constraints of the thesis. For this, I assessed the codes’ significance: i.e. asking myself, ‘So what?’ in relation to experiences and personality development (research questions). Are codes significant for this case? Do they appear in other cases? Do they carry theoretical, practical value in relation to research questions and the literature (predetermined theoretical concepts)? Can they explain some other data within the case? Do they contradict the other data? (If they did, they had to be included to ensure the trustworthiness of the study). If the answer was ‘yes’ to these questions, the codes were considered significant and were kept in the final reports and in the cross-case analysis chapter. I have thereby eliminated a few codes which were irrelevant to learning in L2 school, e.g. I have deliberately excluded from the analysis and discussion the atypical issues related to physical/essential needs (e.g. reported concerns with the school toilets, and permission for using them), experiences outside of school (e.g. language brokering in one case), and the data assessed insignificant, e.g. pupils’ idiosyncratic behaviour, macro communications (e.g. Rita’s quirky chats with her desk-mate), which occurred in one or two cases and presented a lack of explanatory value, however, which could be potentially used in other future studies. Despite being part of pupils’ experiences, the spatial limitations of this thesis precluded a discussion of such experiences/issues that were only indirectly related to learning. All significant typical and
significant atypical learning-related data were condensed and included (presented in summative tables in Chapter 10).

4.10 Trustworthiness and ethics
This section presents the pilot study, ethical approach, and trustworthiness strategies implemented in this thesis.

4.10.1 The pilot study
The research design was tested during my month-long pilot study (see Table 4.11) with a Russian-speaking migrant participant (a nine-year-old boy), his mother, and two teachers, in a state-funded London primary school (not part of the main study).

Table 4.11. Pilot study data collection schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Date and Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russian-speaking migrant child</td>
<td>2 interviews focusing on experiences</td>
<td>15 April 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Sasha – pseudonym)</td>
<td>have been conducted, and 2 interviews</td>
<td>21 April 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focusing on personality development</td>
<td>4th May 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6th May 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All interviews were conducted in a room,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adjacent to the classroom, appointed by</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasha’s mother</td>
<td>1 (1.5 hour) interview</td>
<td>15 April 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>local library, an empty adjacent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>room in the library next to the computer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>room</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasha’s class teacher</td>
<td>1 (1 hour) interview</td>
<td>21 April 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a room for individual sessions,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adjacent to the classroom appointed by</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasha’s EAL teacher</td>
<td>1 (1 hour) interview</td>
<td>14 April 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in her personal office in the school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant observations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom observations of child-</td>
<td>4 weeks during the period from 12 April</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participant (Sasha)</td>
<td>to 6th May 2016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The aim of the piloting was to refine the study’s methodological design (Yin, 2014) as well as to evaluate the impact of the study’s design on participants (Cohen et al., 2018). Specifically, I assessed the recruitment strategy, access to protected sites (schools), piloted the instruments, and tested the trustworthiness of the design, adjusting the research design in accordance with the outcomes of the pilot study (Table 4.12). Prior to the pilot study, ethical approval had been granted (reviewed later in 4.10.2).

**Table 4.12. Pilot study results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment aspect</th>
<th>Outcome for the main study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment strategy</td>
<td>Successful and will be used for the main study. However, if it does not ensure a sufficient number of participants for the main study in relation to the location of the schools with Russian-speaking migrant pupils, relevant information from the DfE will be added to identify such schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical consent forms</td>
<td>For the main study I will need to inform the relevant person in the school and the head teacher about all the forms I will need the participants to get familiar with and sign before the interviews with participants, which should contribute to the smooth research process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview guides</td>
<td>Fewer questions will be used. After the interview with the teacher I have altered some questions, but the overall guide will remain the same for the main study. The interview with Sasha’s mother was successful in terms of the structure and information provided and appeared to be a very important source for this study. (See piloted and adjusted copies in Appendix D.1 and Appendices A.2, A.3, A.5 respectively.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative techniques</td>
<td>I rejected and adjusted some creative techniques based on the informativity and age-appropriateness. Appendix D.2 shows tested and rejected creative techniques. Appendix D.3 shows piloted and adjusted creative technique. Piloted and accepted techniques are presented in Appendix B and described in section 4.8.4 of this chapter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.10.2 Ethical approach and procedures

My general ethical approach (Scott and Usher, 2011) can be summarised by Stake’s (2005) words: ‘qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of the world. Their manners should be good and their code of ethics strict’ (p.459). My research complied with ethical standards and requirements, and appropriate use of the data (British Educational Research Association [BERA], 2011; 2018), with respect to ‘democracy, truths, and persons’ (Bassey, 1999, p.73). All participants were assured of anonymity and privacy, adhering to the legal requirements of working with vulnerable participants to cause no harm (the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989; the Children’s Act, 2004; the University of Leeds Research Ethics Policy, 2016).

The ethical approval dated 17 March 2016 was granted prior to my pilot study in April 2016, by the University of Leeds ESSL (Faculty of Social Sciences), Environment, and LUBS (Leeds University Business School) Faculty Research Ethics Committee. I received University of Leeds training in research ethics and my successful application for ethical approval was commended by the University of Leeds ESSL Faculty Research Ethics Committee (‘A very nice application and you have clearly thought through all the issues’) (see Appendix C.8). This demonstrates my understanding of ethical issues in research. In preparation for my application I have compiled:

- An advertisement to recruit participants (English and Russian languages versions) (Appendix C.1).
- A template e-mail to contact the gatekeepers (schools’ head teachers) (Appendix C.2).
- Information sheet for children (English and Russian languages versions) (Appendix C.3).
- Information sheet for adult participants (English and Russian languages versions) (Appendix C.4).
- Informed consent for children (English and Russian languages versions) (Appendix C.5).
- Informed consent for parents (English and Russian languages versions) (Appendix C.6).
- Informed consent for teachers (Appendix C.7).

Having been granted the ethical approval and the Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) check, the informed consent was obtained from the children, their parents, and class teachers. Parents were given information sheets and consent forms for children and asked to go through them with their children at home, explaining the project to them and asking children and parents to sign the forms if they agreed. The forms were then signed by me before the interviews in the presence of the interviewees (as stated in the consent forms).

During the study, I strictly followed the ethical regulations outlined in the information sheets and consent forms. I have used pseudonyms for the children and anonymised any other names and
data. Participants were able to withdraw their data until the end of the data collection or stop participating without explaining their reasons for doing so. They were also able to withhold from answering any interview questions or change/clarify the interpretations of their answers during member-checking or in personal conversations during the data collection. I explained to children they could say 'skip' (‘пропускаю’) in Russian as a sign that they did not want to reply; Alisa and Katerina used this in some interviews. The children could also choose the creative technique in the interview or opt out from doing it at all and just have a talk (a semi-structured interview).

The findings of the research were not disseminated to participating schools directly due to the sensitivity of the data and the risk of breaching confidentiality and anonymity (as outlined in the information sheet and the consent forms) of the participants who, as the minority Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the schools, would be identifiable.

4.10.3 Trustworthiness strategies

Following Creswell (2014), qualitative validity, or trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), implies a careful and precise inspection of the findings and conclusions using particular strategies. In my study I used the following trustworthiness strategies: (1) triangulation; (2) member-checking; (3) prolonged engagement; (4) rich, thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973; Creswell, 2014), and (5) auditability and transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Stake, 1995; Walliman, 2001; Atkinson and Delamont, 2005; Gerring, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010; LeCompte and Schensul, 2010; Hardin, 2013; Seidman, 2013; Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2014; Creswell and Poth, 2018).

1. Triangulation and redundancy involve multiple sources of data (LeCompte and Schensul, 2010). In my study I used data and methodological (as opposed to e.g. theoretical) triangulation, i.e. 'using a variety of data sources within a single study’ and a variety of methods exploring the issue (King and Horrocks, 2010, p.164). I used multiple sources of evidence, collected from adults (parents, teachers) and children-participants, as well as evidence from my own participant observations. To collect this evidence, a variety (four types) of creative techniques was used with the children.

2. Member-checking, or informants’ feedback – i.e. participants’ aid in interpretation of results – was used to strengthen the analysis by validating the findings and to address my own potential bias during the analysis. The preliminary analysis of the interviews was member-checked during the second interview. By reading the analysed transcript of their first interview, I went through each code and theme together with each participant, discussing whether my interpretation of their answers was correct. Participants did not suggest any changes in the analysis, except for Alisa’s mother who once said that she
exaggerated in our previous interview about the easiness of mathematics in the L2 school. I respectively noted her correction. Member-checking was not done with four adults (1 parent and 3 teachers). These were Yulia’s mother and her teachers with whom I have one interview each (2 in total), as agreed prior to data collection. This was a condition expressed by the school due to Yulia’s recent arrival and the inability of her mother and teachers to give any judgement about Yulia’s experiences in her new L2 school at the start of the data collection. The other two teachers were Katerina’s and Rita’s, as only one interview was conducted with them, as I explained in 4.8.3.1.

3. Prolonged engagement was another trustworthiness strategy in my research. Following Walliman (2001), Beach (2008), Walford (2008), Pink et al. (2010), and Creswell (2014), for the purposes of prolonged engagement my empirical phase lasted for seven months in the English state-funded primary schools while I generated the data with five Russian-speaking migrant pupils, their parents, and teachers. This trustworthiness strategy can also be referred to as time triangulation (Cohen et al., 2018) allowing for repeated observations of participants’ experiences in different circumstances to aid higher ‘probability of the conclusion’ (Walliman, 2001, p.156).

4. Alongside prolonged engagement, during my participant observations, I aimed to produce rich, detailed descriptions in the course of fieldwork, which contributed to an understanding of the way I have come to certain results from the data (Geertz, 1973; Whitehead, 2004; King and Horrocks, 2010; Creswell, 2014). Alongside this, my process of data collection (illustrated in 4.8) shows consistency of data collection (e.g. having two monthly interviews with each child), contributing to what Creswell (2014) described as qualitative reliability.

5. Auditability (audit trail) and transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) were additional strategies. I aimed to provide an audit trail through a description of the way a thematic structure was created from the data with ‘key documents illustrating the process (your “audit trail”) in appendices’ (King and Horrocks, 2010, p.152), which I presented in this chapter (data analysis, section 4.9). Transferability can be achieved through a rigorous and systematic research process, which is enhanced by the trustworthiness strategies mentioned above.

4.11 Summary
This chapter has discussed the methodological design of the study. I have started with a re-statement of the research questions, followed by the philosophical underpinning, and the research tradition and approach (genre). I have then detailed methods of data collection/generation, including the rationale, plan, and procedures for participant observations and interviews. This has
naturally led to the discussion of the data analysis stages, followed by an outline of the quality of the research design and implementation, illuminated by trustworthiness strategies and the section on ethical approach and procedures.

The next chapters (Chapters 5 to 9) present the findings from each case, which were collected as described in this (Methodology) chapter. For the presentation I arranged the cases in chronological order: from the Russian-speaking migrant child who spent least time in the UK (Yulia) to the one who spent most (Ivan). In each chapter I first provide a general outline of the case moving to the main overarching themes: Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school. As I explained in the ethical approach (4.10.2), complying with ethical standards and requirements, and appropriate use of the data (the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989; the Children’s Act 2004; the University of Leeds Research Ethics Policy, 2016; BERA, 2018), all proper nouns from my data collection used thus far and henceforth are pseudonyms (children’s names) or otherwise anonymised (all other participants, school names).
Chapter 5  Yulia

5.1 Introduction
This is the first individual case study, focusing on Yulia (see Table 5.1). Yulia’s case is particularly distinctive because she is the most recent arrival, compared with other cases. Originally from Belarus, Yulia lived in Moscow, Russia for about a year, prior to arriving in the UK.

Table 5.1 Yulia’s background information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Birth</th>
<th>Belarus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at the start of the data collection/Year of birth</td>
<td>9 years old/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 Year</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in the UK at the start of the data collection</td>
<td>1 month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Law degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling in a Russian-speaking school, location</td>
<td>Yes, Belarus and Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous exposure to English</td>
<td>Minimal, ‘Beginner’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL provision/specialist</td>
<td>Yes, two specially allocated EAL teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s Curriculum</td>
<td>National Curriculum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings are presented thematically, aligned to the three overarching themes: Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school. As I mentioned previously, during observations I sit in a chair next to Yulia, in order to grasp every detail of Yulia’s learning experience. I am also allowed to communicate with her quietly in Russian and move around the classroom if I so wish.

5.2 Experiences in the L2 school

5.2.1 Achievement and learning issues
The first learning experience of Yulia relates to achievement and learning issues. Describing her learning experience in our first interview on 18 October, Yulia tells me her concerns, ‘Английский у меня иногда не получается. (...) ну потому, что я не знаю английского’ – English sometimes does not turn out well (...) because I don’t speak English’. On 23 November, Yulia shares that her achievement difficulties are closely linked with the L2 in school:
In Yulia’s opinion, L2 proficiency is imperative for her in succeeding in school. On 21 November I ask the EAL TA about Yulia, and she says that her mathematics is ‘good’ but ‘her English is... OK’. Her explanation is that it is rooted in Yulia’s natural abilities: ‘She is not the brightest child in the world. I’ll tell you she is kind of average’ (10 February). Importantly, the TA never supports or observes Yulia in mathematics or other subjects, so she gives her judgement as regards English, which the TA admits herself: ‘I mean I haven't seen her in maths’. She adds that Yulia has ‘really made huge progress... orally, definitely’. This reveals the academic expectations for Yulia, which are based on her L2 proficiency. I cross-analyse these findings in 10.2.1 and discuss them in 11.2.1.

5.2.2 Well-being in the L2 school

Another significant learning experience relates to well-being. On 18 October Yulia says that she likes the school because ‘По четвергам мы ходим в другую школу на физкультуру’ – ‘On Thursdays, we go to another school for Physical Education [PE]’, rather than mentioning anything about her own school. The following day Yulia shares that she is unhappy in the school and she feels isolated. Yulia shares with me:

Y: А знаешь, что мне вчера не понравилось?
L: Что?
Y: Do you know what I didn’t like yesterday?
L: What?
Y: Assembly...It seemed that it was a bit boring.
L: What did you do there?
Y: Well we were talking about something, about some things... Well maybe it was interesting, but I didn’t understand it.

On 23 November I ask Yulia to compare the school in Belarus and in England:

Мне, наверное, здесь нравится... потому что... в Беларуси... мне было хорошо, потому что у меня там друзья есть. Есть ...а тут мне нравится, потому что... потому что... потому что тут хорошая еда. А там было: котлеты, каша – то, что я не очень сильно люблю.

I maybe like here [in England] more...because... in Belarus... I felt good because I have friends there [in Belarus]. And here...I like it here because...because...because the food is good here. And there were cutlets, porridge, what I don’t love so much.

By mentioning ‘food’ as something she likes, Yulia again does not express anything related to learning. In our interview on 5 January Yulia reveals her feelings of loneliness, sadness, and fear in the school:

Y: Я была одна. Ни с кем не работала. Была одна только. Я слушала, читала, писала. А что вот это [указывает на упражнение]?
L: Это – ‘Ты слушала учительницу’ [картинка].
Y: …Слушала учительницу.
L: А почему ты выбрала вот эти две?
Y: Ну потому, что мне было вчера ну как-то... страшнова-то.
L: А почему? Можешь сказать?
Y: Ну, потому что я была... одна.... Мне было грустно очень.

Y: I was alone. Didn’t work with anyone. Just was alone. I was listening, reading, writing. And what is this [referring to the elicitation exercise picture]?
L: This is ‘You were listening to the teacher’ [picture].
Y: …Was listening to the teacher.
L: And why did you choose these two?
Y: Well, because it was well like... scary yesterday.
L: Why so? Can you tell me?
Y: Well, because I was on my own...alone...I was very sad.

When Yulia fills in the elicitation technique (7 February), she leaves question marks for every answer (Figure 5.1), pointing out her unhappy mood and solitude (unhappy emoji faces).

![Figure 5.1 Filling-in elicitation technique: 7 February](image)

In contrast with Yulia’s feelings, the EAL TA notes in February that ‘the base of all of this sort of progress everything is that she is happy here. I get an impression that she is actually happy in the school’. As we see later, such contrasting perceptions of learning denote that Yulia’s issues are disguised from, misinterpreted by, and even, potentially, downplayed by staff. The well-being of Yulia is analysed in 10.4.3 and discussed in 11.5.1.3.

5.2.3 Learning support and organisation

A further issue is pertinent to the learning support and organisation in lessons. Support in lessons is an issue Yulia’s mother expresses her disappointment with, as Yulia complains she does not get much help (8 March):

Я слышу от Юли, с точки зрения учителей, я не вижу должного внимания и… Я не понимаю, почему десятилетний маленький ребёнок, который несколько месяцев в стране, должен сам все понимать и пытаться просить своих
одноклассников, чтобы ему объясняли, в то время как учитель занят с сильными учениками, помощник учителя занят с совсем слабыми учениками. А Юлия... она брошена на произвол судьбы, меня это не устраивает категорически.

Yulia tells me, regarding teachers, I don’t see the necessary attention and... I don’t understand why a 10-year-old little child, who has been in a country for a few months only, has to understand everything herself and try to ask classmates, so that they explain, whereas the teacher is busy with the strong pupils, and a TA is busy with the weak pupils. And Yulia is ... just abandoned, I am absolutely dissatisfied about it.

Specifically, her mother points out a lack of support in mathematics. Yulia is really eager to deepen her mathematics, but unable to do so because of the L2 involved in mathematics and the lack of support:

Она действительно отключается, потому что она понимает, что ... не у кого спросить. И не подскажут, не помогут... поэтому она на автомате может мечтать, я не исключаю этого. Потому что она действительно радуется, когда приходит время вам приходить. Она, “Ну вот все наконец-то я математику более сложные задания буду делать”. То есть, она концентрируется.

She really switches off, because she understands that...there is nobody to ask...and no advice, no help... That’s why she can automatically dream, I don’t exclude that. Because she really gets happy, when it’s time for you to come. She says, “Well finally I will do more difficult tasks in mathematics”. In other words, she concentrates.

In terms of learning support for Yulia, the EAL TA notes that it varies as ‘it’s always a balancing of the needs of the child (…) with what we can actually provide in terms of human resources’ (10 February). Yulia was allocated a Russian-speaking friend (a boy from another class) who talks to Yulia in the breakfast club before school. Starting from October Yulia has a few one-to-one tutorials with the EAL TA. Yulia also has group EAL intervention classes during the school hours twice a week, which is formed from a group of recent arrivals, so that ‘they are with children, who have the same needs, so they feel confident’, as the EAL TA says. There is one German and three Swedish pupils apart from Yulia in this class. After half term (six months after her arrival), Yulia is taken out only once a week. Learning support experiences are cross-analysed in 10.2.2 and discussed in 11.2.2.

5.2.4 Differentiated tasks and growing stress

Linked with the above is the peculiarity of the form of support, the differentiated tasks, and associated with these, well-being. When Yulia arrived, she was given differentiated (simplified)
tasks in English lessons. The EAL TA makes this point regarding the differentiated tasks (10 February):

If they [EAL children] are being supported in class, they are doing something which is linked to what the class is doing. (…) The language might be simplified. But we try not to simplify the cognitive challenge, but we try to simplify the language.

She translates some words to Russian using Google Translate when she prepares differentiated tasks for Yulia. However, on 21 October when Yulia wants to glue in the words in Russian alongside English in her English book, the teacher says that ‘it does not need’ to be glued in, as opposed to the English version, inter alia, revealing monolingual ideologies underpinning learning in the L2 school. In the fifth month since Yulia’s arrival (January), she is already given the same reading tasks as other pupils, as opposed to the differentiated tasks. When she is given a task the same as the other children at her table, she sits unresponsively during the whole lesson and does not do anything, or she sits as if everything that is happening does not concern her, and she does not want to answer (6 January). In a lesson on 9 February when Yulia has the same tasks as others she starts drafting a story and gets frustrated, almost raising her voice, nervously shouting, ‘Я должна зачёркиваться все сейчас! Я должна все зачёркнуть!’ – ‘I have to cross it out now! I have to cross it out!’ In an English lesson on 7 March, when Yulia is not given a separate differentiated task, she just sits quietly. She does not take part in a group task, which says that she needs to write a feeling or an action describing a picture. Yulia does not have such a wide vocabulary to be able to write a feeling or action to add to what is already written. She exhibits reluctance to do the task; she just plays with her desk-mate, rolling the rubber from her to her desk-mate, who does not take part in the task either. Slowly, Yulia starts to do what the teacher says. When she makes a mistake, she gets anxious and upset. Yulia rejects any of my suggestions to rectify the situation: to glue over it, just cross it out, or simply to write below. Almost crying she exclaims, ‘Я ничего не могу сделать! Что я теперь буду делать?’ – ‘I can’t do anything! What will I do now?’ Yulia looks anxious and disinterested in further writing: she writes in short sentences and does not try to use the adverbial phrases and fronted adverbials that the children are supposed to practice. Yulia sits with a sad grimace, hands crossed, her face turning red, and she nearly cries. Her desk-mate suggests gluing some paper on it, asking Yulia, ‘Do you want me to go and find some paper?’ And Yulia finally agrees. In another episode, Yulia also behaves in the same way and anxiously rejects doing anything. I decide to ask her about it in the interview afterwards (7 March):

L: Вот скажи, почему ты расстроилась из-за линии?
Y: Просто хотелось, чтобы все было... как бы, чтобы все было... как бы сказать... чтобы все было аккуратно.

L: Tell me why did you get upset because of the line [which she drew incorrectly]?
Y: I just wanted everything to be ... like so that everything be... How to say... so that everything was neat.

Evidently, Yulia is not yet ready for tasks formulated for much higher than her L2 level after only half a year since her arrival. This experience is cross-analysed in 10.2.3 and 10.4.3 and discussed in 11.2.5 and 11.5.1.3.

5.2.5 Spelling tests with unknown words
The weekly spelling tests is another significant issue in Yulia’s case. Initially, in spelling tests, Yulia is given different words than the other children to prepare at home ‘to make sure she knows the basics first’, as the EAL TA explains (19 October). In October Yulia writes all the words correctly, such as ‘belief, early, history, bicycle’. In addition to the words given as homework, pupils in this class have spelling tests with words they were not given beforehand to get familiar with. In one such test in November, Yulia has to write together with other pupils. She writes all the words incorrectly. The words are prejudice, through, lightning, and persuade. In another test on 21 November, Yulia writes according to the way the words sound in speech: ‘oure’ (our), ‘recomend’ (recommend), ‘are’ (are), ‘hendres’ (hindrance), and ‘conveaneas’ (convenience). During the self-correction I notice that Yulia starts to cheat. She corrects ‘e’ in the first word by crossing it out and marks this word as ‘correct’. There is an additional spelling test with the prepared words right after this one and Yulia writes everything correctly. Yulia marks her writing telling me, ‘все правильно’ – ‘everything is correct’. In a similar spelling test (with unknown words) Yulia writes them all incorrectly, except for ‘are’ (25 November). Yulia then corrects some words, adding letters, and counts them as ‘correct’. She then tells me, pointing to one word, which she did not self-correct, ‘вот это слово не правильно’ – ‘this word is not correct’. In a test on 5 January, Yulia writes the word ‘physical’ as ‘fezecal’, ‘sincerely’ – ‘sinsily’, and ‘centre’ – ‘senca’. During marking Yulia gets upset and says, ‘у меня все слова не правильно’ – ‘all my words are incorrect’, turning away. On an 8 December test when the teacher dictates, ‘develop’, Yulia does not write it and leaves a space in her book. Yulia adds one word she has not written, when the teacher asks to self-mark, and marks it as ‘correct’. In one month (8 February), Yulia writes the word ‘dictionary’ correctly but writes ’profession’ as ‘profeshen’, and ‘system’ as
‘sistem’; she does not write ‘exaggerate’ at all. After that, she corrects and ticks the word ‘sistem’ in her book as ‘correct’ (Figure 5.2).

During another test of unknown words on 9 February Yulia writes only two words out of ten. The teacher then asks children to show with their thumbs if they agree with a certain spelling. Trying to imitate others, Yulia shows a ‘thumbs up’ even though she has not written this word at all. The teacher calls on Yulia to spell that word, and she does not know what the word is or how to spell it. And she looks at me and I say what the word was. She repeats it. The teacher asks, ‘Is this the way you spelled it?’ Yulia says something very quietly, so quietly, that teacher asks her a few times, and the teacher cannot hear what she says. Then a boy behind her says, ‘I think she says, “I guess”’. After and during the spelling test Yulia is quiet; she has not written any words correctly except the word ‘suggest’. Later that day, having had a science lesson, the teacher asks children to feedback on their science activity outside, but Yulia does not raise her hand. She just sits quietly. I remind her then that the teacher has said to write some sentences in her book. Yulia attempts to start writing but does not finish. In a second succeeding test, the words for which have been given as a homework, Yulia is determined to write them all correctly by any means: when she makes three mistakes, she peeps in her book and writes the words off from there, obviously trying not to make any mistakes. When marking Yulia covers her book from me, I think, so that I do not see that she marks all the words as correct, even though she has only got six out of 10 correct. Yulia gives herself ‘ten out of ten’. She encircles her mark into a heart shape being so proud of the words and her mark. Her self-marking is the same in March and April with increasing sophistication in her cheating strategy: she first writes the beginnings of the words, then leaves some space, which she then fills in with the correctly spelled words during self-marking. I feel
that the thought of writing something she is completely unfamiliar with is terrifying for her. Because the words given as homework are written perfectly, Yulia clearly tries hard in learning, eagerly wanting to achieve by all means including such ‘enforced’ deception (analysed in 10.4.2, 10.4.3 and discussed in 11.5.1.2). This discloses achievement/success motivations in learning, which I present in the next section.

5.3 Motivations in the L2 school
Here I focus on Yulia’s motivations in the L2 school, including various types and sources of motivation which predominate in Yulia’s learning, starting with approval and success motivation.

5.3.1 Approval and success
In October Yulia tells me that she feels sad because ‘Не знаю... Некоторое не понимаю, могу что-то иногда сделать не правильно’ – ‘I don’t know... Some things I don’t understand. Sometimes I can do something incorrectly’. When I ask her, what she would like to learn in the next lesson, she says, ‘Хочу на арте чтобы у меня получилось’ – ‘I want in art... so that I am able to do well’ (21 November). Yulia says in December, that one of her dreams came true and this was her most memorable experience – she was awarded the Golden Certificate. When I ask what it was awarded to her for, Yulia says laughing, ‘Откуда я знаю?’ – ‘How do I know?’ Although Yulia has been awarded the certificate, the assembly ceremony is on Friday (9 December) and so she has not received it yet. She complains about her sore throat, but when I tell her to let her teacher know if she is unwell, Yulia refuses in case she is taken home by her parents, ‘я должна отучиться, чтобы мне грамоту дали’ – ‘I have to finish learning [this week], so that I am given the certificate’ (8 December). The following day, Yulia comes to school looking even more ill, coughing and sneezing. When she finds out that the assembly has been cancelled, Yulia starts to complain more that she has a sore throat and dizziness; the teacher says that she can do nothing about her sore throat, but she takes her temperature, which is normal and so Yulia is told to keep studying. She comes back to her desk and tells me, that at night she had a high temperature, so I ask her why she came to school and she says, ‘чтобы грамоту получить’ – ‘to receive the certificate’. In contrast, in her mother’s opinion (8 March), marks are not important for Yulia, who looks upon them calmly and with indifference. However, the certificate incident shows the high priority Yulia places on success in the form of awards in her life. I cross-analyse this finding in 10.3.2 and discuss in 11.4.1.

5.3.2 Avoidance in learning
I will now illustrate the episodes of avoidance when it comes to a sensitive topic for Yulia: learning in an English school. In an interview in January, Yulia does not mind talking about anything except for learning-related topics, even asking me about my favourite zodiac sign. I take
Yulia out for two interviews each month and it seems she likes them, comparing them to being in class. She says (6 January),

Y: А нельзя, чтоб было три?
L: Я бы очень хотела, но... нельзя.
Y: Почему?
L: Ну такое соглашение. Такое вот. Так вот получилось.

Y: Is it possible to have three [interviews]?
L: I would really like that, but... no.
Y: Why?
L: Well, because this is the agreement. Like this. It just turned out like this.

This reaction may be rooted in her enjoyment of the interviews, rather than an avoidance of learning. However, while this remains unclear, Yulia evidently avoids answering questions about L2 or learning as in the same interview she climbs under the table after I ask her a question about 'the best thing in learning English'. When I decide to end the interview, she is appalled, ‘Всё? Уже время? Мы же на все вопросы не ответили!’ (Недовольно) – ‘Is this all? Is it time already? We have not answered all of the questions!’ (Indignantly). Not wanting to end the interview, Yulia tells me that she wants to draw. Yulia draws some pets and monsters when I ask her to draw her dreams linked with learning, school or English; she starts to make noises when I remind her of the task’s focus. These signify that Yulia wanted to avoid learning and L2-related questions.

On 6 February Yulia persistently asks me: ‘А когда ты меня заберёшь? Может, заберёшь меня на ридинг [чтение]? Когда ты меня заберёшь?’ – ‘When will you take me out? Maybe, you can take me during reading? When will you take me?’ Another day (7 February), Yulia also suggests that I take her ‘Можете быть, на Grammar?’ – ‘Maybe during Grammar?’, hoping that I could take her out during an English lesson. From her persistence I realise that Yulia tries to avoid being in the English lessons. In the interview that day I ask Yulia about her dreams in school, she says that she does not know. In fact, she replies ‘I don’t know’ to all the questions about learning. One month later (7 March), before lunch Yulia suggests that we could ‘go and talk’ (that’s how she refers to our interviews) instead of attending the English lesson after lunch. In April Yulia is ready to speed up finishing her task: ‘А можно я это сделаю быстренько все и мы пойдём на интервью?’ – ‘Can I do it quickly and we go for an interview?’ She asks me five times that day (21 April). During the interview she starts making neighing noises when I ask about school, thus avoiding talking about L2 lessons and her L2 experiences at the school. Avoidance is cross-analysed in 10.3.1 and discussed in 11.4.3.
5.3.3 Motivation in English as a subject

As is clear, studying L2 is not a positive experience in Yulia’s eyes, which she likes to avoid (23 November):

L: Какая самая-самая твоя любимая вещь в изучении английского? Вот ты думаешь, “Класс! Я изучаю английский!”
Y: Физкультура.
L: (Улыбается) Почему?
Y: Потому, что на физкультуре не надо языка, а показывание!

Y: What is your most favourite thing in learning English? When you think, “Great, I am learning English!”
Y: PE!
L: (Smiles) Why?
Y: Because in PE language is not needed but showing!

Yulia points out later that day that she has a lack of interest in English. She says that she does not like English lessons sometimes, during which she feels bored. Similarly, on 21 November after the debates in class Yulia says:

Y: Иногда мне было весело, иногда мне было скучно... когда групповое большое задание, с учительницей у нас был в пятницу депутаты... Мы в пятницу обсуждали хорошие школы или плохие...
L: Дебаты, да?
Y: Да, дебаты. Мне было скучно, потому что я не могла ни слова сказать. Вот так.

Y: Sometimes I was happy, sometimes I was bored... when there was a big group task, with a teacher we had had deputies... On Friday, we discussed good and bad schools or bad...
L: Do you mean “debates”, yes?
Y: Yes, debates. I was bored because I couldn’t say a word. Here it is.

In November’s interview Yulia also notes that in English lessons, ‘Мне нравится, наверное, больше говорить. Писать... я ...так себе’ – ‘I like maybe to talk more. Writing...I...so-so’. Yulia clarifies that she likes to speak but not to write because, ‘Я ... люблю писать, когда я ЗНАЮ [ударение] то, что писать’ – ‘I... like to write when I KNOW [emphasis] what to write’. She reveals that she starts to daydream – ‘когда мне скучно’ – ‘when I am bored’ – as opposed to listening to the teacher. Often Yulia does not actively participate, sitting quietly with no signs of
understanding or misunderstanding. When the teacher explains how to deliver a speech, even when I translate for her, Yulia is not interested in this task, and she does not listen to my translations. On 5 December Yulia describes her most and least favourite subjects:

*L:* A какой урок любимый?
*Y:* (Резко начинает говорить быстро) Чтение, математика, французский, физкультура!
*L:* А какой самый не любимый урок?
*Y:* Когда я понимаю, что мне надо учить это (вздыхает), но я не люблю. Английский. Английский не люблю!

*L:* What is your favourite subject?
*Y:* (Suddenly starts to speak quickly) Reading, mathematics, French, PE!
*L:* And what is the least favourite?
*Y:* When I understand that I need to learn it (sighs) but I don’t like. English. I don’t like English!

When I point out that reading is also English, she says that she does not like English as a lesson in general, especially writing. Later Yulia states again, ‘Английский не люблю!’ – ‘I don’t like English!’, especially writing. Yulia reiterates that she likes only certain facets: ‘Писать не нравится, но говорить нравится’ – ‘I don’t like writing, but I like speaking’.

During a lesson on 5 January, Yulia frequently goes to sharpen her pencil. When this lesson is almost finished, Yulia has not started writing. In another lesson while the teacher explains a reading task, Yulia listens reluctantly. Having started reading, she fills in the article incorrectly, although the teacher has just explained it, exhibiting misunderstanding. The EAL TA explains the rule about articles to Yulia. While the TA explains, Yulia asks me in Russian, showing a lack of engagement with the TA, if I will come after lunch break, to which I nod. Yulia stops a lot when she is supposed to work, looks around, and the TA has to attract her attention. Yulia takes an opportunity to play or distract herself, e.g. by playing with the headphones; she frequently gets up and goes to chat to her only friend in the classroom (a girl with SEN) (presented in 5.3.5). She says on 7 February, ‘Я ненавижу когда ... надо писать...’ – ‘I hate when … need to write...’, but she enjoys ‘когда мы заканчиваем, может быть, урок’ – ‘when we finish, maybe, the lesson’.

In April Yulia is given a task, but she does not start immediately like her desk-mate does, she just sits with her hand under her chin and stares ahead; a minute later she starts to write. In another lesson, before writing (which is of primary importance in the task) Yulia starts to colour in a flower in her book, choosing pink and yellow. Thus, a lack of understanding in lessons, and boredom and isolation, lead to her avoidance of activities in the L2 lessons and exhibiting low L2
learning motivation overall, particularly in the L2 writing (but not speaking) component. I analyse and discuss L2 motivation in 10.3.3 and 11.4.2, respectively.

5.3.4 Parental impact on motivation
Another expression of motivation in Yulia’s case was parental impact on motivation, exemplified as follows. Yulia says on 6 January that it is important to study well in school ‘Потому, что мама у меня требует!’ (Возбужденно) – ‘Because my mum demands it!’ (Anxiously). While doing a task about angles on 21 April, Yulia shares,

Y: Я боюсь ошибиться.
L: Почему?
Y: Мама будет ругать, если я не правильно напишу.

Y: I am scared of making a mistake.
L: Why?
Y: Mum will scold me if I write incorrectly.

Her mother reveals that Yulia refuses to do her homework at home (8 March). Having a routine at home has improved Yulia’s willingness to do homework; nevertheless, her mother encourages Yulia to start working at home. In order to raise Yulia’s interest in reading, she buys different colourful books. Yulia’s mother asks her to read aloud in English, which makes Yulia upset, as her mother shares. In terms of parental involvement, the EAL TA notes, ‘my feeling is that her mum is very kind of really wants her to do well ...and maybe she makes her do quite a lot at home I imagine, that’s my feeling’ (10 February). She further explains,

I said, “At the beginning if you have time, sometimes I understand you know occasionally, a parent won’t have time to do every single thing. But you know what you CAN [emphasis] do... anything you can do is really helpful”. But she said, “Don’t worry, I will do it”, because, she said, “For me, Yulia is everything”. She said, “What could be more important?” So, it was a lovely thing to say. It tells you a lot that she invests everything. She is the only child as well. So, she invests everything in Yulia, and she expects a lot from Yulia, and I do think (…) there is a bit of a... a mismatch ... between Yulia kind of maybe... yeah, between Yulia’s nature and her [mother’s] nature.

Yulia’s mother is evidently very involved in Yulia’s learning, which is upsetting for Yulia, revealed in her anxiety and fear about mistakes and low achievement (cross-analysed in 10.3.4 and discussed in 11.4.4.3).
Dreams and wishes in learning

Based on Yulia’s drawings of ‘My hopes and dreams’, motivation expressed through Yulia’s dreams and wishes in learning is closely linked with ‘being a good pupil’ and, associated with this, L2 proficiency. Yulia reports a wish to speak and learn English because, she says, ‘так я смогу быстрее понимать учителей’ – ‘this way I will be able to understand teachers quicker’ (18 October). On 23 November Yulia says that in the future she will be, ‘учиться хорошо, играть, буду учиться разговаривать’ – ‘studying well, play, and will be learning to speak’.

Later, during the year (7 December), describing her drawing of her dreams, Yulia says,

Y: Говорить мне хочется!
L: На каком языке?
Y: На английском.
L: Как тебе хочется говорить?
Y: Чтобы меня понимали.
L: Как ты думаешь, ты когда сейчас говоришь, тебя хорошо понимают?
Y: Нет.
L: Почему?
Y: Потому, что я новенькая, и они не могут меня понять, что я хочу выразить (с грустью и тише).

Y: I want to speak!
L: In what language?
Y: In English.
L: How do you want to speak?
Y: So that I am understood.
L: What do you think, when you speak now, are you understood?
Y: No.
L: Why?
Y: Because I am new, and they can’t understand me what I want to express (quieter and sadder).

In addition, in December Yulia dreams about having a house in England, where she would live together with her mother. Yulia ends her drawing with her final wish:

Y: Еще одна мечта, хочу нарисовать!
L: Давай.
L: Это что?
Y: Хочу друзей побольше иметь.

Y: I want to draw one more dream!
L: Go ahead.
Y: (Drawing). Tya-tyu-tya-tyu tya tya yu (humming while drawing).
L: And what is this?
Y: I want to have more friends.

In another interview in January, Yulia’s dream is ‘знать английский язык!’ – ‘to speak the English language!’ and to become a vet. Yulia says, that she imagines, that she speaks English, ‘в мечтах моих только!’ – ‘in my dreams only!’ Later in a classroom activity (10 January), she expresses a dream to become an excellent student and to read ‘Harry Potter’ (Figure 5.3).

![Image of Yulia's resolutions](image)

**Figure 5.3 Yulia’s resolutions**

The following month (6 February), Yulia tells me that she has no dreams which are linked with the English language because, she says, ‘В школе у меня все хорошо’ – ‘Everything is fine in school’. In the sixth month of observations (7 March), however, Yulia says sadly, that her dream is ‘стать хорошей ученицей’ – ‘to become a good pupil’ again. She draws a Soviet-style assessment used in Belarus, ‘5+’, which means ‘A+’ or excellent, and writes ‘Английский’ – ‘English’ (Figure 5.4). She explains, it means, ‘стать хорошей ученицей (с грустью). Ну, английский хочется знать’ – ‘to become a good pupil (sadly). Well, I want to speak English’. In the seventh month of observations (21 April), Yulia reports a wish of eating sweet things,
bringing a pencil case to school, and no other wishes. Yulia’s reported dreams and wishes are fully analysed in 10.3.4 and interpreted in 11.4.4.1.

Figure 5.4 Yulia’s ‘My hopes and dreams’: 7 March

5.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school

The subsequent section presents the findings regarding the overarching theme of social behaviour and relationships, starting with Yulia’s quietness in lessons, which is characteristic of her social behaviour.

5.4.1 Quietness in lessons

In class when Yulia answers in lessons, she speaks very quietly, almost inaudibly, being rather hesitant in her behaviour. In an English lesson in November when the teacher asks pupils to write in their books and to discuss a task with another pupil, Yulia just sits quietly. In the computing lesson on 21 November, Yulia does not understand what to do, and asks me to go to ask the teacher. When I suggest she goes and asks herself, she says that she does not want to go. In January, while children discuss their views and writing, Yulia just sits and looks straight ahead. In a lesson on 6 February, the teacher asks how to remember some words; instead of raising her hand Yulia calls for me and whispers to me, telling me how to remember the words.

In the interviews, on the contrary, Yulia exhibits a considerable freedom of conduct as opposed to the classroom. In January she shouts in the interview when choosing an activity ‘НЕТ [ударение]! Я хочу это!’ – ‘NO [emphasis]! I want this one!’ She freely raises her voice and gasps frantically after I ask her another question, ‘Я не вытягивала!!!’ (Возмущенно кричит) – ‘I didn’t pick it [the question]!’ (Shouts angrily). Yulia even commands in the interviews, ‘Ты
должна смотреть и спрашивать, "Что я рисую?" – ‘You have to look and ask, “What are you drawing?”’, instructing me to look and ask her about her drawing. She makes cuckoo sounds right into the recorder during the interview and initiates playing her games, enthusiastically, ‘Знаешь, знаешь, знаешь, есть такая игра, кто больше… У кого больше число, тот и начинает?’ – ‘Do you know, you know, you know, there is a game, who has more... Whoever has the larger number that one starts?’ This contrast denotes Yulia’s quietness as a social behaviour pertaining to L2 learning in class. I cross-analyse it in 10.4.1 and interpret this in 11.5.1.1.

5.4.2 Learning-related increased sensitivity and stress

Another facet of social behaviour and emotionality in Yulia’s case comprises her accentuated sensitivity and stress linked with learning, which remained covert to teachers. In one episode on 10 February, Yulia’s TA says that Yulia ‘isn’t going to kill herself’ if she does not accomplish a task’. Yulia often ‘does her work. But it’s like she finishes it yeah you she’ll do the job, but she probably doesn’t put the extra into it. For sure’ or ‘she’d kind of do the minimum’. Yulia does not seem upset in lessons for her teachers, rather, appearing passive and carefree. The EAL TA describes Yulia as follows:

She can be very easy going. Sometimes that stops her a bit. Because she is so easy going. She is not really you know... she is not really that bothered if she doesn’t finish something (laughs). She is quite lazy sometimes (laughs).

This contrasts with the numerous instances in the observations, exemplified in anxiety and sadness, when Yulia is not able to accomplish a task, does not have time to finish, or has made a minor mistake. Yulia is increasingly sensitive and stressed about different situations throughout the study. Namely, on 8 December Yulia exaggerates her mistakes and gets upset if there is an error: she notices, that another writing task has been marked and she says that everything is incorrect (Figure 5.5).

![Figure 5.5 Yulia's marked writing 1](image-url)
It surprises me that her writing is marked so meticulously at this stage. The EAL TA tells me that they want Yulia to write everything nicely when she, for example, is given a task to write an argument in November, which is a very intense writing task for her. Having received her marked writing, Yulia is stressed because so much of her writing is incorrect. On 6 January when Yulia sees a lot of tasks on the board, she is upset again and says, ‘Я не смогу столько написать!!!! Я не смогу! Это столько написать надо’ – ‘I won’t be able to write so much!!!! I won’t be able to! This is so much to write’. When Yulia makes a mistake in February she puts her head in her hands, being upset, ‘Ой! Черт!’ – ‘Oh! Hell!’ Importantly, every single word or punctuation mark is corrected or marked by teachers, and, although Yulia keeps writing some words by herself, trying to finish her story, she does not look enthusiastic or calm (9 February). Having finished writing her horror story, Yulia gets upset and agitated about some seemingly minor things such as when she has no space to write: ‘У меня нет места писать!’ – ‘I don’t have any more space to write!’ The teacher then corrects Yulia’s mistakes, but all the children are going to have a break. Yulia tries to avoid having her work marked, saying to the EAL TA who is marking her writing, ‘Miss, children went to the break’. The teacher keeps marking (Figure 5.6), saying,

Figure 5.6 Yulia’s marked writing 2

‘Jessica m-m-m going school... What should you put here?’ Yulia does not know about the past continuous tense rules as she has only finished learning the past indefinite tense.

In one lesson on 7 March, Yulia gets frustrated again:

Y: Я не успела дописать! Теперь я не могу идти на перемену.
L: Ну, потом допишешь. А почему ты не успела написать?
Y: Не поняла, что нужно писать, а когда начала писать, то уже урок закончился.
L: Ну это не твоя вина, не расстраивайся!
Y: I didn’t have time to finish! I can’t go for a break.
L: Well, you can write later. Why didn’t you have time to finish?
Y: I didn’t understand what I needed to write, and when I started, the lesson was over.
L: Well, it’s not your fault, don’t get upset!

As if it is a tragedy, Yulia sits quietly with a sad slightly red face without responding to the teacher’s requests to do something. Later, Yulia says anxiously again, ‘Мне нужно заново переделывать, что теперь делать? Я теперь не пойду на перемену, и я теперь не познакомлюсь с [новенькой] девочкой’ – ‘I need to do it all over again, what can I do now? I won’t go for my break, and I won’t meet the [newly arrived] girl now’.

Yulia wanted to meet this girl as she hoped they could become friends, but if she was late, then other girls would have become friends with her, as she explains. When the break time starts, Yulia, just as she expected, must stay in class as a punishment in order to finish off her task (8 March).

In a lesson with a supply teacher on 25 April, the class is overly energetic. Children have only one eraser for the table, so Yulia gets up and asks a boy to give her the eraser, but he refuses. The supply teacher who is unaware that Yulia might misunderstand some instructions shouts at Yulia, ‘Nobody gets up off your seats!’ Yulia goes back, sits down, and stops working, almost crying. I say, ‘What did you say to him? What did he say to you? [In English] Ты сказала “пожалуйста”?’ – ‘Did you say, “please”?’

Yulia says, ‘Да, я сказала: “Дай, пожалуйста, тёрку”’ – ‘Yes, I said, “Give me the eraser, please”’. In this whole lesson, Yulia has done only two tasks. Yulia is clearly sensitive and stressed about the overly meticulous marking policies and happens to be even more upset by punishments for misunderstanding instructions. This school’s policy on assessment is cross-analysed in 10.2.1 and discussed in 11.2.3.

5.4.3 Fear of public use of L2

In association with Yulia’s stress and sensitivity, she also expresses fear in L2 learning. In an episode on 25 October, the teacher asks pupils to read their argument to the audience, imagining that they are a president and Yulia tells me,

Y: Я не буду поднимать руку. Я боюсь.
L: Почему?
Y: Не знаю, как-то неудобно, мне думается, что надо мной будут смеяться.
L: Почему?
Y: Не знаю.

Y: I won’t raise my hand. I am scared.
L: Why?
Y: I don’t know, I don’t feel comfortable. I think everyone will laugh at me.
L: Why?
Y: I don’t know.

Presenting a written argument in front of a group on 25 November, Yulia is clearly intimidated. Yulia hides her face behind her book and pupils, and I can see her eyes only. The teacher comes up: ‘Yulia, don’t be silly, come on’. Yulia then starts reading very quietly and stands further away and then the teacher says that she will read it with Yulia. Yulia still reads very quietly. All children at her desk applaud Yulia for her attempt when Yulia was so shy and forced into reading. I ask Yulia afterward,

L: А ты в Беларуси тоже не хотела выступать?
Y: Я хотела. Просто здесь я языка не знаю так хорошо, и я боюсь что-то не так прочитать.

L: When in Belarus, you also didn’t want to present or perform?
Y: No, I wanted. It’s just here I don’t know the language so well, and I am afraid to read something incorrectly.

As is clear, Yulia reports that this behaviour is caused by migration and immersion in the L2 school. I cross-analyse this finding in 10.4.3 and discuss in 11.5.1.3.

5.4.4 Communication and solitude issues

While exhibiting worrying but covert (as seen from 5.2.2 and 5.4.2) well-being issues, Yulia reveals on 23 November her solitude and communication issues in class when I ask her how she is: ‘У меня средненько всё. Я мало с кем общаясь... и только в школе с [подруга из Германии] общаясь и с учителями’ – ‘Everything is so-so, average. I communicate with very few people; only communicate with [her friend from Germany] in school and with the teachers’. Paradoxically, Yulia is rather communicative and even chatty with me, but in class, Yulia says, that she works on her own most of the time:

L: Ты чаще работаешь в группе с детками или sama?
Y: Я чаще работаю сама.

L: Do you work more in a group of children or by yourself?
Y: I work more by myself.
On 5 December Yulia says, ‘У меня мало друзей’ – ‘I have very few friends’. During class observations in December, when the teacher says to discuss with a partner, a girl to Yulia’s left turns away from her to chat to somebody else, and a boy to her right turns away too. Yulia sits on her own and she tells me, ‘Ни кто со мной не говорит.’ – ‘Nobody talks to me’, and she turns away from me. During my observations Yulia infrequently exchanges a few words with other pupils (as seen from 5.2.4). In February the EAL TA notes that Yulia does not communicate much with her classmates. However, when the teacher asks the pupils to work with his/her partner, a boy next to Yulia leaves his seat to work with somebody else, so Yulia is left on her own. Outside of class, Yulia reports having a few friends she plays with in the breakfast and afterschool clubs (in January and February). In the eighth month since her arrival (April), she does not chat with anyone and sits further away from the others during music activities.

The TA regards Yulia’s solitude to be rooted in the fact that ‘she is very self-contained’ and ‘she doesn’t sort of share so much say... on her table or... I know it’s difficult with the language. Right (...) Also, I think it’s to do with her character that she likes just to do her own work’ (10 February). The TA reiterates that Yulia is always self-contained, like you know like she is just working on... She doesn’t bother with... so much with the others or needs or even needs to sort of feel (...) doesn’t seem to be a loss for her, she is quite happy to be just doing working on her own.

In observations, Yulia expresses a need for support, rather than appearing self-contained. On one occasion on 25 November, Yulia sees me and asks, ‘А ты пойдешь на computing?’ – ‘Will you go to computing?’ When I confirm she exclaims, ‘Ураaaa!’ – ‘Yaaaaay!’ During an EAL intervention lesson on 8 February, Yulia also looks for support. To my and the teacher’s surprise, Yulia gets up in the middle of the lesson and comes to me (I am at the back of the classroom) and just stands next to me. I ask her, ‘Что случилось?’ – ‘What happened?’ Yulia says, ‘Просто хочу постоять’ – ‘Just want to stand’. In March she begs me not to leave and to accompany her on the school trip, to which I agree. Thus, Yulia’s solitude and isolation has been regarded as Yulia’s natural character and thus overlooked.

5.4.5 A new friend

Yulia’s communication with peers in class begins to change in December when I find out that Yulia has one new friend, a girl with SEN, Sophie. Moreover, this friendship is strikingly unusual as seen in the following episode:

Sophie screams loudly, and then her TA takes her to Yulia and says, “Look at Yulia”. Yulia gets up and asks Sophie, “You are a big girl? Are you a big girl?” And she calms down and looks at Yulia.
When Yulia has a free minute, she goes to her and tries on the crown which she has made. In April, her friend walks around class, and she picks a card, gives it to Yulia. She knows Yulia’s name, but she communicates only non-verbally. Yulia goes to put her electronic tablet back and she stops at Sophie’s desk. She chats to Sophie and looks at her drawings; no other children ever do this. Yulia does not talk to anyone except for Sophie (with very few exceptions as seen from 5.2.4). EAL TA comments (10 February),

Her real side came out, when she really looks, she runs over and she comes to say, she gave her hoop to Sophie, she said, “Oh, Sophie likes playing with two hoops so I will give my hoop to Sophie”, is very sweet.

While drawing (Figure 5.7) Yulia asks me (January 5):

Y: Спроси, ‘Кто это?’
L: Кто это?
Y: Это Софи (рисует).
L: Я забыла, кто это.
Y: А это девочка, которая с проблемами у нами.
L: А! Ты с ней дружишь?
Y: Да, дружи. У меня нету друзей, как бы, кроме неё (с грустью).
Y: Ask, “Who is this?”
L: Who is this?
Y: This is Sophie (drawing).
L: I forgot who this is.
Y: This is our girl, who is with problems.
L: Ah, yes. Are you friends with her?
Y: Yes, I am. I don’t have any more friends except for her (sadly).

She further relates how she communicates with Sophie and her TA:

L: То есть, ты с ней тоже общаешься, да?
Y: Да, я очень часто общаюсь, когда мы, я общалась с ними, когда... когда или на перемене, например...

Y: This is Miss R [Sophie’s TA]. She is the one, who helps Sophie. Mister M. [Sophie’s former TA] went downstairs, that’s why she works with... works now with Year 2. Here it is (keeps drawing).
L: So, you communicate with her as well, yes?
Y: Yes, I communicate with her very often, when we, I communicate with them, when ... when or during the break time, for example...

While including her Russian-speaking friend from the breakfast club, Yulia does not draw her German friend from EAL lessons anymore because, she explains wistfully, ‘она со мной не играет’ – ‘she doesn’t play with me’. While general communication (isolation, solitude) remains an issue in Yulia’s school life, friendship with Sophie does comfort and cheer up both girls. Yulia’s friendship patterns are cross-analysed in 10.4.4 and discussed in 11.5.2.1.

5.4.6 A new foe: bullying
Another facet of Yulia’s social relationships encompasses instances of bullying. In one of the interviews (Figure 5.8), Yulia includes a new person called the ‘Враг’ – ‘Enemy’ outside of the circles, revealing that ‘Девочка есть одна, которая меня не любит’ – ‘There is a girl who doesn’t like me’. The girl tells Yulia that she is ‘намного лучше’ – ‘much better’ at climbing than Yulia, to which Yulia says, ‘Ну хорошо... мне совсем не интересно это, как ты лазишь!’ – ‘Well, fine... I am not interested in how you climb!’ Another time, this girl barks at her, as Yulia reveals in December. Later, on 10 February, Yulia gets upset before going to the art lesson: ‘Я не
хочу идти на арт. Я люблю рисовать, но я не хочу из-за К...’ – ‘I don’t want to go to art. I love to draw, but I don’t want because of K...’ (the Yulia is afraid of). She asks me, ‘Ты пойдёшь сегодня со мной на арт пожалуйста? Там эта девочка, которая меня обижает. К. Уже два раза это было’ – ‘Will you go to art with me please? That girl is there, who offends me. K. It happened two times already’. In art Yulia is grumpy; she sits looking down: ‘Я просто не хочу при этой девочке говорить’ – ‘I just don’t want to talk in front of this girl’. So, Yulia just sits and stares in front of her, instead of doing a task (drawing). I analyse this in 10.4.4 and discuss in 11.5.2.2.

Figure 5.8 Concentric circles-based interview: 6 February

5.5 Case summary

The summary of findings in Yulia’s case are as follows:

- Learning in L2 school was not a happy experience for Yulia. L2 immersion caused well-being issues (the feelings of isolation, fear, and sadness) and required L2 proficiency for achievement.

- A lack of learning support characterised learning issues in Yulia’s case. Differentiated (simplified) tasks seemed an effective support strategy for Yulia, but their premature discontinuation generated her anxiety. Tasks that were overly challenging for Yulia’s L2 level (spelling tests with unknown words) made her feel inferior/she was a low achiever.
Revealing strong achievement/success motivation, Yulia started to cheat in these tests to get higher marks.

- As a result of feeling confused and isolated in lessons, Yulia expressed a lack of L2 motivation, particularly for writing but not for speaking. Avoidance of L2 experiences was identified.

- As a result of immersion, Yulia expressed quietness in learning and a fear of the public use of L2. Sensitivity and stress were associated with the marking policy of the school.

- Yulia experienced intense, and thus at times stressful, involvement of her mother in her learning.

- In learning Yulia reported dreams and wishes for L2 proficiency, friendships, and ‘studying well’.

- Explained by the EAL TA as derived from Yulia’s natural character, Yulia’s social relationships were characterised by feeling isolated, except for emerging friendships with a girl with SEN in her class. Bullying was identified in Yulia’s experience of school.
Chapter 6  Rita

6.1 Introduction

This is the second embedded case in this thesis: in this instance, of Rita. Table 6.1 shows Rita’s background information. This case is different from the previous study in that Rita has been in England for over a year at the start of the research. Her learning context is different to that experienced by Yulia and other subsequent cases, as she is allowed to use her L1 in learning, including in her L2 books. When I come in to observe, Rita sits in different parts of the classroom in different lessons, as arranged by her class teacher, who changes the seating arrangements regularly. Rita’s working space includes her pencil case, a reading diary that she regularly fills in but no Russian-English or any other type of dictionary. There are thesauri in the classroom for all the children to use. In observations I sit next to or slightly behind Rita, and I am allowed to chat with her in L1. Rita says that she learned English for two years in her L1 school in Russia.

Table 6.1 Rita’s background information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Russia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at the start of the data collection/Year of birth</td>
<td>11 years old/August 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 Year</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in the UK at the start of the data collection</td>
<td>1 year and 2 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Construction engineer and a second degree in Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling in a Russian-speaking school, location</td>
<td>Yes, three years, Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous exposure to English</td>
<td>Minimal, ‘Beginner’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL provision/specialist in the L2 school</td>
<td>No, intervention classes are conducted by the SEN specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s Curriculum</td>
<td>International Primary Curriculum (IPC)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in Yulia’s case, the data for Rita are presented thematically aligned by three overarching themes (as I explained in 4.9.4): Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school, within which findings unique to each case are introduced.
6.2 Experiences in the L2 School

6.2.1 Initial immersion and progress in the L2 school
Rita describes her overall learning experience at the start of the data collection (12 October) as ‘good’ and ‘so-so’. This has been fuelled by Rita’s initial immersion experience in the L2 school being filled with feelings of anxiety and fear (12 October):

L: Как ты сюда приехала, какое твоё первое впечатление?
R: Очень было страшно.

L: When you arrived at this school what was your first impression?
R: It was really scary.

Rita reports that the teacher neither talked to her much nor gave her opportunities to speak in her first year. Upon arrival, as told by her classmates, they had to use body language for communication. In association with this, Rita noted that in her first year she was mostly silent; she did not volunteer answers in mathematics when she knew them. According to Rita, she had ‘большие проблемы’ – ‘big problems’ with her English when she entered an English school and ‘Английский сложный’ – ‘English is difficult’ (12 October). She reiterates the latter throughout the year – in January, February, and May. She says that she does not like difficult tasks in English but only in mathematics and French (19 January). As explained by Rita, in contrast with mathematics, where one ‘can think’ how to solve a task, ‘В английском не получается! Потому, что я просто не понимаю!’ – ‘In English it is not possible! Because I simply don’t understand’ (22 February).

According to Rita’s teacher in her second year (at the time of data collection), Rita has no issues and is ‘having a good experience’ in school. In our interview on 16 November, he tells me about Rita’s progress that her ‘attainment and progress is both very high’. He adds that Rita’s progress now is not dependent on her L2 migrant status: ‘she is making the same lot of progress now, as probably have made in a school with her home language’ (16 November). The teacher states that Rita’s strongest area is mathematics, and reading is the weakest. Then the teacher shows me Rita’s online formal test results, adding, ‘But bizarrely, actually, this term she’s made most progress in reading’. Rita’s teacher does not explicitly link L2 migration with Rita’s progress, seeing her as a high achieving and progressing pupil. I analyse it in comparison with other cases in 10.2.1 and discuss in 11.2.1.

6.2.2 Learning support and organisation: support with L2
In terms of learning support, in her first year in England, Rita had an L2 tutor. For some time in school Rita was seated next to a Russian-speaking boy who is a fluent speaker of English. Later,
the help in class that Rita received was also from another migrant pupil from Mongolia who became her friend. What really helped Rita, as she reports, was that teachers gave her an electronic tablet and allowed her to use Google Translate in all of the lessons during the whole first year in school and she was allowed to translate into Russian at all times. The class TA also used Google Translate to translate Rita’s works from Russian into English into her book – the way they do with other migrant children in this class. The teacher’s explanation of this support, as he says, is trying to find the ‘EASIEST [emphasis] way to get them to learn English the quickest’. The teacher reveals that he feels disoriented when new migrant children arrive at the school, since there are no official, nationally developed and recognised recommendations for new migrant children in England and ‘each individual teacher is doing their own thing’ (16 November). The teacher expresses the need for a streamlined, nationally approved plan of action in work with migrant L2-immersed learners, such as the DfE strategy on EAL: ‘What do you do when the child does arrive? What do the government think we should be doing?’ Adding, essentially, that

We [teachers] don’t really get taught how to teach English as another language, we don’t really get taught how to deal with someone... Strategies… probably enough to be able to be really WELL [emphasis] teach someone who has English as a different language. So, it is really tricky... I don’t think that teachers possibly have skills. So, I think some kind of, whether influence the teachers training, or influence the SENCOs, or I don’t know. There is some kind of training that’s missing.

The outcome, as the teacher explains, is that teachers and schools in England develop their own isolated, often intuitive and spontaneous strategies. ‘Every school is different’ – this is the way, in the teacher’s words, that the school’s organisation can be outlined, whether referring to the migrant L2-immersed learners or to progress record systems, ability groupings, and curriculum. The learning support is analysed in 10.2.2 and discussed in 11.2.2.

6.2.3 Using L1 in learning
One of the ‘isolated’ strategies employed by Rita’s teacher is that pupils, including Rita, are allowed to use their L1 in learning, which shows the teacher’s understanding of writing as being of primary importance for children:

L: You let children use their own language, yes?
T: Yes.
L: Is this a school “thing”?
T: It’s my thing. It’s just easier. I think in Year 6. The amount of writing we do, sometimes it’s just easier for them to write in their own language.
In the observations, I feel that pupils are allowed to use their L1s not only in order to comprehend English, but in its own right, with its own value, such as seen in this free topic assignment written in Russian (Figure 6.1), although it is not an everyday or even a weekly practice.

![Figure 6.1 Rita’s L1 writing in L2 book: 11 January](image)

Surprisingly, the teacher explains the reasons behind the use of L1 in the classroom are the pressing demands of the teacher’s work in Year 6:

For me, at the end of the year I know that I’ve got to present... six or seven pieces of work that are perfect, to the government, for every child. So, the aim of that for me is to get them to use amazing language that he [newly arrived boy] knows in his own language that I can translate into English fairly accurately. (…) Until his language [L2] develops better.

In her second year, Rita does not use an electronic tablet anymore, as it was left up to her to choose when to stop using it. At this time, Rita no longer has an L2 tutor. Although Rita is still allowed to use her L1, it is done for the purpose of L2 development (analysed in 10.2.3 and discussed in 11.2.4).

### 6.2.4 L2 learning. Literacy and speaking

Rita admits in our first interview on 12 October that her second year in L2 school is ‘лучше, потому что английский лучше’ – ‘better because my English is better’, which positions English as the main hindrance for her in learning. Rita herself indicates that her English is not ‘самый
плохой’ – ‘the worst’ in class, comparing it with a newly arrived boy, a Hebrew speaker, and would even score herself six out of ten in success level (8 November). According to the class teacher, Rita ‘picked up English incredibly quick’. Rita also shows an understanding of her own dramatic improvement in English since her arrival (19 January). Generally, the teacher comments on Rita’s L2 experience as follows (16 November).

The... kind of... nuances of the language are not quite right. But it is very, very close to be really good. I would say that she is very much academically on the same, almost the same level, as my more, kind of, middle to higher ability children. So, I’d say that she is getting a fairly rounded learning experience in that respect.

At the same time, the teacher admits that the L2 can be an impediment for her at different times in learning; nevertheless, ‘whoever is with her, can fix it quick enough for it not to be a barrier’.

In terms of progress and achievement in L2 the teacher says that Rita’s writing is ‘AT Year 6 standard’, but her ‘reading is the lowest’ and ‘probably slightly below the Year 6 standard’; in her listening, she is described as ‘exceeding Year 6’. Importantly, the teacher explains, they do not evaluate oracy, as such, since it is considered to be embedded into literacy. Attainment and progress marks are given only for literacy. Correspondingly, in the mock SATs, Rita has passed all of her tests except for English reading, in which she was 10 percent below the pass mark.

At the end of November, Rita reports an improvement in her reading, and she is able to select more advanced books to read. In terms of speaking, Rita admits being able to converse, but not on unfamiliar, unprompted topics. Rita notes that her language comprehension is sufficient for her to learn in class. In her spelling, Rita misses the letters in some words in writing tasks, for example: she writes ‘sining’ (singing) and ‘claping’ (clapping) or makes grammatical errors such as ‘She didn’t liked children’ and ‘more better’. However, all of the homework spelling words are prepared excellently, and her teacher reports that Rita ‘never missed’ doing her homework.

The challenge for Rita, in her opinion, is writing (19 January). Rita says that her English learning is ‘so-so’ because her vocabulary is relatively limited (November, January). Purposive writing assignments, which as Rita reports predominate the L2 lessons, are challenging for her, ‘Если сочинение на какую-то отведённую тему, то, мне кажется, я не смогу. Если сочинение, допустим, “Где ты провёл своё лето?” Я смогу написать’ – ‘If it’s a writing [task] on a certain topic then I think I won’t be able to do it. If it’s, presumably, a composition “How did you spend you summer?” I will be able to write it’ (12 October). It is difficult for Rita to follow the instructions for writing, such as ‘to use more powerful adjectives’, since she struggles to use even simple adjectives, whereas the class teacher constantly tries to challenge Rita, asking her to include a more in-depth vocabulary (15 May). Although Rita’s L2 level has improved, the
emotions associated with learning it remain. As seen in observations throughout the study, Rita gets stressed and scared in English lessons when she has to complete writing assignments and procrastinates with the tasks; she bites her nails and fidgets on her seat, and keeps repeating that she does not know what to write. (I analyse and discuss the LL experiences in 10.2.3 and 11.2.5, respectively.) Thus, Rita is a high achieving pupil despite her being in the UK for only about a year. While having issues with L2 writing, she progresses in L2 reading quickly, with mathematics being her strongest subject (as seen from 6.2.1), which I detail further.

6.2.5 Learning in mathematics

Rita points out her liking of mathematics, which seems easy, as opposed to English, which is ‘сложный’ – ‘difficult’. She repeats this from October through May. Rita’s teacher admits that Rita ‘is a very confident mathematician’. When I ask Rita to tell me about the most prominent and memorable experience, she tells me about the mathematics test result. She mentions this for the third time to me that day (19 January):

L: Что случилось такого особенного на прошлой неделе? Что тебе запомнилось в школе?
R: Я тест на 37, вроде бы, сдала!

L: Is there anything special that happened last week? What do you remember in school?
R: Scored 37 in a test [out of 40]!

Just as in England, Rita has been proud of her mathematics achievements before migration: her photograph was put up in the ‘Gallery of Excellence’ in the L1 school she attended in Russia. Arrival to the L2 country meant Rita ‘stopped’ being the highest achiever in mathematics in her new school; however, she still makes good progress as seen from her test results. The issues in mathematics relate to word problems, which Rita sees as a ‘shortcoming’ of mathematics. As Rita reports, it is due to her L2 level that word problems in mathematics are the most challenging. In addition, Rita notes that the attainment in mathematics is ‘assumed to be low’, equalling the L2 level, as this assumption was made about her and other new migrant children, which appears troubling for Rita (9 November):

А ещё, почему-то все думают, что у кого английский не родной, то все думают, что у них плохо с математикой также. Когда я приехала в прошлом году, все думали, что я меня плохая математика, но я почти лучше всех была. Учительница также думала, что математика плохо у меня.
And also, I don’t know why everyone thinks that those who are not native English speakers, have problems with mathematics also. When I arrived last year, everyone thought I was bad at maths, but I was almost the best. The teacher also thought that I had problems with maths.

Despite this generalised view of achievement based on L2 proficiency (discussed in 11.2.1), and Rita’s inability to show her potential in full due to word problems in mathematics lessons, during the interviews in November and in February Rita says she knows a lot of what is being taught in mathematics, and she expresses a wish to ‘learn something new’ in the following lesson. Rita feels that she is not challenged analytically and intellectually enough for her level in mathematics as she says, ‘Мне не понравилось, что не надо было думать’ – ‘I didn’t like… that I didn’t need to think’ (7 November). When the class teacher and the pupils still work on the simple exercises, she quietly tells me smiling, ‘[I] can move on to the next exercise’ (12 October), or ‘This is elementary!’ (11 January), meaning that the tasks on the board are too simple for her and she decides to move on by herself. (I discuss this in 11.2.5.)

Rita looks calm, determined but quiet in mathematics. Just as in other lessons, neither does she volunteer as much as other pupils, nor express overt emotions a lot – with the exception of failing her mathematics test once, when she bursts into tears. This unprecedented anxious reaction to the test results, which was ‘a bit of a curveball’, surprises the teacher (16 November):

L: Did you ever have concerns about well-being or anything you noticed about Rita?
T: No-o-o, not at all. She cried last week, because we did our arithmetic test. And very bizarrely Rita started by (…) she started the year by getting very high marks. And it has gone down, which is really bizarre.

The teacher gives more details:

T: So, she started with 94 percent, then 90, then 88, then 83, then 60.
L: Yes, she told me about it, she was very upset, she kept repeating...
T: She was REALLY [emphasis] upset...
L: “I’ve failed the test, I’ve failed the test”.
T: She... I don’t know why she thinks that, coz we never say that message.

As seen in this abstract, the perception of failure is Rita’s own impression since the teacher always announces the results without giving an evaluative judgement. The following day (17 November), Rita looks stressed and keeps repeating, ‘Я завалила тест. Завалила’ – ‘I failed the test. I failed’, and explains it resulted from the time constraints on solving the problems. That day Rita looks absent-minded and makes a few errors in her mathematics. While showing Rita’s strong need for
achievement (exemplified in the next section), her reaction also discloses the peculiarity of test results the meaning of which is not explained to children. This is touched upon in 11.2.3 section of the Discussion chapter.

6.3 Motivations in the L2 school

6.3.1 Interests and feelings about school and learning

Rita reports she likes both schools equally – her previous school in Russia and her new L2 school in England. She generally appreciates the fact that ‘интересно’ – ‘it’s interesting’ and ‘весело’ – ‘fun’ to study in the L2 school. What she particularly likes in England is that ‘оценок нет’ – ‘there are no [daily] marks’ (apart from test results) (16 November). Moreover, Rita loves the weekly half-hour of free time in the L2 school during which the children are allowed to choose their own activities or games. The L2 school for Rita is a ‘намного лучше, чем дом’ – ‘much better place than home’ because she is made to study her L1 and mathematics in Russian at home after school. This shows parental involvement in Rita’s learning (which I discuss in 11.4.4.3). But most importantly, Rita says that she likes her L2 school because there is not much homework, as compared with the previous L1 school, where she had to do ‘каждый день по две страницы и еще час писать!’ – ‘two pages every day and one more hour of writing!’ (19 January). Her father admits that Rita enjoys the school – ‘конечно, ей кажется это легко’ – ‘of course, it seems easy for her’ – and the experience of being in an L2 school is ‘going great’ for her (16 November). She even prefers the English school to a Russian one, according to her mother (19 May).

Repeatedly, in October, November, and February, Rita says that mathematics and science are her favourite subjects. The teacher believes that mathematics is Rita’s favourite subject ‘because she can access it most’ since it is ‘universally the same’. Rita demonstrates salient motivation in mathematics from January through March. She remembers and likes to report what she learns in lessons, saying how interesting it is for her (November). In a mathematics lesson on 21 March Rita tells me excitedly, ‘Ура! Какую-то фигню делаем!’ – ‘Yay! We are doing some rubbish!’, pointing out the easiness of the task.

Motivation for Rita in what she considers easy tasks is supported by her mother in our interview on 19 May. In May when I ask Rita about her favourite part of the lesson or activities, she replies, ‘Steel pans’ [drum play], which is not a lesson but an extracurricular club. After specifying this, I ask Rita about the main part of the day, regarding lessons, and she says that she likes ‘The Production Practice’, which is their rehearsal for a performance at the end of the year. Neither of these are academic nor lesson-related activities. Thus, Rita generally enjoys her school, and she reports high motivation for non-academic activities and for mathematics. (I analyse this in 10.3.3 and discuss in 11.4.2.)
6.3.2 Participation in learning

In observations, Rita exhibits numerous, consistent instances of a lack of participation in learning throughout the study. When pupils discuss communication, Rita seems to listen but plays with her pencil case (in October), or while chatting with her best friend in November, she shows how low her interest in learning is. Repeatedly, in November as well as in May, Rita does not say a word in the whole lesson. On 17 November when a class teacher gives instructions, Rita is distracted and chats to me. In different lessons in the same month while children discuss a topic, Rita does not listen to the discussion. In different days in November she plays with her glove, shows me her fingers and says that they are a bit purple, looks at me while the teacher is reading a story, plays with her nails, and draws on them. Rita reveals to me how she secretly plays with a boy opposite to her in what she calls the ‘staring’ game during the lessons, which adults do not notice in the classroom. In December and February Rita chooses not to participate in discussions; even when the teacher says, ‘talk to a person next to you’, Rita is silent. In January when Rita has accomplished a task, she does not express any wish to share it; when other children do, she tells me about the task, and tells me the answers. Often Rita bites her nails, draws her first name and her last name with a pencil on her desk while the other children answer some questions. The teacher, when Rita does raise her hand also notices her lack of engagement, saying to her, ‘good to see that hand up’, on 31 January. She procrastinates at the beginning of a task: it takes her 10 minutes to prepare to start working. While her partner has already solved a few number sentences in mathematics, Rita speaks loudly in Russian and works very slowly (19 January). Having started working, Rita stops and decides to cut something out and glue it instead of working on the task. While some pupils take on additional tasks, Rita does not finish the first one. Although she has time to finish, she tells me, ‘это не нужно делать’ – ‘it is not necessary to do this’, and she does not finish the tasks. As is evident in the observations, Rita is not entirely captivated by the learning topics or what pupils are doing. At the end of January (30), she pays attention to things which are not relevant to learning. Rita plays with her friend, trying to grab a pen from her, looking through her book while the teacher explains the project. Her friend has written a whole page; Rita has only written one line. In February she plays with glue, while pupils are repeating after the teacher. Later on, on 24 February, while the teacher explains the learning material, Rita turns to me and says, ‘24 dictionaries’. When I am perplexed about the reasons for saying this, Rita points out a bookcase, which has different dictionaries, and I begin to realise, she has been counting while the class teacher explained the material. In philosophy lessons, I have seen Rita say only one word at most during the whole period of data collection. Rita explains that she does not like philosophy, because it is ‘какой-то непонятный мне предмет’ – ‘a kind of unclear subject for me’. In music lessons, Rita opens her mouth when children are singing but is not looking at the board; she plays...
with her leggings, looks at her sneakers, tears off bits of fabric, or just chats to a girl next to her, looks at her nails and plays with her hand-held fan, after the teacher has instructed them to work (23 March). Overall, although she enjoys her school in general, Rita exhibits a lack of participation in learning throughout the study. (I cross-analyse this finding in 10.3.1 and discuss in 11.4.1.)

6.3.3 Motivation for joy and communication rather than learning

Although Rita seems to be a rather diligent pupil, according to her teacher, she likes the ‘joyful’ part of the school day, as her mother explains (19 May). In October Rita reports she enjoys the days when the work in school is easy, and there is only one day when she would prefer to stay at home – a day when she has no afterschool clubs or PE. Rita demonstrates high levels of interest in working on a project, when it is linked with communication with her friend (26 January). She also expresses an interest in learning African Drumming, which is an additional musical club that her parents pay for, and she attends during lessons. This is surprising: firstly, because she is taken out during the lessons; and secondly, it shows that she is interested in non-academic extracurricular learning (20 February):

L: Что ты на следующем уроке хотела бы выучить?
R: Ну на следующем уроке... как бы, вроде, следующий урок Африкан Драмминг.... новый ритм.

L: What would you like to learn in the next lesson?
R: Well, in the next lesson... Well, like, the next lesson is African Drumming... new rhythm.

Another time, on 24 March, while laughing with her friend, Rita misses the instructions, and has to ask her neighbour what to do. The girls pinch each other, and they try to steal each other’s pencils again and again, while they are supposed to be on task. Thus, during the 23-minute task, Rita has only written a few words, and she is not focused on the task. Rita pays attention to the jokes of her classmates, and often smiles, when the teacher explains something, obviously not listening to the teacher in the first place, but reacting to other children, prioritising her classmates’ interactions (28 March). While in observations Rita shows motivation for joy and prioritises communication, this does not seem to impact on her learning results, as in our interview the teacher posits that Rita ‘does definitely demonstrate that she’s engaged in learning’, which, the teacher believes, is a ‘strength’ of Rita’s. This is analysed in comparison with other cases in 10.3.2 and discussed in 11.4.1.
6.3.4 Motivation for marks and praise

Another salient motivation in Rita’s learning is a motivation for marks and praise. To her father, as he says, Rita presents herself as a ‘расслабленный’ – ‘relaxed’, ‘not bothered about marks’ pupil (16 November) who does not want to explicitly show her achievements. Rita’s mother (19 May) says that Rita is motivated by success and praise in school and her motivation is to ‘лучше учиться, узнавать новое, сдавать экзамены лучше’ – ‘study better, learn new things, get better exam results’. Rita expresses a motivation for praise after a successful completion of some tests (12 October):

L: Тебе важно, чтобы тебя хвалили?
R: Ну... наверное... иногда, да.
L: Когда именно?
R: Ну, может быть, когда спеллинг тест на 10 [из 10] сделала, или там тест на, вот, ну, 30 правильно ответов.

L: Is it important for you to get praised?
R: Well... maybe...sometimes, yes.
L: When exactly?
R: Well, maybe, when I passed a spelling test and got 10 [out of 10], or passed well, a test, well, 30 correct answers.

When Rita is given a mini statue by her teacher as a special reward to one pupil in class, she brings it in the following day to school and places it on her desk, proud of the award (11 October). Rita explicitly shows happiness when given stamp awards in her book (14 October). During this and the next month Rita also keeps repeating that she has accomplished her homework or other work in class (11 November), being proud of her ‘pen licence’. The licence is given to pupils who have achieved a certain writing standard, and they are allowed to write with a pen instead of a pencil. Starting from November in lessons Rita quietly compares her achievements with the other children at her table. She turns red and almost starts to cry when she realises that she might be given a penalty (a way of punishment for pupils) when she leaves her backpack at home (26 January). I am the only person who seems to notice her anxiety. In the tests when she does not score a mark she would like (‘минимум’ – ‘at least’ 19 out of 20), she notes this to me with disappointment (31 January). Rita says, ‘это очень плохо’ – ‘it is very bad’ when she makes one mistake and gets 39 (out of 40) (28 March). Any mistake for Rita makes her nervous and, while self-assessing a test, Rita looks tense about marking it correctly. These observations clearly show that Rita, often with covert intensity and anxiety, places great emphasis on marks and achievement. This motivation is analysed in 10.2.1 and discussed in 11.4.1.
6.3.5 Approval and acceptance: a need to be ‘smart’
A prominent and amplifying motivation for approval and acceptance of her learning abilities and achievements is a need to be/feel ‘smart’. Due to her L2 expertise and related attainment issues, Rita cannot demonstrate an important learning need – that she is smart. Rita compares herself with other children who get higher marks in her observation (October through February). On 7 November Rita says, ‘половина класса то, что я могу, делать не могут’ – ‘half of the class cannot do what I can do’. On 2 December she states, that she is ‘умнее’ – ‘smarter’ than other children, and she is in the top ten smartest children in class, ‘по уму’ – ‘based on intelligence’ but not marks. Rita says that she does not think that she studies well, because, ‘я хуже других детей которые да... которые хоть и должны быть хуже меня’ – ‘I am worse than other children, who, yes... who should be worse than me [in attainment]’ (22 February).
Notwithstanding her inability to show her academic level in class, Rita notes that she feels she has good English (15 May) when she corrects her parents (21 May). She notes how she loves teaching English to her sister and since the girls are allowed to speak the L2 at home (19 January), it was amusing for her when her mother was not able to understand what they were talking about (29 November, 21 March). The feeling of having a better English level than her parents fuels Rita’s confidence. She [rightfully] looks pleased correcting my grammar in the interview questions, written in my shorthand English. Rita, therefore, feels that she is unable to show her ‘real’ intelligence because of her L2 and being in an L2 school. Rita’s feeling about it also reflects the marking system of the L2 school, which assesses her ‘current’ L2 level and her results across the subjects in L2 (cross-analysed in 10.3.2 and discussed in 11.2.4 and 11.2.5).

6.3.6 Dreams and wishes
This section presents the findings pertaining to Rita’s dreams and wishes in learning. Rita’s father says that her dreams (i.e. aspirations) are still naturally changeable (16 November). The class teacher does not think that Rita has any dreams, goals, or plans in terms of her L2 and does not know what they are if she has them. When I ask Rita about her dreams in school, she says that the main dream is to pass the SATs ‘well’ in November, January, February, March, and May and GCSEs (General Certificate of Secondary Education) in future (in our January interview). Rita explains, that it is because of her expectations that in her SATs ‘Я получу “C”, может быть даже “B”’ – ‘I will get a “C”, maybe even a “B”’. Rita reports high motivation for the SATs due to their future importance in finding a job and future ‘хорошее образование’ – ‘good education’, as she explains also in January, February, and March. During preparation for the tests in lessons, I ask Rita about her wishes (26 January):

L: А если бы у тебя было одно желание, что бы ты загадала?
R: Вернулась бы в детство (серьёзнно).

L: If you had a wish, what would you wish for?
R: I wish I was a child again (seriously).

Feeling deeply stressed and scared due to exam preparation, Rita’s wish clearly shows what she feels she lacks at the time – being a child – feeling she has the responsibilities of ‘an adult’.

Apart from tests, I ask Rita about her dreams as regards languages in the future (8 November):

L: Ты представляешь, что ты по-английски говоришь, или ты представляешь, что ты по-русски говоришь и живёшь в России, когда ты вырастешь?
R: Ну, наверное, в России.
L: Угу, почему?
R: Потому, что я там могу детям английский учить.

L: Do you imagine that you speak English, or you imagine that you speak Russian and live in Russia, when you grow up?
R: Well, maybe in Russia.
L: I see, why?
R: Because there I can teach children English.

Rita repeats that her dream regarding English is ‘учить кого-то английскому’ – ‘to teach somebody English’ and ‘могет, работать в Англии’ – ‘maybe work in England’ ‘переводчиком’ – ‘as a translator’ in another interview on 29 November. However, Rita is uncertain where she is going to live, saying that, if she is going to live in Russia, she would like ‘работать в школе учителем английского’ – ‘to work in a school as an English teacher’.

Further, on 19 January Rita says, that her dream is to ‘хорошо говорить по-английски’ – ‘speak English well’, as Rita explains, she wants to be an interpreter. In an interview on 22 February, when I ask Rita what she would like or wish for related to school, she portrays a tennis court, which represents, as she explains, her wish ‘хорошо играть’ – ‘to play well’ and to go to some competitions, and does not mention anything related to learning in school. In the same interview (Figure 6.2), Rita says that she does not see herself living in England and speaking English in future and focuses on test results (writing ‘A, A’ and ‘SATs’). She also includes an ‘аэропlane’, which shows her wish, as she explains, to go to an L1 country for a holiday.
In the first interview in March (21) Rita says that she dreams of speaking English better than Russian, although she would like to speak Russian as well, ‘как нормальный русский человек’ – ‘as a normal Russian person’. Interestingly, Rita becomes emotional when she thinks that I am asking her whether she imagines her future speaking English exclusively, and not Russian: ‘ONLY [English]? NO! [emphasis]’ She reports that she would like to use L2 ‘чуть-чуть’ – ‘a little bit’, ‘в будущем’ – ‘in future’. Then she clarifies, that she would like to speak two languages in the future, ‘типа как русский человек, который знает английский лучше, чем русский’ – ‘as a Russian person who speaks English better than Russian’. In the second (out of two) interviews in March (24) when I ask her about her dreams in school, Rita says she wants to go to a restaurant, which they planned to go to with her parents the following Saturday and then Easter Holidays, and a school trip later on. Rita’s reports about her wishes and dreams are cross-analysed in 10.3.4 and interpreted in 11.4.4.1 and 11.4.4.2.

Figure 6.2 Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’: 22 February

6.3.7 Interests in and feelings about learning L2

Another learning motivation relates to interest in and feelings about learning L2. Rita reports only enjoying speaking English and feeling reluctant towards the academic side of it in school, namely, literacy (12 October):

L: Тебе нравится учить английский?
R: Ну-у-у, учить, наверное, нет. А разговаривать – да.
L: А с кем ты разговариваешь?
R: Ну, иногда с мамой, ну, подругами тут, ну, наверное, все.
L: Do you like learning English?
R: Well, learning, probably not. But talking – yes.
L: Whom do you talk to?
R: Well, my mum and well girlfriends here, and well that’s probably it.

The following month Rita shares that she needs English because ‘Hu, на этом языке много как-бы очень, очень, очень, очень людей разговаривает. Наверное, пол планеты’ – ‘Well, this language is spoken by, very, very, very, very many people. Maybe, half of the planet’ (7 November). When asked whether she needs English (19 January), Rita similarly says that the primary need for English is due to its global nature, seeing the fact that she lives in England as an obvious need not worth mentioning:

R: М-м-м, наверное, нужен... Потому что, как бы, ну допустим, едешь куда-то заграницу... самый распространённый язык – это английский. Вот.
L: А вот если в Англии? Ты живёшь в Англии... Тебе нужен он?
R: Ну, да.
L: Как ты думаешь, вот расскажи, почему?
R: НУ КАК ЖЕ [ударение], разговаривать?!
L: Да [понятно].

R: М-м-м, maybe, need... Because, well, suppose, [you] go somewhere abroad... the most wide-spread language is English. Here it is.
L: What about England? You live in England... Do you need it?
R: Well, yes.
L: Why do you think, tell me?
R: WELL HOW ABOUT [emphasis], to talk?!
L: Yes [I see].

While liking speaking, rather than L2 literacy, it is clear that Rita sees L2 as globally significant as well as ‘naturally’ essential for living in L2 country.

6.3.8 Achievement/accomplishment LL motivation
Rita’s father says that Rita is very interested in L2 (16 November). Rita’s teacher emphasises that Rita is highly L2-motivated and enjoys learning it. In observations, on the contrary, Rita does not try hard to complete the tasks in English perfectly (8 November). Rita shows low levels of interest in learning English in November, January, February, and March. She admits that she is not motivated to learn the words in L2 (29 November):
R: Because… Well, I know very few words yet, in order to write very well, but… but, on the other hand, I don’t want to learn them.
L: Why so?
R: I don’t know.

What concerns Rita in lessons is the number of words in her English assignment: she counts them while pupils are reading their stories: ‘93 but has to be 200’ (7 November). On 2 December I ask Rita whether I can photograph her writing assignment, and Rita shows me the page which has more text written on it. In reading Rita says that she wants to finish reading books in L1 and L2. In March Rita also conveys low motivation to write, delaying starting and writing with extra care. A month before the SATs, at the end of March, Rita reports that it is important to learn English, in order to ‘сдать тесты!’ – ‘pass tests!’ Rita thus has little motivation to learn the L2 – particularly, in writing and vocabulary (learning words) – but enjoys reading, which is in contrast with her father’s and teacher’s opinions on Rita’s LL motivation. Rita’s motivation for L2 is analysed in 10.3.3 and discussed in 11.4.2.

6.3.9 L3 and L4 motivations
Surprisingly, Rita expresses stronger motivation for learning L3 (Spanish) and L4 (French) than L2. Rita shows a growing interest in her additional languages: L3, and somewhat in L4 – as she says that she ‘[L4] не очень хорошо идёт’ – ‘does not deal with it [L4] very well’. In the first month of the study when I ask Rita whether she likes French, she tells me, ‘[У меня] нет мотивации его учить’ – ‘[I] don’t have motivation to learn it’ (12 October). In November, however, Rita initiates her own L4 learning at home, as her father says (16 November). Comparing English with French and Spanish, Rita says that she likes English because she considers it to be the simplest language. L4 seems to be even more challenging for her than L2 (7 November):

L: Расскажи мне об обучении английскому. Тебе нравится английский язык или нет?
R: Ну да, потому что, как бы, я другие не знаю, и я считаю, что его самым лёжким.
L: По сравнению с какими?
R: По сравнению, наверное, с французским. Потому что, как бы, у меня французский вообще не идёт.
L: Tell me about learning English. Do you like English or not?
R: Well yes, because I don’t speak other [languages] and I think that it is the simplest.
L: As compared to what?
R: As compared maybe with French. Because my French doesn’t progress at all.

Rita shares that she appreciates that, by learning English, she can start learning other languages, such as Italian, French, and Spanish because they seem similar (19 January). In a French lesson at school on 22 February I notice how Rita is distracted and not doing what the teacher asks, although it is relevant to French. When she is questioned by the teacher, she gives a correct response revealing her attention and focus. Clearly, Rita reports not to like French due to its challenging nature, but she still expresses engagement in French lessons. On 19 May Rita’s mother relates that Rita likes French; however, Rita has chosen to learn Spanish in secondary school instead of French. Rita’s father also points out Rita’s own wish to learn L3, in a Spanish afterschool club, instead of continuing attending a chess club, which seems strange to her father since she likes mathematics and ‘все математическое’ – ‘everything mathematical’. Rita expresses higher engagement in lessons and at home, and, thus, motivation for learning L3 and L4, rather than L2, despite having complex feelings about L4 and considering it more challenging than L2. I cross-analyse this finding in 10.3.3 and interpret it in 11.4.4.2.

6.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school
The following data concern Rita’s social behaviour and relationships, starting with a peculiar covert discontent in lessons, followed by Rita’s quietness, her anxiety and fear during learning, and her friendship group.

6.4.1 Covert discontent in lessons
While seeming to enjoy the L2 school in general (as seen from 6.3.1), Rita has strong feelings about the learning in the classroom, but she almost never reveals them in class, except when I am there, using L1. Sometimes, Rita goes along with other pupils’ answers, whereas she does not appear a particularly unopinionated person when speaking Russian. Throughout the study, overtly in lessons, Rita is reticent in L2, but she is talkative with me when using Russian. It seems that she only feels free to say what she thinks when speaking Russian, or perhaps is able to fully express herself in her L1. She reacts to a task, which their class teacher introduces, ‘О-о-о, опять это! Ненавижу это!’ – ‘Oh, this again! I hate it!’ (19 November). Rita is also unhappy with the teacher’s instruction to go outside at break time, ‘Опять на улицу идти?! Зачем? Любят они такое делать. Лучше в классе посидеть’ – ‘Going outside again?! Why? They love to do this here. Better to stay in class’ (11 January). What also frustrates Rita is the absence of a clear, set timetable. When about to do another unexpected task, Rita says, ‘У нас учителя часто меняют
Our teachers often change the timetable the way they want. They can turn it over completely’ (28 March). Surprisingly, Rita is very evaluative, she analyses the teaching and learning processes quite a lot, giving quiet judgments in Russian to me without me asking her or giving prompts: ‘Я считаю, эта школа меня вообще ничему не научила’ – ‘I think this school hasn’t taught me anything’, she tells me in a mathematics lesson, adding, ‘Ну, разве только fractions’ – ‘Well, except for fractions’ (19 January). Rita seems to be unusually opinionated and self-reflective about the advantages and disadvantages of her learning, which astonishes me during the whole time of the study. Importantly, Rita does not share these views with anyone else in class (except for me), and, although I am glad to be initiated into her issues, I wonder if she has trust issues with her classmates and whether this might be rooted in her language skills, as it seems it is because we share the same language that she is able to share her concerns. Linked and contrasted with her covert discontent is her overt quietness in lessons.

6.4.2 Quietness

It appears in observations and based on Rita’s reports that her silence in her first year (as presented in 6.2.1) has developed into quietness in lessons in her second year. In all lessons Rita does not like speaking aloud, avoids volunteering, especially if it is quiet in the classroom. The class teacher often notes this issue with Rita, encouraging her to speak up or calling on her. Rita prefers going to the teacher’s desk to ask for help. Having to speak out, Rita speaks a bit slower than other children, as if being especially cautious, trying to be correct (11 November). However, she chats with her classmates in English freely when it is noisy and lively in class; Rita is also very chatty in the interviews with me. Rita seems to like being inactive, almost invisible, in lessons throughout the study (from November through May), avoiding the discussions in class (26 January). The class teacher also notes this tendency in our interview (16 November). The avoidance of attention is so strong that Rita would even ‘be quite happy to ignore the fact that she is good at stuff’ if it means being the centre of attention, as the teacher states. Rita herself explains her inactivity as not wanting to ‘привлекать внимание’ – ‘attract attention’ (2 December). The teacher also notes that Rita chooses to ‘isolate’ herself to work on her own, rather than with a group of children when it comes to ‘teaching’ another pupil, for example. Rita’s reticent behaviour is not surprising to me after I witness a demonstrative correction of her grammar by some of her classmates when Rita speaks aloud: the teacher calls on Rita and she answers, ‘Scary’. The teacher replies, ‘Scary?’ And then someone shouts out, correcting Rita, ‘SCARED!’ [emphasis], after which Rita blushes and keeps quiet (10 October). I discuss and interpret Rita’s quietness in 11.5.1.1, preceded by the analysis of it across cases in 10.4.1.
6.4.3 Anxiety and fear

Another salient finding relates to being anxious when it comes to L2 learning and test preparation. Rita’s father reports that Rita has ‘совершенно никакого волнения’ – ‘absolutely no anxiety’ in her L2, or there are ‘нет закомплексованности никакой’ ‘no inhibitions’ about L2, which ‘она легко приняла’ – ‘she’s taken so well’. At the same time, he says that Rita ‘сразу расстраивается’ – ‘gets upset right away’ when something ‘не получается’ – ‘does not work out’ at home.

In observations, however, anxiety and fear, which are associated with the language issues and tests, develop over the course of the data collection in view of the upcoming exams. ‘На следующей неделе тест и я очень scared’ – ‘A test is next week and I am very scared’, Rita tells me biting her nails, opening her eyes widely (2 December). Rita is worried in lessons when she takes a test and she says, ‘Когда тест. И я не знаю, как решать’ – ‘When we have a test. And I don’t know what the answer is. In other words, I don’t know how to solve it at all!’ (29 November), and she reveals that she is ‘really worried’ and nervous repeatedly from November through January. Apart from tests, Rita says, she is scared, ‘когда на инглише... спросит’ – ‘when I am called on in an English lesson’ (29 November). Rita is also very sensitive during learning, in particular, in L2 lessons, being worried about the idea of working on her own: ‘Я все сама должна на инглише делать!’ – ‘I have to do everything by myself in English!’ Rita exclaims anxiously when she is seated with a pupil with lower abilities than hers, ‘Oh no, English seats!’ (19 January). A few times Rita whispers to me in Russian, ‘Мне страшно. Мне очень страшно. Я не успею’ – ‘I’m scared. I am so scared. I won’t make it’ (1 February). Before the exams week, Rita tells me again, ‘Страшно! Очень! Я спать не буду в ту неделю!’ – ‘Very scary! I won’t sleep that week!’ (20 February). When the teacher says that there are no more papers left to write on, which means if the pupils make a mistake they will not have another chance to write it all over again on a new sheet, Rita is scared about it, and shares her fears with me only using Russian. Remaining hidden from her parents (as seen from her father’s reports), it is clear that Rita has anxiety and fear regarding exams and L2 support in lessons. I cross-analyse this in 10.4.3 and discuss in 11.5.1.3.

6.4.4 Characteristic friendship group

Rita’s mother (19 May) emphasises that even after two years in England Rita ‘has problems with friends’ since,

Не может найти совсем близких друзей, и, мне кажется, это частично из-за языка. Она не может общаться, э-э, на том уровне, на котором она бы хотела с друзьями общаться.
She cannot find close friends, and I think it is partially because of language. She cannot communicate, eh, the level she would like to communicate at.

Mother adds that Rita has ‘только одна подруга’ – ‘only one friend’ and does not have any friends outside of school in England. Regarding Rita’s social relationships, Rita’s father says, ‘она не своя здесь’ – ‘she does not belong here’ (16 November). The parents agree that Rita’s L2 issues have impacted on her ‘level of communication’ with peers, meaning she is not part of the group in school, and she does not have many friends.

Rita herself includes various social ties in her concentric circles, who are all her relatives in England or Russia (sister, cousins, grandparents, uncles, and aunts), writing ‘friends’ in the outer circle, without specifying the names (Figure 6.3).

![Concentric circles](image)

**Figure 6.3 ‘Concentric circles’ technique: 8 November**

A distinctive feature of Rita’s social relationship was her friendships group, as teacher notes (16 November):

L: You already mentioned that she has good friendship groups, many friends, and you see that she communicates, yes?
T: Yes, she does, with guys, girls, she... I think she probably plays around with ...a small group ... actually, they all have second languages ... that group.

This, the teacher suggests, may be Rita’s deliberate ‘subconscious choice’. Both parents and teacher agree that Rita is not ‘part of the group’ in school and she has friends who are also EAL pupils. (I analyse it in 10.4.4 and interpret in 11.5.2.1.)

6.5 Case summary

The summary of findings in Rita’s case include:

- Rita was allowed to use her L1 in her L2 books in order to improve her L2. The freedom to use Google Translate helped Rita substantially in her first year. High achievement and progress were identified in Rita’s case at the time of the study, with difficulties in L2 literacy. L2 proficiency impacted on Rita’s learning experience. A generalised view of Rita’s intelligence was based on her L2 level across subjects. Mathematics was the strongest and the most accessible subject.

- Rita reported enjoying her L2 school in general, reporting high levels of motivation for non-academic subjects. She had great motivation for one academic subject – mathematics. Rita expressed intense motivation for praise and marks, as well as motivation for acceptance and approval (a need to be/feel ‘smart’) in learning.

- Rita’s dreams and wishes in learning related to passing exams and enjoying recreational activities. They also reflected what she lacked ‘at the present moment’. In relation to L2, Rita reports wishing to become an L2 teacher or an interpreter.

- Low participation in learning in lessons emerged in Rita’s case, with a preference for joy and communication. Low L2 motivation in terms of engagement in lessons, writing, and vocabulary was reported and observed, but was not perceived as low by her father and teacher. L3, L4 motivation was stronger than motivation for L2, despite the perceived higher difficulty of L4.

- Rita’s social behaviour was characterised by covert discontent in lessons and overt quietness. Anxiety and fear were identified, which were linked with L2 learning support and test preparations (SATs). Rita’s social relationships were problematic, potentially due to Rita’s migration. Rita formed friendships with other EAL pupils in class.
Chapter 7  Alisa

7.1 Introduction
This is the third individual case study – Alisa, a Russian-speaking immigrant girl from Russia (see Table 7.1). This case is similar to Rita’s in that they study in the same school, but Alisa is in Year 4 and has been in the UK a year and a few months. As in other cases, I sit just next to or behind Alisa, being able to hear and see her closely.

Table 7.1 Alisa’s background information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Birth</th>
<th>Russia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at the start of the data collection/Year of birth</td>
<td>8 years old/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 Year</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time period spent in the UK at the start of the study</td>
<td>1 year and 4 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Medicine (Physiologist doctor)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling in a Russian-speaking school</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous exposure to English</td>
<td>Minimal, ‘Beginner’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL provision/specialist in the L2 school</td>
<td>No, intervention classes are conducted by the SEN specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s Curriculum</td>
<td>IPC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As I explained in 4.9.4, the data are presented thematically, aligned according to three overarching themes (Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships) starting with the findings regarding learning support, organisation, and academic demands, followed by Alisa’s L2 experiences and progress.

7.2 Experiences in the L2 School

7.2.1 Learning support, organisation, and academic demands
Upon Alisa’s arrival (Year 3), she had L2 lessons with an additional teacher in the school. There is no EAL teacher in this school (School C); the children receive support from the SEN specialist or a TA who takes the newly arrived pupils out of classes initially to support their L2 learning. Her mother says that it was very important that when Alisa arrived, she was assigned a pupil who would help her in school. This meant that ‘она не чувствовала себя сразу отдельно от других’ – ‘she didn’t feel separated from others’ in class (16 November). The teacher did not ask Alisa to
do anything in the first few days, gradually trying to involve her in the learning process. This was a reason, in her mother’s words, for Alisa’s untroubled adaptation in school: ‘легко все прошло’ – ‘everything went easily’ (16 November).

Her mother states a few issues she has in relation to Alisa’s education. At first her mother was surprised that there is no timetable given to children, as opposed to Russian schools where pupils are given the ‘timetable diaries’, but only reading diaries (pupils write down regularly what they have read). There is neither enough homework nor academic demands, in her mother’s view (16 November):

Домашнее задание, допустим, чтение книги и потом появилось один раз в неделю. Только вот слова запомнить spelling или там математика по сайту. Но этого тоже мало! То есть, это совершенно не та нагрузка, которую я вообще ожидала от школы.

Homework is, supposedly, reading a book and then there appeared once a week. Just to remember spelling or mathematics, on the website. But this is very little as well! In other words, this is absolutely not the amount which I generally expected of school.

In science, for instance, all learning materials are online; however, they appear online sporadically: ‘это как бы такие… редкие вещи…там раз в это… в триместр’ – ‘these are rare…rare things… once in a…in a term’ (19 May). The online tasks in English, science, geography, and history also appear intermittently (19 May):

Это даже не каждую четверть им дают ... Вот. Четыре вопроса и как бы...и предлагают даже не все сделать, а хотя бы три там из 10.

This is not given every week… Well. Four questions and well … and it is suggested not to do everything, but at least three out of 10.

For these reasons, her mother decided to initiate the workload herself: ‘потому что, мне кажется, вот, что одной школы, все равно, этого мало’ – ‘because I feel that one school is still not enough’. Another issue is an absence of textbooks, which makes her mother slightly worried, as she cannot go through the material at home (19 May):

Я бы, конечно, хотела дома повторять...тем более с той же самой математикой… Мы покупаем ей отдельные книжки, чтобы ну заниматься. Она говорит, “О да, вот у меня было, и я не поняла!” Вот посидишь… вот здесь же, вот так и так [объясняет задание].
I would like of course to practice at home... Especially with the mathematics... We buy separate books for her, to study. She says, “Oh yes, well I have had this [in school], and I didn’t understand!” Well sit...here, like this and this [explains the task].

The mother reiterates that if she was given ‘хотя бы распечатки’ – ‘at least the printouts’, she could go through the learning content again (16 November). As is evident, Alisa’s mother is dissatisfied with the consistency of homework and transparency of the curriculum. Additionally, when Alisa does not understand something, she does not express it in class. These mean that her mother is not able to support her at home. I cross-analyse this in 10.2.2 and interpret in 11.2.2.

7.2.2 L2 experiences and progress

This section presents the findings regarding Alisa’s literacy experiences, progress, and assessment peculiarities. At the start of Year 4, the teacher expresses her concerns about Alisa’s learning progress. It was slightly below the required level, particularly in reading, in the previous year (10 November):

I expect her to change on these for her. I am hoping for her to be not just… to be where she should be but to be slightly above because I think, intellectually, she is definitely capable of... more than what she’s been giving.

In addition, the teacher identifies some slight issues related to writing in Alisa’s learning:

I noticed maybe in her written work, not so much in speaking, in her written work maybe tenses are slightly... she might use the wrong tense... she might use the wrong word... Instead of saying “a cat sat on THE [emphasis] mat” she might say “A cat sat on mat” without “the”. Now, English is a complicated language. On the whole her written English is very good quality.

If compared with other subjects, in November the teacher notes that her:

Written work is the weakest, also it’s not low for her. Her maths is very strong. And I think by the end of the year her writing will be equal. But at the moment, it is her written words just because of vocabulary, tenses, that type of thing.

The strongest subjects for Alisa this year, as the teacher says, are mathematics and science because, ‘maths is easier for her at the moment’. The teacher emphasises the ‘academic side of school’, which, as she says, ‘I really wanna push for Alisa’. While admitting a need to focus on Alisa’s progress, as regards her written work, the teacher anticipates the following (10 November):
What she is producing is... really good quality work and I expect that this year, I hope to see her really take off, and I think she is capable of that.

Additionally, as the teacher says, Alisa is ‘capable of really great things’, revealing her high academic expectations of Alisa (see cross-case analysis of this finding in 10.2.1 and cross-case discussion in 11.2.1).

In her writing the teacher acknowledges that Alisa does produce a considerable amount of written English:

> Even in English she would write a lot, even more than some of the other children whose English is their first language. She will produce.

An illustration can be found in Alisa’s writing (Figure 7.1), which shows that Alisa follows the teacher’s instructions to include the adverbial phrases (e.g. ‘All of a sudden’), the use of the direct speech (e.g. ‘it better be true’), and with the correct use of punctuation. She produces a well-structured, coherent, and quite neat text.

**Figure 7.1 Alisa’s marked writing: 14 December**

In her writing
As regards Alisa’s listening comprehension, the class teacher is positive, pointing out that she
Copes really, really well. And you know... even when I am reading, I’ve been reading
a story and I ask her a question, I am not sure... she’s always understood what I am
reading and even some of the more subtle things, that some of the other children didn’t
get, she will get, so her comprehension is very, very good.

Based on the teacher’s reports, the contrast between the start of the academic year and towards
the end is substantial. Alisa’s writing progress is evident in two examples with clear difference
between November (Figure 7.2) and December (Figure 7.1): e.g. punctuation, and the amount of
produced work. In our interview on 17 May (the last month of observations) the teacher says that
Alisa exhibits a ‘fantastic!’ change in terms of her English:

![Image](image.png)

**Figure 7.2 Alisa’s marked writing: 17 November**

Her language’s really, really come on! Really developed! So, in terms of her written
work... I would say, that she is ahead of some of the other English children who were
born here. The standard of her English, the quality of her writing has really, really...
(…) really, really fantastic progress!

Alisa’s English has improved, and one can see, as the teacher notes, that it is ‘really embedded in her mind’. The teacher asserts that Alisa’s progress is evident, in ‘Year 5, Year 6, I can see her being one of the highest achieving pupils. Definitely’.

Alisa’s achievement and progress are reflected in the assessment in her books. In Alisa’s book I see an ‘A’ mark, but it means ‘ask’ not ‘excellent’ (See Figure 7.2), which shows how marks are substituted with other signs in this class. The teacher also uses Dojo points as a substitute for grades and marks. Teacher’s marking also says ‘4DP’, which means she is awarded four Dojo points, and ‘FAB’ revealing high praise of Alisa’s work. These findings show that Alisa is progressing well across the subjects, especially in her weakest subject, literacy (discussed in 11.2.1, 11.2.3, and 11.2.5, and preceded by the analysis across-cases in 10.2.1 and in 10.2.3).

7.2.3 Mathematics experiences
As seen earlier, Alisa’s strongest subject is mathematics. The teacher explains that mathematics is more accessible for Alisa than L2. When mathematics involves literacy, Alisa struggles at times, as seen from example in Figure 7.3: Problem number 7 involves little L2 literacy and is correct, whereas the word problems, which require a more in-depth L2 literacy knowledge (numbers 8 and 9) have not been solved by Alisa correctly.

Figure 7.3 Mathematics assessment: 3 March
In November’s (7) observations, Alisa writes and calculates slowly, compared with other children. When she is asked to describe the process of solving the task, which she has accomplished in mathematics, she does not do it. Despite some challenges, Alisa reports liking mathematics (10 November). In December, when Alisa takes up a more challenging level of difficulty (‘should’), she struggles to solve it (14 December). The teacher though encourages Alisa to take a higher level of difficulty than what she chose herself. Further on, in mathematics on 24 February, Alisa is moved to a table with a higher level of difficulty. On 15 May Alisa struggles with some tasks involving the symmetry in geometry (Figure 7.4): working in a pair with another pupil, this pupil solves the task and does not seem to feel it is challenging at all. However, Alisa is just looking. The teacher asks this girl to help Alisa as she looks ‘confused’. In this word problem example, solving this task requires knowledge of specific (mathematical) terminology in L2 (‘a line of symmetry’), which might be unfamiliar to Alisa. Later on 15 May, Alisa says, ‘Иногда мне математика не нравится. Хуже всего. ИНОГДА [ударение] только’ – ‘Sometimes, I don’t like maths. The worst of all. SOMETIMES [emphasis] only’. Alisa’s mathematical experience is discussed in 11.2.5.

Figure 7.4 A symmetry task in geometry: 15 May
7.3 Motivations in the L2 school

This section presents the findings regarding Alisa’s motivation expressions in L2 school, starting with her general interests and feelings about learning.

7.3.1 Interests and feelings about learning

In our first interview when I ask Alisa about her learning experience, she says it is ‘excellent!’ When I ask her why, she says, ‘Ну, знаешь, что будет? Мы пойдём в кинотеатр!’ – ‘Well, do you know what? We are going to the cinema!’ (2 November). In the same month, Alisa says, ‘мне почти все нравятся [предметы]’ – ‘I like almost all subjects’ in school, and there are no subjects she does not enjoy. Art and drawing, specifically, is Alisa’s favourite activity in school at this time. Alisa also reveals, ‘Мне нравится пятница, потому что в пятницу мы можем очень много отдыхать’ – ‘I like Fridays because on Friday we can have lots of rest’ (2 November). She repeats it in a different interview, saying that on Friday, when she has a half an hour of free time, ‘когда у нас есть время отдыхать’ – ‘when we have time to rest’, is her favourite time (10 November). Furthermore, Alisa demonstrates an increasing likeness for art and drawing. She also reports to enjoy ‘sitting’ (16 November), which is exemplified in Alisa’s silence in lessons when other children are involved in some activity, which is evident in observations (presented later in 7.4.1). Further on, on 1 December, just as in the previous month, Alisa reports to like the school, especially resting during the half an hour of free time:

L: Что тебе нравится больше всего? Твоё самое-самое любимое?
A: Ну, когда мы отдыхаем...
L: А когда вы отдыхаете? Каждый день?
A: В пятницу.

L: What do you like the most in school? What is your favourite?
A: Well, when we rest...
L: When do you rest? Every day?
A: On Fridays.

When I ask Alisa in December (12), what she would like to do in the next lesson in school, Alisa tells me that she wants to have fun and to eat the cakes, which are bigger than Alisa herself, to eat and to watch a film instead of learning. In January (23-24), Alisa says that her favourite times in school are lunch, art, and drawing. At the end of March (24) and in May (15) Alisa shares that her favourite part of the lessons is to rest, rather than to learn. On 15 May Alisa describes her favourite part of the lesson:

L: Какая твоя любимая часть уроков сегодня? Че тебе сегодня понравилось?
A: Ну-у-у эээээ, мне больше сего нравилась математика, да. Потому, что мне не нужно было лаботать [работать].
L: Не нужно?
A: Почти не нужно было (улыбается).

L: What is your favourite part of the lessons today? What did you like today?
A: Well, ehh, I liked mathematics the most, yes. Because I didn’t need to work [work].
L: Didn’t need?
A: Almost didn’t need (smiling).

Alisa has a good experience in her L2 school, enjoying school and learning generally, preferring art, rest, and breaks, but not mentioning learning in academic subjects. Alisa’s feelings and interests about learning are analysed in 10.3.1 and interpreted in 11.4.1.

7.3.2 Engagement

While preferring rest and breaks, however, in lesson observation, Alisa looks diligent at the start of the data collection: she quickly cuts out what the teacher instructs her to cut out, and then patiently waits for the teacher’s further guidance. Her diligence is demonstrated in her meticulously orderly handwriting, or in the way Alisa stays on tasks as soon as she understands what is required of her. Alisa listens very attentively, looks where the teacher asks her to, without distractions.

Although Alisa is diligent when she is given an individual activity, in lessons during the discussions Alisa does not raise her hand to answer or to contribute at any point in the study (except for a few times in French lessons, as presented in 7.3.4). She listens quietly during the discussion/teacher’s questions in November, January, and May, plays with her glasses, or just sits quietly, including when the teacher asks general questions about the story’s plot. The teacher asks the class to say some sentences, but Alisa does not raise her hand and she is silent. While other children answer some questions, she keeps quiet. Sometimes, Alisa says two words in total in the whole morning during which children have their key subjects (English and mathematics). When the teacher calls on Alisa, she answers quietly, and I cannot hear what she says. When Alisa is supposed to mark her own work with a green pen, she does not write anything, which may be caused by her comprehension. While still keeping quiet, Alisa looks disengaged and tries to entertain herself in lessons (23 January): she takes off her glasses, then puts them back on, takes off a hand-made paper ring off one finger, puts it on another finger. Alisa keeps playing with her paper while the teacher explains something. When Alisa is told to mark her work with a green pen, she does not do it, instead she turns to me and smiles. Later that day she fidgets on her seat, touches her best friends’ hands, while not saying anything. (I describe this friendship later in
7.4.3.) Further, she plays with her hair tie, putting it on, and taking it off. In some lessons, Alisa looks completely left out as seen in the following extract (24 January):

Four children stand near the board discussing safe parking with other children in class. At this time, Alisa just sits slouched and plays with a thread of her pencil case. Then Alisa takes scissors and starts cutting the thread off while the teacher explains and talks to pupils. She looks at them at times while cutting the threads. The pupils finish their discussion of the topic, whereas Alisa does not say anything.

In another lesson on 25 January while the teacher is reading, Alisa inaudibly shows me how she throws her pen at a pen holder and it falls directly onto it, she becomes quietly happy, showing a ‘fist pump’ and smiling. On 1 February, when the teacher shows a video about the long division method, Alisa plays with her toy house. In March and May Alisa looks especially disengaged in learning. Overall, Alisa is a diligent and engaged pupil, particularly when she is given individual activities. In whole-class discussions, questioning, or reading, increasingly from the second part of the study, Alisa does not always look very diligent or engaged, exhibiting persistent distraction. This finding is cross-analysed in 10.3.1 and discussed in 11.4.3.

7.3.3 Rewards, praise, and approval
A significant motivation for Alisa relates to rewards, praise, and approval. On 14 October, Alisa is awarded a medal for not missing any days of school and not being late during the whole of Year 3. Alisa and her parents, evidently, approach school and attendance very seriously. When Alisa receives the medal, she looks very happy: she puts it on, and then takes it off, she goes to get her jacket, and then she puts it back on, puts it off again and starts looking at it, and then puts it on again. Conversely, on 2 November, Alisa says, that she does not like being praised because ‘это не самое главное я думаю’ – ‘it is not the most important’ as the most important is to ‘учиться’ – ‘study’. However, when I ask her mother if Alisa is confident in learning, she says, ‘ей нужно одобрение.’ (…) Ей важно вот это одобрение от других’ – ‘she needs approval. (…) It is important for her, this approval from others’. Praise for Alisa is ‘как финальная точка’ – ‘as the ultimate end point’, so she needs to be told, ‘Да! Вот это классно’ – ‘Yes! This is great’. Correspondingly, in observations, rewards (marks) are significant for Alisa; when I ask her what she enjoyed in school today or if there was anything interesting, she says, ‘я получила поинт’ – ‘I got a point’ in PE (24 January). In February Alisa finishes off the mathematics task, she goes to the teacher to get it marked and she gets three Dojo points for her work; she then comes back shows this to me and quietly says, ‘Yes!’ showing a ‘fist pump’ (1 February). On 3 March Alisa says that achievement in the form of rewards is significant for her:

L: Тебе важно хорошо учиться в школе?
A: Ну, немного, да.
L: А почему, как ты думаешь, тебе важно это?
A: Потому, что я хочу получать поинты и выигрывать!

L: Is it important for you to study well in school?
A: Well, a little bit, yes.
L: Why do you think this is important for you?
A: Because I want to get points and win!

On 24 March Alisa also admits that her strongest motivation is to achieve rewards (points), saying it is important to study well in school ‘потому, что я получаю поинты’ – ‘because I get points’. In observations, Alisa acts accordingly to this description. When the teacher asks her to count the Dojo points, Alisa counts very quickly, even nervously and excitedly. She then shows me that she has 10 Dojo points. While Alisa prioritises praise (points) and approval, her class teacher describes her motivation as intrinsic. In our interview in May (17), in contrast, the teacher says that Alisa is a learner who ‘loves to learn, she is interested in everything... and she will do it without motivation, it is intrinsic in her’. The teacher relates that in Alisa’s case, ‘If she didn’t have Dojos her work would still be the same’, and, ‘It’s more linked to “I might win and get the prize by the end of the week”. Excitement’. ‘She is motivated in everything’, the teacher notes. I cross-analyse Alisa’s rewards/praise and approval motivation in 10.3.2 and interpret it in 11.4.1.

7.3.4 LL motivations

This section explicates Alisa’s motivation pertaining to languages. In the first three months of the study (from October to December), Alisa mostly focuses on mathematics when describing her experiences, writing about what she has learned in mathematics, not mentioning English, even when I ask her about it. In November Alisa reports that in the English lessons she feels ‘in the middle’ (16 November). In the interview at the end of March (24) Alisa asks to skip the question (by saying our agreed word to skip a question – ‘пропускаю’ – ‘skip’) when I ask her about favourite thing in learning English. When I ask Alisa if she has an idea of what she is going to do in the future in school and if it is linked with English, she says she is going to go to school by herself and she will go to the cinema and will eat popcorn there. At the same time, she expresses a particularly strong likeness for learning L3 (French) (16 November):

L: А ты бы хотела бы учить французский в будущем?
A: Да.

L: Would you like to study French in the future?
A: Yes.
In contrast with the L2, Alisa says that she would like to keep learning French in the future, which shows her more vivid motivation related to the L3 rather than L2. (I discuss it in 11.4.4.2.) In French lessons in January, Alisa is generally active, but does not raise her hand a lot. Alisa is especially clear about liking to speak French, whereas when describing English, Alisa does not give any details about her likes and dislikes, just saying ‘посерединке’ – ‘in the middle’. Furthermore, Alisa’s thoughts as regards L2 stretch beyond learning L2 or L3 (23 January):

L: Ты можешь представить себя говорящей по-английски в будущем и какая у тебя мечта?
A: Знать каждый язык в мире.
L: Can you imagine that you will speak English in the future and what is your dream?
A: To know every language in the world.

When it comes to English generally, Alisa expresses her main motivation to learn English, which originates from a feeling rather than a consideration (23 January):

L: Тебе нужен английский?
A: Да, потому что... просто нужен!
L: Почему?
A: Любию его.
L: Любишь да?
A: Да.
L: Do you need English?
A: Yes, because... just need!
L: Why?
A: Love it.
L: Do you love it?
A: Yes.

In contrast with this, in relation to learning English in lessons, Alisa exhibits a strong motivation for reading and writing in English, rather than for learning English as a whole. When writing, she looks especially motivated to write stories. In observations throughout the study, while some other children just look around and watch other children or just stare at Alisa’s table, Alisa is reading.

As I demonstrate above through Alisa’s general engagement in learning (7.3.2), when it comes to discussions in class in L2, Alisa demonstrates passivity (1 December):
The teacher asks the pupils to look for powerful words in their writing. Alisa plays with a piece of paper folded in a ball shape and she puts it inside her sleeve. She takes it out and keeps staring at it while the teacher asks questions. Children raise their hands, but Alisa does not, playing secretly with her toy. Alisa does not participate in the discussion at all.

Repeatedly in November and December, during the class discussions she plays with a toy bear, or spins her pen, while the teacher is speaking. This is analogous to listening activities (1 December):

When the teacher starts to read a story, Alisa looks around, she plays with her cake. She keeps playing with her cake for a few minutes and she does not participate in learning. Alisa does not look at the board; she just looks away. Also, she sits quite far away from other children, almost in the corner. She says nothing in the lesson, not even looking at the teacher or the board.

In the L2 lesson on 23 January, Alisa looks bored, so she plays with her glasses. Alisa distracts herself, by turning her book on the desk. Her motivation is still higher when it concerns books and reading by herself. She is so eager to read, that she peeps into her book even when the task is to listen to the teacher’s instructions. Alisa is reading her book when the teacher tells her, ‘Alisa, put your book away’ (25 January). In February and March, just as in the three previous months, Alisa’s reading preference remains very high. She reads while some other children just sit or chat.

In our interview on 3 March, Alisa admits being disengaged in L2 lessons, during which, she says, usually ‘я немножко играю с пальчиками’ – ‘I play with my fingers a little’. This is a way Alisa distracts herself and makes herself busy in lessons, when, possibly, she has not paid attention or she does not understand:

L: Ты играешь сама с собой или с кем-то еще?
A: Сама с собой.

L: Do you play by herself or with somebody else?
A: By myself.

Just as previously, on 15 May, Alisa does not report any interest in learning L2:

L: Какая твоя самая-самая любимая вещь в изучении английского? То есть, английские уроки, да? И то, что тебе не нравится совсем?
A: Мое самое любимое это, по-моему, отдых.
L: What is your favourite thing in learning English? That is, in English lessons, yes?
And what is that you don’t like at all?
A: My most favourite is, in my opinion... rest.

Alisa clearly shows a lack of learning motivation for L2, particularly for speaking in class, but not for silent reading and writing. I discuss Alisa’s L2 motivation in 11.4.2, preceded by cross-case analysis of this in 10.3.3.

### 7.3.5 Parental impact on motivations

A significant motivation relates to the involvement of Alisa’s mother in her learning. The teacher notes that Alisa’s mother ‘wants her to do well at school’, and the parents worry about her. The teacher stresses that Alisa ‘obviously has some help’ at home. Alisa says, that her mother teaches her English at home, and she reads for her mother in English at home. The mother says in our interview (19 May), that she aims for Alisa to do mathematics perfectly, and Alisa will redo it over and over until she gets 100 percent in her homework. At home, her mother devotes more time to learning English than Russian because, as the mother says, ‘больше мы склоняемся к тому, что мы здесь останемся [в Англии]’ – ‘we are more inclined to stay here [in England]’.

In the mother’s opinion, Alisa understands the importance of learning English herself (16 November):

> Я подчёркивала важность того, чтобы она зная английский. что это и сейчас важно и потом пригодится. И сама, я думаю, она, да, понимает. Сейчас она уже чувствует себя уверенно в нем. То есть, она... не боится что-то сказать там неправильно.

I emphasised the importance of her speaking English. That it is important now and will be useful later. And by herself, she, yes, understands. Now she already feels confident in it. In other words, she… is not afraid to say something incorrectly.

Alisa reports in January, March, and May that at home her parents tell her to learn English:

L: Тебе кто-то говорит, что ты должна учить английский?
A: Мама.
L: Каждый день?
A: Нет.
L: Иногда?
A: Угу.

L: Does anyone tell you, that you need to learn English?
A: Mum.
L: Everyday?
A: No.
L: Sometimes?
A: Yep.

Alisa does not oppose learning English. As her mother says, rarely does Alisa read books in Russian anymore, and she chooses to read in English by herself. These findings, analysed in 10.3.4 and discussed in 11.4.4.3, show the significance of parental influence on Alisa’s language preferences and learning.

7.3.6 Dreams and wishes
This section presents Alisa’s dreams (aspirations) and wishes in learning based on the drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’. In our first interview, which focuses on Alisa’s dreams, Alisa expresses a wish to be the ‘most important in the school’ (Figure 7.5) (1 December):

L: Чего бы тебе хотелось в школе?
A: Быть самой главной в школе.
L: М?
A: Самой главной в школе.
L: Самой главной? Угу.

L: What would you like in school?
A: To be the most important in school.
L: Eh?
A: The most important in school.
L: The most important? OK.

Figure 7.5 Alisa’s dreams of being ‘important’: 1 December
Alisa explains:

A: Я сижу в офисе, там…смотрю что хочу… на этом… а это мечтать, отдыхать...
L: Это сидишь в школе в офисе?
A: Угу.
L: И конфетки у тебя на столе?
A: Угу.
L: Самая главная?
A: Угу.

A: I sit in an office, there... I look at what I want...in it... and this is dreaming, resting...
L: Do you sit in the school office?
A: Yep.
L: And are these the sweets on your desk?
A: Yep.
L: You are the most important?
A: Yep.

During the interview on 23 January, Alisa again tells me that her dream is to be the most important (Figure 7.6):

Figure 7.6 Alisa's dream of being ‘important’: 23 January

A: Вот это директор здесь (указывает на директора).
L: А о чем ты говоришь там всем [другие фигуры напротив Алисы]? 
A: Что я самая главная.
A: The head is here (points to the head teacher).
L: And what do you tell everyone [other figures in front of Alisa]?  
A: That I am the most important.

The head teacher appears much smaller than Alisa (indicated by the arrow). Further in the same interview, Alisa tells me that her dream is to be the head teacher and ‘иметь много игрушек и торт’ – ‘have lots of toys and a cake’. This is not the only dream Alisa has, as she also adds, ‘и я знаю все в мире’ – ‘and I know everything in the world’; she does not, however, explain the reasons behind it. On 3 March Alisa dreams about having ‘очень много игрушек’ – ‘very many toys’ in school. Other dreams also relate to recreation – specifically, ‘free choice’, food, and a computer – so that, as Alisa comments, ‘Могла сделать все, что угодно!’ – ‘I could do whatever I want!’

Later on, there is a gallery in school in Alisa’s dream (Figure 7.7), in which every painting has her face on, and she is looking at the portraits as well (24 March):

**Figure 7.7 Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’: 24 March**

A: Просто это портрет меня. 
L: Это портрет тебя, да? 
A: Да.
L: Это люди смотрят на него, да? 
A: Это я.
L: А это ты? 
A: Это я да.
L: И что ты делаешь? 
A: Смотрю (рисует).
L: A это тоже портрет тебя?
A: Да.
L: A это с кем ты?
A: Это плюшевый медведь, хе.
L: Большой, да?
A: Угу.

A: It is just a portrait of me.
L: Is this the portrait of you?
A: Yes.
L: And are these people looking at you?
A: This is me.
L: This is you [as well]?
A: This is me, yes.
L: And what are you doing?
A: I am looking (keeps drawing).
L: And is this also a portrait of you?
A: Yes.
L: Who are you here with?
A: This is a teddy bear, eh.
L: It is big, yes?
A: Yes.

In two months (May), Alisa’s dream is to have some juice in the classroom; a ‘lemonade’ would also be acceptable, she says. Repeatedly, Alisa dreams of ‘being the most important’, being a knowledgeable pupil, having freedom (‘do whatever I want’), and having treats (toys, drinks, sweets). The dreams of Alisa are cross-analysed in 10.3.4 and discussed in 11.4.4.

### 7.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 School

This final section analyses Alisa’s social behaviour and relationships in an L2 school, starting with her submissiveness and quietness in school.

#### 7.4.1 Submissiveness and quietness in school

Alisa appears to be submissive and quiet in observations. In our first interview on 10 November, the teacher describes Alisa as a gentle, honest, kind child, who is also a follower, rather than a leader, quite shy, cautious, and not an explicitly confident pupil. Alisa behaves well in class and she is praised by the teacher for this (2 November). The teacher, however, acknowledges that there is an issue with Alisa, which is ‘something that we are working on’ regarding Alisa’s
emotional safety trying ‘to make her a bit more emotionally strong’ since ‘she will let people push her a little at times rather than standing up for herself a bit more’. Especially it concerns the cases when Alisa seems to be overly submissive that teachers aim to improve, ‘so that when she DOESN’T [emphasis] want to do it, so that she feels strong enough to say, “I don’t wanna do it”’. In one episode I observe how Alisa does not take the initiative, following her partner, or while her partner writes an answer, Alisa is reading her book, not committing to the task (10 November). The teacher notices that Alisa is easily dominated and recognises that she needs to be surrounded by pupils who will ‘let her speak, let her have a viewpoint’. It is important for Alisa to have ‘confidence to say “No”, not having to be pushed into things’, which is, as the teacher says, ‘Something we are definitely working on with Alisa’. At the same time, the teacher encourages what she considers to be ‘proper’ communications, as seen in the following episode (15 May):

Upon finishing her writing, Alisa just sits quietly. Her desk-mate starts to try to engage in a conversation with her by showing Alisa her pink socks saying how soft they are inside and asks her to touch them. The teacher notices this and says firmly not to do this, as she is distracting Alisa: “You should be reading. You are disturbing Alisa!”

Observing this scene, I am not entirely sure whether Alisa would prefer to feel the texture of the socks rather than just sitting quietly.

Throughout the study she usually listens without saying anything, even when she is allowed to chat to her desk-mates. Alisa does not initiate discussions or any other communication by herself (19 May); she mostly talks to other people, including me, when they initiate the conversation (14 October; 17 November). I have not noticed Alisa starting a conversation herself. Oftentimes, Alisa seems unwilling to speak and she remains passive in friendships and communication (24 February). In one episode, Alisa is gluing a paper barrel when a boy comes up to her and says, that he likes her barrel, but Alisa does not reply. She gets up and goes to show her barrel to the teacher, and only says a few words to her, which I am not able to grasp as Alisa always speaks very quietly (2 November). Another time, Alisa and another girl are asked to write an argument using adverbial phrases; Alisa’s partner does not use the words correctly, and Alisa does not say anything (7 November). Sitting on her carpet space, Alisa is also quiet, not talking to anyone, only responding to the questions of others (10 November). Alisa does not express her own opinion in any way, and she does not raise her hand, unless she needs to defend herself from other children’s accusations, such as about a pencil, which Alisa allegedly took. Alisa is able to defend her position: e.g. when pupils cannot share a paper, Alisa pulls the object of the argument to herself, asserting her rights to it (10 November). Another time, when Alisa works in a pair with another girl, she is silent (1 December). While working on a task, Alisa works quietly without
saying a word (25 January). When in February observations Alisa notices that she has made a mistake she shows the mistake to me, while not saying any words; rather, she just points to what she has done. Similarly, when she is called on, she answers very quietly (9 November). On another occasion when she is asked for an answer, she speaks so quietly, that neither the teacher nor I can hear it (23 January). Alisa avoids talking to children: when she needs to choose a picture, the boys take it, and she stretches her hands as if saying, ‘Give it back to me. What about me?’ The boys do not pay attention to this, and Alisa just patiently and quietly waits until they cut their picture out. The only word she says on 24 February is ‘kitten’, when making sentences in a game. The TA talks to me about Alisa regarding her not asking for some things back that she lent to other pupils, and she asks me if Alisa is all right about it as she just ‘keeps quiet’ (24 February).

Alisa is mostly quiet; at the same time, confusingly for me, she writes quickly and intensely. Alisa’s writing skills are quite fluent, and her written work (as shown in 7.2.2) shows that she does understand what is supposed to be done and her language comprehension is at a good level, but she does not speak. She keeps quiet, as if she chooses not to speak, chat to her classmates, or reply to the teacher’s questions. Alisa is also an engaged reader. The TA tells me that Alisa is a lovely girl, and she understands, ‘it is just [the concern is] with the speaking’, adding that Alisa is ‘really smart’. In January I see Alisa raise her hand to ask for assistance. When Alisa raises her hand, she is not noticed, and she either keeps raising it or puts it down and sits quietly.

Significantly, although her mother generally describes Alisa as a quiet girl (19 May), she says, that Alisa does not speak quietly at home (16 November):

М: В конце прошлого года учительница тоже сказала, что она [Алиса] тихо говорит и просто не всегда слышно, когда она что-то хочет ответить.

L: Дома тоже так?

М: Нет, дома не так.

M: At the end of last year the teacher also said that she [Alisa] speaks quietly, and it is just not always audible when she wants to answer.

L: Is it the same at home?

M: No, it is not like this at home.

Her mother agrees in both interviews that Alisa speaks quietly in school as she was also told this by her current class teachers. The mother adds, that in her Russian kindergarten, Alisa was not as quiet, and nobody ‘в детском саду мне на это не жаловались’ – ‘complained about it in the kindergarten’, namely: regarding Alisa’s quietness ‘серьезно, там, с обсуждением, как, что... вот в этой школе’ – ‘seriously, with a discussion, as in this school’. Alisa’s mother also describes
her as a relatively active and calm child. She is kind and trusting, responsible, cautious, but stubborn, not modest, honest, shy or quiet. Alisa shows her rebellious side by trying to disobey her mother’s instructions, but eventually, she will do what she is told to do. In addition, her mother is appalled as Alisa has ‘научилась, к тому же, манипулировать!’ – ‘learned how to manipulate!’ her mother, in order to fulfil her wishes (19 May). Alisa, as her mother reveals, is neither a follower nor gentle. In the interviews in March and May, Alisa is being sly in games by moving her counter in a board game to a place she thinks is beneficial for her, which supports her mother’s views.

In observations Alisa is also hesitant in her learning. On a few occasions in November, Alisa does not seem to be diligent or determined. When something is difficult, Alisa does not focus on a task. I notice that Alisa seems to delay following the teacher’s instructions or possibly does not understand or mishears them. Alisa is often strategic about her class work, which is exemplified in, as it were, ‘waiting time’, when she patiently waits before proceeding with the task, or asking the teacher, if she has misunderstood something. When other children already have a sheet with a task, and Alisa does not have it, other children start to write and glue it in their books, then Alisa raises her hand but puts it down quickly (7 November). Sometimes Alisa raises her hand and then puts it down and does not raise it again. In February I observe that Alisa does not ask questions, and only proceeds with her questions going to the teacher’s desk. On 17 March the teacher asks pupils to write some words on their boards but Alisa does not write, she just waits; she starts to write only when they appear on the teacher’s white board. Overall, Alisa’s social behaviour is clearly hesitant, submissive, and quiet in school, in contrast with at home. (I cross-analyse it in 10.4.1 and discuss in 11.5.1.1.)

7.4.2 Sensitivity about criticism and making mistakes
Another peculiarity of Alisa’s behaviour, is that she is very sensitive towards criticism, as her mother says (16 November),

Критика её позволяет как-то закрываться в себе или... как бы в таком вот ...
Обороне держать … она мало что при этом будет отдавать взамен...

Criticism causes her to get locked up in her own self or...as if like... Get defensive about it... she would not give much in return...

Interestingly, while being overtly submissive, in observations Alisa is quite opinionated when it comes to doing what she thinks is the right thing in learning. When Alisa wants to finish her writing and the teacher tells the class to do the mathematics starter, Alisa does not engage; she keeps writing as if she decides what is more important for her to do, prioritising her writing at that moment, rather than a usual entertaining ‘starter’ activity in mathematics. Alisa even corrects
her mother when she checks Alisa’s homework. Alisa eventually stops asking her mother to check her homework when her mother makes a mistake. At the start of the year, Alisa is proactive when it comes to making sure that she has accomplished a task correctly. She does not trust my or Cathy’s (her best friend) opinion about what is needed to be done, she goes to ask the teacher. Having received the teacher’s confirmation, Alisa accepts it and starts to write. When Alisa notices that something she is doing is not exactly like other pupils’ work, she corrects or adjusts her work with intensity and nervousness in her actions. Alisa rushes when she misses the start of a task; having finished her intensive work, she makes a gesture as if mopping the sweat from her brows, saying ‘Фух!’ – ‘Phew!’ These appear as carefulness about details, anxiety about making a mistake, and being very responsible (analysed in 10.4.3 and discussed in 11.5.1.3).

7.4.3 Alisa and Cathy’s friendship. Bullying

Regarding Alisa’s social relationships in school, Alisa says that she chats with her classmates ‘совсем немножко’ – ‘just a little bit’. Alisa has one best friend in her class, Cathy, who is a pupil with SEN. Alisa says that they write together in their diaries, read, play, and always decide mutually what to do. As her mother explains, Cathy visits Alisa after school. In observations, Cathy smiles looking at Alisa, and Alisa tenderly hugs her in return. Cathy’s leg touches Alisa’s leg under the desk; she touches her hands and whispers in her ear. Later I ask Alisa what her friend whispers to her about, and she says that, ‘если она замечает что-то странное’ – ‘if she notices anything strange’, she shares it with Alisa. Being very quiet generally, Alisa chats with her best friend, Cathy; however, in these chats Cathy initiates talking to Alisa and she replies. Alisa does not start conversations by herself.

The girls’ friendship would not be especially salient if it was not for the concern expressed by the staff. The class teacher, the TA, and even the deputy head – all want to talk to me about this friendship. The main reason, the class teacher says, is that Cathy is ‘confident in that friendship and I would like Alisa to lead a bit more rather than follow’, in order to ‘have the balance a bit more for this’. In order to achieve this, the teacher notes (10 November),

We’ve changed the tables, to try and sit her with other children, to try and more of friendship, coz she seems to sit with certain person on that table, and I think it would be good for her to break away from certain children, to get to know other children. So that’s why we’ve deliberately changed the tables around her.

Later on (27 January), the TA comes in the classroom and asks me to go out to have a word with her. She asks me, if I noticed anything suspicious with Alisa and Cathy, and whether Alisa feels that Cathy pressurises her because ‘Cathy can sometimes pressurise the girls and make them do what she wants’. Surprisingly, she adds that Cathy speaks about me (the researcher) ‘constantly’
to the teacher and TA. The reason they ask me about Alisa and Cathy is that they ‘want to make sure everyone is happy’ in the school; I re-assure her that Alisa seems happy in that friendship. Cathy reveals her alienation towards me, as I am becoming more acquainted with her best friend. She whispers about me to Alisa, as the TA reveals, possibly, that Cathy is jealous of my presence. Cathy even throws my iPad, recorder, and a notebook on the floor in the middle of the classroom the moment I am not paying attention to them. I pick up my things, not saying anything, realising that, firstly, it was my fault for not watching my possessions. Secondly, while hoping for my electronic notes to survive the fall, I wonder whether this has anything to do with my presence here for Alisa or it is just that I left the iPad in an unexpected place, which frustrated Cathy.

Cathy is always kind to Alisa, as Alisa says, as opposed to some other girls in her class. On 14 December for the first time Alisa reports being sad in school and tells me about bullying incidents, which happen in break time. Cathy and Alisa experience bullying in school in the form of social exclusion. Alisa shares that other pupils refuse to accept them in their group: ‘Мы не хотим с вами играть’ – ‘We don’t want to play with you’. These girls ‘иногда они плохое говорят’ – ‘sometimes say bad things’ to Alisa, such as ‘такое глупой слово, которое называется “заткнитесь”’ – ‘the silly phrase, which is called “shut your mouth”’, telling Alisa to leave when she was with Cathy. Alisa says that at some point the bullying improved but then started again. Later, Alisa says that the girls stopped doing these things. Although Alisa reports being happy with Cathy, and mentions repeated bullying, the teacher has a different opinion of this friendship and had not noticed any bullying. At the end of the year, the teacher says, that Alisa ‘is more confident in general with other children’ but not with Cathy, as the teacher tacitly states, ‘I think probably with particular children or child I think that relationship is one that is still... quite hard to...[break]’. Alisa’s social relationships are, thus, characterised by a distinctive friendship with a pupil with SEN in the class, not having many other social ties (analysed in 10.4.4 and discussed in 11.5.2.1), and instances of bullying (discussed in 11.5.2.2) in the form of social exclusion when Alisa is with her friend with SEN.

7.5 Case summary

The main findings in Alisa’s case are:

- Alisa expressed having an excellent experience of learning in the L2 school, preferring non-academic subjects and break-time. Alisa made great progress across the subjects, particularly in L2 writing. Assessment was distinctive, with marks substituted by letters and Dojo points. L2 literacy was the weakest subject; mathematics was the strongest subject. Challenges were linked with L2 literacy which was used in mathematics.
• Her mother expressed a need for clearer curriculum guidance and consistency in the homework to be able to support Alisa’s learning in cases of her misunderstanding the learning material. Alisa’s mother had a salient impact on Alisa’s motivations.

• Alisa showed avoidance and low participation in learning, particularly in all-class discussions, but not in individual activities. A strong motivation for praise and approval was identified.

• Alisa expressed a lack of L2 motivation for speaking, but not for story-writing, silent reading, and L2 as a language generally. Alisa reported dreams of being ‘important in school’, having freedom, recreation, and have joyful things (games, cakes, sweets).

• Alisa had submissive, hesitant, and quiet social behaviour in school (but not at home and in the interviews) with increased sensitivity about making mistakes and potential criticism.

• Alisa’s sole social relationship was with a pupil with SEN. Alisa was also bullied (socially excluded) together with her friend with SEN.
Chapter 8  Katerina

8.1 Introduction

This is the fourth embedded case – Katerina. Katerina is a pupil from Russia, who attends a state-funded primary school in London (see Table 8.1). There are a class teacher and two TAs in this class. The class teacher in Year 3 was also Katerina’s class teacher in Year 2. One TA supports the whole class and conducts reading interventions outside of class with some pupils, including Katerina, whereas the second TA supports one pupil with learning needs who sits at a table with Katerina. During the study Katerina also has weekly reading interventions outside of class with a visiting external teacher. Katerina has been allocated specific seats in different lessons, sitting with either five or four other pupils. During the year of the data collection, she starts having weekly private lessons with an English tutor arranged by her mother to help Katerina with her L2. Katerina has a child-minder who takes her home after school and helps with her homework. Katerina’s grandmother also engages with the school about Katerina’s education. Every time I come in to school, Katerina is very talkative and cheerful with me.

Table 8.1 Katerina’s background information

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Russia</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 Year</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in the UK at the start of the data collection</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Economics and law degree, and an accountancy degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling in a Russian-speaking school</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous exposure to English</td>
<td>No, ‘Absolute Beginner’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL provision/specialist in the L2 school</td>
<td>No, intervention classes are conducted by the class TA/visiting teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s Curriculum</td>
<td>National Curriculum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In agreement with the other cases, the data are presented thematically: the three main overarching themes (and also sections) are Experiences, Motivations, and Social behaviour and relationships.
in the L2 school. The subthemes are the codes which emerge in the data. The first section raises
the issues in terms of the learning experiences comprising language-related issues, difficulties in
learning, and learning support issues.

8.2 Experiences in the L2 School

8.2.1 L1 issues

The L1 issues in Katerina’s case are distinctive, which emerge when I come in to conduct
participant observations. I ask her about her initial experiences of learning (3 November):

L: Расскажи мне, как ты учишь английский, когда ты сюда приехала, тебе тяжело
было?
K: Очень.

L: Tell me how you learn English. When you came here, was it difficult for you?
K: Very.

We communicate in Russian at the beginning of the study. Katerina says to me in Russian in
school: ‘Я обожаю говорить по-русски’ – ‘I adore speaking Russian’, while telling me about
her classmates or commenting on what happens (17 October). In the initial interview, Katerina
shares that she is not allowed to speak Russian in school (20 October):

L: How do you feel being Russian in your school? Why?
K: Плохо. Ругают часто, когда я говорю по-русски.

K: Bad. I get scolded a lot when I speak Russian.

She is not the only pupil, as any use of the Russian language or other languages apart from English
is prohibited for all pupils in this school. At the end of the first month of observations (31
October), I receive the following e-mail from the school’s SENCO:

I understand that at times you speak Russian with Katerina. We encourage children to
speak English whilst in school and would only want Katerina to use her first language
when she really doesn’t understand the concept explained in English. When you’re in
next, it would be helpful to discuss with [teacher’s name] the circumstances in which
you might speak Russian with Katerina.

The following day we discuss with the class teacher the times when I could use Russian (during
the interviews) and I am told that I must speak English because of safety reasons: ‘if anything
happened then none of the adults would be able to help you [the researcher]’. While this shows
the school’s unusual behaviour, the meaning of such safety issues or any further comment about
this is not communicated to me. While oblivious to what was behind these regulations about the L1, but requiring the acquiescence of the school to continue collecting the data, I agree not to use L1 in lessons.

As a result of this, Katerina becomes sad (expressed verbally and non-verbally) when she is not allowed to use Russian with me anymore in lessons (3 November). However, despite this, Katerina wants to keep speaking Russian with me, and so, in November, when I talk to her in English, she says, that she does not understand me. I explain two more times in English, and she says, ‘Я не понимаю’ – ‘I don’t understand you’ (4 November). In December, Katerina still speaks quietly in Russian to me. She raises her hand, saying to me ‘Мне надо спросить учителя’ – ‘I need to ask the teacher’ (12 December) and then says in Russian, ‘Всё!’ – ‘That’s all!’ when she finishes the task. All that day I speak in English and she replies in Russian. During the interview on 13 December, Katerina describes her drawing of her dream about school (Figure 8.1), which includes a horse (to the right) that flies to school and speaks Russian.

Figure 8.1 A horse that flies to school and speaks Russian

In February during my observations, the teacher and the TAs come in and tell the class that somebody has said that Katerina speaks Russian with a new girl from Bulgaria. I confirm that she is able to do this because some words in these two languages are similar. The teacher then says that he will tell Katerina to speak ‘ONLY [emphasis] in English’ (3 February). The school does not allow using L1 even for new arrivals who are completely new to English, such as this girl from Bulgaria. Later, after this conversation, the teacher tells Katerina that if she spoke Russian
again her name would go on the board. This means of disciplining pupils implies having shorter breaks and a points reduction. From this point, Katerina obeys this rule when speaking aloud. However, she still whispers in Russian to me in lessons, notably when she asks for help as seen in the episodes that follow. In one lesson Katerina asks me, ‘Олена, помоги помоги помоги помоги!’ – ‘Олена, help help help help!’ I help. In that task Katerina does not understand what is required of her at all. After I have helped her, she rushes to perform another task. Before leaving, Katerina hugs me and says, ‘Я люблю тебя’ – ‘I love you’ (2 February).

Another day Katerina sits to write a test. She turns to me and whispers in Russian, ‘Все в порядке там?’ ‘Is everything all right there? [In her writing]. There is no dictionary on her desk, so she cannot check by herself (3 February). Later that day, Katerina turns to me, asking, ‘Олена, посмотрите!’ – ‘Олена, look!’ (Shows her book and whispers in Russian). I say, ‘Katerina, я не могу тебе помогать, это оценка’ – ‘Katerina I can’t help you, this is an assessment’. Katerina says, ‘Просто посмотрите’ – ‘Just look [without helping]’. The teacher announces that three minutes are left, and Katerina starts writing rapidly.

In Katerina mother’s opinion, the school prohibits speaking Russian in school because ‘они хотят просто слышать, о чем вы говорите’ – ‘they just want to hear what you are talking about’ (3 November). This discloses, as part of a wider monolingual ideology, a view on migrant children’s L1 as potentially ‘unhealthy’ and ‘hazardous’, something which needs to be kept under control and surveillance. In the context of the school’s prohibition of the L1 and Katerina’s resistance against it (I fully cross-analyse the L1-related issues in 10.2.3 and interpret in 11.2.4), a further issue involves difficulties in English, specifically, ‘educational’ English and the attainment difficulties for Katerina in the core subjects.

8.2.2 Difficulties in learning and in English

The data also revealed that Katerina has issues in learning and in English. At the end of the 2015/2016 academic year (approximately a half a year prior to the start of the study), her mother was informed that the school was going to include Katerina on the ‘disabled educational list’ (her mother’s words). The mother says, that the school tried to persuade her to be on the list as Katerina would be given more attention and help, and that it was a good thing for her to be on the list, which her mother opposed and asked for a psychological assessment to be conducted with Katerina (Interview with the mother, 3 November). Katerina was given some tests by the school’s SENCO and, as her mother says, ‘у неё не выявили никаких проблем...э-э educational issues [in English]. Никаких нет. Кроме того, что, вот, понимание языка’ – ‘they didn’t find any problems... educational issues. There were none, except for the understanding of the educational language’ (Interview with the mother, 22 May). This ‘не понимание educational language’ –
‘misunderstanding of the educational language’ (addressed in the discussion in 11.2.5) involved, as her mother says (3 November):

Например, ей дают задания, она читает. Она не понимает, она не знает как делать. Как только ей задания перефразируют на более лёгкий язык – все! Она понимает. Все, заключения больше никакого не было.

For instance, she is given tasks, she reads. She does not understand what to do. As soon as these tasks are paraphrased for her using easier language – that’s it! She understands. That is all, there was nothing else in the summary of the assessment.

In learning Katerina has achievement difficulties, which are linked to the accessibility of classroom language in English. In terms of her attainment, her teacher says (4 November),

In writing she is in my lowest group. (...) Reading… she is in the lowest, but her reading’s really come on, she is making a lot of progress at the moment. But that’s because she is going with [TA’s name], so I think that’s a good example of a good intervention that’s going on (...). In maths... she is in the lowest group... but out of those three... that the big subjects, reading is her strongest.

(…)

So, she is on the lowest table. So, we do that for writing, reading, and maths. But the creative curriculum thing... like all the art this afternoon... that is a mixed group and I am trying to..., so with Katerina’s group, she deliberately has [name of a boy] who is a really good model for English. So, she’d be getting some good language in there. [Another boys’ name], that you haven’t met yet, is really chatty. So, there is lots of English going on...

It is interesting here that the teacher ascribes Katerina’s progress to the interventions (discussed in 11.2.1). Furthermore, the teacher explains the seating arrangements, inter alia, revealing his academic expectations as regards Katerina. The seating arrangement is done (4 November):

To make sure they have a good model of English and it's also he is very intelligent, he is very able. Whereas I know she isn’t. So, it’s about trying to mix up friendships, mix up ability, mix up language, and trying to get all these things together. So, there is a bit of a jigsaw puzzle. So, every table’s got a bit of a balance.

It is clear from the interview that Katerina has achievement issues in all subjects alongside her L2 level learning issues. The teacher also points out the facets of Katerina’s learning (4 November):
Since I’ve taught Katerina, I think her understanding of English has been good, eh, and I don’t think it has an impact on her behaviour, and her learning, to an extent. I think there are certain elements, when it’s a kind of instructional thing, that you hear every day, all those things, I think she’s got that. When it’s the more cognitive…

(…) She’s got the… she’s got the social side and she’s got the basic language of learning, but actually that deep cognitive learning, she hasn’t got, and I would be interested to see if I gave her the same activity… Maths is a good example… if I gave her an activity to do in Russian, would she do better than she would in English, like would that actually do a difference in their learning?

Her teacher does not implement this idea in his teaching. The teacher summarises that Katerina has difficulties when ‘it’s more like… more than one step… or there are more elements to think about’ (4 November). An example of this in lessons is when the teacher asks a question about a task, Katerina raises her hand and says, ‘After the question one needs to write an answer’. The teacher says, ‘It is a good answer, Katerina but there should be some thinking going on’. In another episode, the teacher asks questions about the text that they have just read, and children say ‘tricky’ words they don’t know. Children raise their hands to discuss the words ‘passionate’, ‘sociable’, ‘rebelled’, and ‘heroine’. Katerina looks at the teacher and does not raise her hand or say anything.

It is clear from the data that the teacher highlights Katerina’s issues, which stem from the cognitive (abstract thinking, process of learning through thought) dimension, as well as her language issues. The teacher, however, does not link them together: cognition with the language of the learning environment or any other aspects of her learning environment. While highlighting the lack of knowledge about the language development of migrant children by the teacher, this denotes the deficiencies of the teacher training and wider national policies overlooking and thus downplaying the fundamental aspects of L2 development of migrant children: language, cognitive development, and learning environment are all closely intertwined. Another aggravating issue relates, as the teacher says, to Katerina’s maturity (4 November):

When I compare her to the rest of the class and look at the maturity levels of her… and then someone like… [girl’s name]. Do you know [girl’s name]? There’s a BIG [emphasis] difference in the way that they just kind of deal with their friends and everything else. So even if we think about [a boy’s name] and [a boy’s name], the way they are different, and the way they approach things and their kind of maturity, hers is still very much like she could be in Year 2.
Here again, Katerina is portrayed as someone who has personal ‘problems’ external to the school and independent of her other learning issues, including language development and attitudes towards her L1 (cross-analysed in 10.2.1 and discussed in 11.2.1 and 11.2.4).

8.2.3 Literacy
This section details Katerina’s language-related experiences. At the time of the study Katerina is socially confident and fluent in spoken English and Russian. The issues I have discussed so far comprise learning English or learning using English in lessons. Katerina has a ‘проблема со спеллингом’ – ‘problem with spelling’, as her mother and her teacher indicate. When Katerina must write, it is hard for her to do so without help from others, as juxtaposed with speaking, which is easy and natural (based on observations and her mother’s reports). Katerina speaks like a ‘native English speaker’, as her mother says (3 November).

In observations it is clear that Katerina can write in English, however, she makes many mistakes in her writing, which is marked meticulously. In her writing Katerina forgets to use capital letters at the beginning of the sentences, and the teacher reminds her, saying that she should write slower but more accurately. Katerina hits herself on the head and keeps writing. Katerina does not write properly even though the teacher thinks she should, and he shouts at her for mistakes. The teacher tells Katerina that she needs to correct the capital letters and full stops, and strictly says that, otherwise, her ‘name will go on the board’, which is a form of punishment. Katerina starts to mark and write quickly (15 November). Figure 8.2 is an example of marking where every mistake is

![Figure 8.2 An example of marked writing: 13 January](image-url)
marked meticulously, including paragraphs’ alignment, capital letters, repeated words, etc. The teacher corrects ‘his’ to ‘the’, which, as is clear from the context of her writing, is not a grammatical error and could have been accepted. In the second month of observations (November), when Katerina goes to her teacher to show him her writing, he sends her back, saying, ‘Your spelling is not correct, go and correct it’. Katerina goes back and starts asking me about every word she writes, whether it is written correctly, which denotes her anxiety and fear about being punished for mistakes in L2. Katerina’s writing in L2 is in the process of development, but the teacher’s punitive approach to correction and accuracy contributes to Katerina’s dislike of writing in English. It becomes clear in the data that as a result of such an assessment approach, Katerina finds writing arduous and frightening. She even refuses to write in two interviews during the study as seen from the following example (15 November):

K: Я не знаю, как писать по-русски.
L: Ага, ну напиши по-английски.
K: Я тоже не знаю.

K: I don’t know how to write in Russian.
L: Okay, well write in English.
K: I don’t know either.

Reading is challenging for Katerina too. As her mother (22 May) says, if something is difficult for her, she will not do it ‘даже если книгу она читает...если эта книга сложная, она читать ее не будет. Она не хочет’ – ‘even if she is reading a book...if the book is difficult, she will not read it. She doesn’t want to’. A visiting intervention teacher, who helps Katerina with reading, tells me that Katerina is very confident in reading, and she does not understand why she needs to help her. In one such intervention in January, Katerina can choose a book to read by herself and she brings in ‘Little Red Riding Hood’ to which the teacher says that this is not really for her age, ‘the book is for a four-year-old. Do you like this one?’ the teacher asks. Katerina nods and starts reading it, which she does confidently and looks engaged. In the following month, the teacher allows choosing any book to read; Katerina brings books about butterflies and says that she will only look at the pictures. When Katerina reads at home, she skips pages, but when her child-minder noticed this, she started trying to make her retell what she has read which, her child-minder says, she does well when she is reading, rather than flicking through pages.

Instead of trying to tackle reading, Katerina tries to avoid books challenging for her level of reading and prefers to choose books below her L2 level. This is clearly similar to her fear and avoidance of writing which might have been caused by the learning environment of the L2 school, including, for example, her teacher’s punitive assessment approach. I cross-analyse it in 10.2.1
and discuss it as part of the assessment of migrant pupils in my study in 11.2.3.) In class, when the teacher asks about the meaning of the material pupils have just read, Katerina says, ‘I don’t know’. The teacher exclaims, ‘I have just told you, Katerina!’ (12 January). Evidently, the teacher punishes Katerina for her lack of understanding, and, therefore, for her L2 development (and her essence as a multicompetent person). The extent of Katerina’s reading difficulties is that she seems to have dyslexia according to her mother: Katerina has the ‘признаки дислексии налицо’ – ‘evident signs of dyslexia’. However, her private tutor, who is dyslexic, says that she does not have the signs of dyslexia, as her mother adds. When Katerina was assessed by a SEN specialist, no dyslexia was identified, which shows that reading issues for Katerina are psychological or sociocultural, rather than physical and ‘natural’. Literacy experiences are analysed in 10.2.3 and discussed in 11.2.5.

8.2.4 Learning support issues
Another significant issue relates to the support in learning. Although Katerina attends different reading intervention classes with her TA and with a visiting external teacher, she says that she does not receive constant support in lessons. There is no dictionary or any other aid on her desk on a regular basis. On 17 January Katerina reveals some issues with the way she is supported in lessons and her competence in learning:

L: Ты чувствуешь, что ты можешь сделать что-то очень легко на уроке?
K: Нет.
L: А что ты делаешь, если ты не можешь сделать что-то?
K: Математика!
L: А что ты делаешь, если ты не можешь сделать? Ты говоришь учителю, да?
K: Нет.
L: Просто молчишь?
K: Да-да-да.

L: Do you feel that you can accomplish something very easily in lessons?
K: No.
L: What do you do if you can’t do something?
K: Maths!
L: What do you do, if you can’t do something? Do you tell your teacher?
K: No.
L: Do you just keep quiet?
K: Yes, yes, yes.
In observations, it is clear that Katerina is afraid to ask questions, as she gets shouted at for being distracted and for asking. Teachers assume Katerina’s understanding, interpreting her distractions as misbehaviour. Katerina’s fear in learning and a lack of support is evidenced when she asks me if I will come after lunch (28 February). She almost cries, she begs me to come back. I ask her, ‘Why?’, and she says that it would be very difficult for her in science. I then promise to come. On 14 March I ask Katerina:

L: Скажи мне, кто тебе помогает на уроке?
K: Никто. Кроме тебя.

L: Tell me, who helps you in lessons?

Later in March she also tells me, ‘Без тебя мне плохо’ – ‘I feel bad without you’. And when I ask her why, she says, ‘Никто мне никогда больше не помогает, кроме тебя!’ – ‘Nobody ever helps me anymore, except you!’ In another interview, Katerina reveals that she does not enjoy her learning, because of her lack of understanding and support:

L: Какая самая лучшая вещь в учёбе?
K: Бе-бе!

L: Какая самая лучшая вещь в учёбе английскому?
K: Э-э playtime.

L: А какая тебе вообще не нравится?
K: Mathematics.

L: Почему?
K: Вчера я не знала как делать это, потому что тебя не было!

L: What is the best thing in learning?
K: Yuck!

L: What is the best thing in learning English?
K: Ehh playtime.

L: And what is something you don’t like at all?
K: Mathematics.

L: Why?
K: Yesterday, I didn’t know how to do it, because you were not there!

In both our interviews on 3 November and 22 May her mother says that she is concerned whether Katerina gets the necessary attention and care in school:
The only thing which I would emphasise is that I wish they would pay more attention to what Katerina has difficulties with...eh specifically, in subjects. If she has problems, helping her in this.

Although the school started supporting Katerina through weekly reading interventions during the data collection, it does not seem to solve the problems in her learning; as her mother says, ‘как она не понимает, э-э-э, заданий, вот этот educational language [in English], так она и stagnate в этом’ – ‘As she didn’t understand the educational language, as she still stagnates in it’. These concerns highlight the need for consistent, in-class support for Katerina’s learning as essential for her well-being and progress. I further analyse learning support in 10.2.2 and discuss it in 11.2.2.

8.3 Motivations in the L2 school

This section involves the findings pertaining to Katerina’s motivations in learning, starting with her interests and feelings about school and learning (fully interpreted in 11.4).

8.3.1 Interest in and feelings about the school and learning

On 3 November, Katerina conveys that she does not like school, which she repeats throughout the study in February, March, and May:

L: Тебе нравится школа?
K: Нет!
L: Почему?
K: Иногда только, когда ты приходишь! Больше никогда!

L: Do you like school?
K: No!
L: Why not?
K: Sometimes only, when you come! No other time!

When I ask Katerina in December about her learning, she says that she has learned nothing that day. In our interview in the same month (13 December) Katerina writes that there is ‘ничего’ – ‘nothing’ she would like to learn in the following lesson (Figure 8.3), which reveals her low interest in learning. She also writes ‘zeros’ in all the questions about liking or disliking and feelings. However, she does rank her L2 level in this technique highly, as if saying, ‘My progress in English is very high’. This might mean that Katerina does not feel that her L2 is valued in the school as her (even seemingly insignificant) achievements in L2 are not acknowledged.
Katerina says in January that she would prefer to stay at home instead of school. At the end of February, she restates that she does not like school tasks and learning. When I ask her in a different interview, what she liked in her school, she thinks for a second and says (28 February):

K: I liked... I liked...
L: Читать? Писать? [Reading? Writing?]
K: I liked...playing with you. I liked you.

The favourite part of the lessons for Katerina, which she repeats in two interviews, is the end because ‘когда конец урока, мы можем идти домой’ – ‘when it’s the end of lesson, we can go home’. In March, she says that she does not like school because ‘там всегда надо трудные [темы] все учить’ – ‘there [in school] one always needs to learn difficult things’. Learning is inaccessible and therefore an unhappy experience for Katerina. I cross-analyse this in 10.3.1 and discuss in 11.4.1.

### 8.3.2 Approval/praise and academic motivation

A salient motivation in Katerina’s learning is praise/approval and academic motivation (analysed in 10.3.2 and interpreted, inter alia, in 11.4.1). In observations, Katerina expresses a need for praise, and that it is important for her to appear that she is coping well with her learning. An illustrative episode of Katerina’s strong need for praise is the following extract from my observations (15 November):

Katerina does not focus today and looks fatigued. The teacher asks her which questions she is working on, to which she does not reply. The teacher then writes her
name on the board (something that Katerina fears). After this, Katerina starts raising her hand and writes on the board, and the teacher says, “Oh, you didn’t forget “pence”, good girl”. Then Katerina sits on the carpet, looking content with herself.

The mother also describes Katerina’s liking for acknowledgement (3 November):

Она очень любит награды получать, когда её хвалят, стикеры. И она ждёт, когда она будет “Star of the week” и именно она хочет ... она же знает, на что мы обращаем внимание, чему мы её учим, угу, что нужно делать. Она старается и если она получает награду за её старания, [ей] очень нравится.

She likes to receive awards, when she is praised, stickers. And she awaits when she can be the “Star of the week” and she wants ...she knows what we pay attention to, what we teach her, eh, what needs to be done. She tries to work hard, and if she gets rewarded for her endeavours, [she] likes it very much.

In one episode on 17 January, Katerina writes asking me to check if she has written it correctly. Then she looks at the teacher and turns two pages further ahead from where she has been just writing, pointing: ‘I am here already’ [explicitly lying]. She lies in order to show to the teacher that she has done so much, exemplifying her strong need to be praised by her teacher. However, when I ask Katerina whether it is important to study well in school, her responses vary: Katerina says that it is unimportant for her to study well in November, December, and May. In February, Katerina admits the importance of studying well in school, but she says that she is not aware why exactly she needs to do it. In the sixth month of observations (March), Katerina says that it is important for her to study well in school because ‘Если я не буду знать ничего, тогда меня просто выгонят на улицу!’ – ‘If I don’t know anything, I will be simply kicked out to the street!’

Even though she does not understand the reasons for trying to do well in school (apart from avoiding punishments), it discloses, as previously stated, that she understands very well that if she does not study well, then she will not be accepted and valued for who she is by her school.

8.3.3 Escaping learning

Apart from trying to get praise at all costs (even if it means being sly and telling a lie), a lot of the motivations for Katerina are directed at the avoidance of learning. When I tell Katerina in November that after the interview we will go back to class, she exclaims, ‘Her! Лучше помедлей!’ – ‘No! Better slower!’ At the end of the interview, Katerina tries to talk more, quickly changing the topics. She also asks to have more than one interview a day. Another time in December Katerina also does not want to finish the interview and go back to class, trying to prolong the activity we were doing. At this point I am not entirely sure, whether she greatly enjoys our interviews or she is trying to escape being in class. In January, however, Katerina admits that
she does not like difficult tasks, which in observations she tries to avoid. This signifies the reason behind trying to have more interviews. Katerina reveals that when something is hard, she switches to something else. She repeats it in three interviews. During one of the morning interviews in February, Katerina asks me, ‘А можно на ланч или брейк или ланч, можно пойти с тобой? После, когда я покучаю...Можно?’ – ‘Can I, during lunch or break, or lunch, can I go with you? After I eat... Can I?’ We do not have interviews twice in a day, and I explain this to Katerina. Another morning she asks me, ‘When are we going to speak Russian?’ We only speak Russian during the interviews. I say, ‘Tomorrow’. Being unable to use L1 in class, this emphasises Katerina’s deep wish to speak her L1 and a probable cause of her avoidance in learning. On 22 May (the last month of observations) we have the following conversation:

L: [Мы закончим] И ты пойдёшь на арт [назад в класс].
K: НЕТ УЖ [ударение]! Я хочу с тобой ещё! С тобой делать и тут.
(…)
K: Ты же моя самая любимая учительница!
L: Да? Так я ж не учительница!
K: Учительница! Ты меня учишь-учишь, пока школа не закончится!
L: Ага! Ха-ха-ха! Так я ж тебя не учу!
K: Учишь-учишь, пока школа не закончится!
L: [We finish] And you will go to art [back to classroom].
K: NO WAY [emphasis]! I want with you more! With you to do and here.
(…)
K: You are my most favourite teacher!
L: Oh yes? But I am not your teacher!
K: Teacher! You teach! Teach me until the school finishes!
L: Ah! Ha-ha-ha! But I am not teaching you!
K: [You] Teach! Teach until the school finishes.

It is clear that Katerina consistently expresses no wish to learn or to be in the classroom (further analysed in 10.3.1 and discussed in 11.4.3).

8.3.4 Interest and feelings about learning L2 and mathematics

Here I detail Katerina’s interests and attitudes in relation to learning English and mathematics, including Katerina’s views on the importance of learning English. In alliance with general learning, Katerina does not report feeling happy or engaged in learning English and mathematics. On 20 October Katerina says that she likes the English language, as opposed to learning the English language:
Л: Тебе нравится английский язык?
К: Да!
Л: Тебе нравится говорить больше или писать?
К: Э-э-э говорить!
Л: А почему писать не нравится?
К: Потому что это... рука устаёт (с улыбкой)!

L: Do you like the English language?
K: Yes!
L: Do you like speaking or writing more?
K: Eh, speaking!
L: Why don’t you like writing?
K: Because of this... hand gets tired (smiles looking cheeky)!

Her mother says that Katerina’s attitude towards English or moving to England has not been discussed with her, because Katerina has no choice in any case. From November through February when I ask Katerina if she is willing to learn English by herself or somebody tells her to, Katerina says, ‘меня заставляют’ – ‘I am forced’ to learn. I ask her more regarding learning English (13 December):

Л: А тебе нравится изучать английский?
К: Нет.
Л: А если бы ты выбирала, ты бы не учила его больше?
К: Да.

L: Do you like learning English?
K: No.
L: If you could choose, would you stop learning it?
K: Yes.

Katerina says that her experience of learning English in school is ‘очень плохой’ – ‘very bad’. Being aware of her low achievement and issues, Katerina repeats that she does not like learning English and that she is bad at English, which she repeats from January through March. Alongside this, in January and in the February interviews, surprisingly, Katerina delineates learning English from literacy and says that she likes literacy because ‘литература это просто stories писать’ – ‘literacy is just writing stories’ (17 January). I ask Katerina about her most favourite activity or thing in English lessons, and she says that having our interviews is her most favourite thing: ’эм... с тобой!’ – ‘eh... with you!’ (28 February). Katerina naturally enjoys accessible and engaging
activities for her L2 level (stories) as opposed to L2 learning, which undermine her sense of security and well-being.

Despite these issues, Katerina’s least favourite subject, she claims, is mathematics rather than English, as she reports in February. In the mathematics lesson in October Katerina does not look at the board and demonstrates that she is happy by raising both her arms when mathematics finishes and pupils go to computing. In another mathematics lesson when the teacher asks pupils to evaluate their work and raise a thumb up or down, Katerina points her thumb down. She does it at a different time as well. On 14 March she states, ‘я ненавижу maths’ – ‘I hate maths’. These show that Katerina feels threatened and oppressed in learning L2 and mathematics, reflecting the results of the meticulous assessment approach (discussed in 11.2.3) of the school and her teacher. I analyse and discuss Katerina’s motivations in English and mathematics in 10.3.3 and 11.4.2, respectively.

8.3.5 Dreams and wishes in learning

Another significant aspect of motivations is Katerina’s dreams and wishes in school and in learning. The main dream of Katerina in learning English is to have ‘good langwig’ as she writes in her drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ (Figure 8.4), in order to ‘говорить на двух языках’ – ‘speak two languages’ when Katerina grows up. However, she is uncertain why exactly she wants to speak these two languages. In the same drawing in terms of learning in other subjects, Katerina emphasises mathematics, writing a number sentence (‘100+1000=100000’) which, as she explains, is something Katerina would like to be able to solve. Katerina’s dreams about learning closely align here with her actual issues in learning in L2 and in mathematics. Another dream of Katerina is as follows (3 November):

![Figure 8.4 Katerina’s ‘Hopes and dreams’: 3 November](image)
K: Я нарисую щас тебе что. Вот это стол школьный, учителей. У нас, у нас были учителя. Но очень строгие, но мы его не слушали, мы просто стояли и играли тут, и другие дети – они просто стояли на столах (смеётся).
L: Это мечта такая?
K: Да, вот это я мечтаю больше всего, чтобы случилось с школой.

K: I will draw for you now. Here is the school table, teachers. We had, we had a teacher. But very strict, but we didn’t listen to him, we were just standing and playing here, and other children – they just stood on tables (laughs).
L: Is this your dream?
K: Yes, this is what I dream about the most to happen in the school.

Katerina repeats this scenario in three successive months: for example, describing her drawing on 13 December:

Чтобы вот тут прям школа! И (выбирает фломастер) тут стол, тут стол, и тут стол у каждого и хи-хи-хи-хи Я! [Имена учеников в её классе] Вот мы щас все прыгнем на стуле и на столе! А вот я!

So that the school is just here! And (chooses a felt-tip pen) so that a table is here and here everyone has and ha-ha-ha-ha (giggle) Me! [Names of pupils in her class] Here and we all jump on the chair and on the table! And here is me!

In January’s interview Katerina wishes in school, ‘Чтобы все люди играли на столах и стояли, и прыгали’ – ‘So that all people played on tables and standing and jumping’ (17 January). In the same interview Katerina says that she has no hopes or dreams linked with English. On 3 February, Katerina indicates she has no wishes about English, except mentioning a wish not to be late for school and ‘Чтобы я прыгала на столах! Ха-ха-ха-ха!’ (Злобно) – ‘So that I could jump on the desks! Ha-ha-ha-ha!’ (Angrily). In the second interview in February (Figure 8.5), Katerina says that she wishes that the desks would come to life and jump around the classroom and that she does not have any other wishes in school. On 14 March, Katerina reports that she does not have
any dreams linked with English but says that she wishes she was going home, where her mother would cook something in their garden.

Figure 8.5 Drawing of Katerina’s dream: 28 February

Overall, apart from mentioning dreams related to proficiency in English and mathematics in our first interview, Katerina seems to wish for agency or freedom in school (jumping on tables) embodying her rebelliousness against or rejection of her teacher’s authoritative style. I discuss Katerina’s hopes and dreams in learning in Chapter 11 section 11.4.4.1, having compared and contrasted them with other cases in the cross-case analysis in 10.3.4.

8.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 School

This section presents the findings regarding the overarching theme of Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school, consisting of the analysis of the peculiarities of Katerina’s behaviour, relationships with the teachers and peers including bullying instances (discussed in 11.5). I start with Katerina’s behavioural peculiarities in school (‘I am naughty’). This section is compared and contrasted with other cases in 10.4.2 and interpreted in 11.5.1.2.

8.4.1 ‘I am naughty!’

Katerina’s behaviour in and outside of class is characterised by contradiction. The first glimpse of Katerina’s behaviour appears during my observations when the class and I are going on a school trip (14 November):

> During a school trip to the Museum of London, I am one of the helpers. The teachers have assigned four pupils for me to supervise including Katerina. The teacher tells me, “You have three kids, they won’t give you trouble, and you have KATERINA… [emphasis] (laughs)”, adding “because that’s why you are here. Is that all right?”
On the way back to school, Katerina speaks louder and louder and the TA disciplines her and her friend. Then she tells the TA that he is ‘Mister Naughty Boy’. These incidents denote a stigmatising view of Katerina from her teachers as someone who can ‘give trouble’ and Katerina’s own insolence daring to address the TA in such a familiar way, to some extent equalling herself to his ‘adult’ position. In another example, in a lesson about Christmas on 3 November, the teacher asks for a word that starts with the letter ‘T’ about gifts. Katerina raises her hand and says, ‘Terrifying Christmas’ (smiles). The TA says, ‘Typical Katerina’. The teacher is unhappy with this: ‘Please think about it again, Katerina. It is not nice’. In an episode in March, when the children are writing poems, inter alia, Katerina starts quietly kicking her class-mate under the table, which makes him so upset that he is almost about to cry and complains to me, so she stops. Katerina herself admits that she does not behave well sometimes, saying, ‘Я naughty!’ – ‘I am naughty!’ (20 October).

In contrast, in a reading intervention on 15 November, the teacher says that Katerina partner’s reading is very good, and Katerina adds, ‘Brilliant!’!, being kind to this boy. The teacher says (to the boy), ‘Do you think you are at the top of the class?’ The boy is silent, and then the teacher says, ‘What do you think, Katerina?’ Katerina says, ‘Yes’, praising this pupil again. Another time, when counting using coins in mathematics, a boy next to Katerina cannot find the right amount and calculates slowly. Katerina has done it quickly and tells him, selflessly giving her coins, ‘Here, take mine!’ As juxtaposed with such kindness and being ‘good’, Katerina’s behavioural issues, which she interestingly admits herself, resemble a defensive reaction against the L2 learning environment and challenging relationships in this environment, which I present further.

### 8.4.2 Relationship with the TA

Katerina has atypical and stigmatising relationships with her TA and class teacher, which are revealed in the first month of observations when the TA tells Katerina, ‘You’re behaving well today’. Then he turns to me and says, ‘She is on her best behaviour. She is not usually like this’. Katerina, who is next to me and hears this comment, points scissors in her hand at the TA and says (smiling), ‘I will cut your hair off’ (goes red). The TA then says, ‘Here. This is more like Katerina’. In the same month, I witness the following episode (17 October):

```
TA sits at our table and Katerina says, “Oh my God” (in English, looking disappointed) [falling tone].
TA: Why are you saying, “Oh my God”? L: Why are you saying this? (I ask Katerina in Russian). K: I don’t like him, here. This one (points at the TA). He calls me “Tornado” (In Russian, but the word “tornado” in English).
```
TA (to me): Teach me some Russian so that I could discipline Katerina.
Katerina (reacting to the TA’s words, she growls like an animal): Grrrrrr!

In this dialogue, apart from exemplifying tensions, the TA considers using her L1 as an instrument of punishment. If enforced, this would clearly be damaging for Katerina’s bilingual self and overall well-being. It is still harmful in that it is expressed as an intention and a threat in Katerina’s presence, who may not treat it the same way as an adult would, as she is not yet at the age of seven able to appropriately gauge and proportionately deal with the level of hostility as opposed to playful mockery.

It does not surprise me when during one of our interviews on 12 December, she draws the TA lying on the floor because, as she says, ‘он упал’ – ‘he fell’. On 20 January I observe another episode of communication between Katerina and the TA:

I go out of the classroom for a few minutes. When I come back, she asks me, “Это правда, что Мистер [имя ассистента] сказал, что ты уехала в Россию от меня, так как you have had enough?” – “Is it true that Mister [assistant’s name] said that you went to Russia to get away from me, as you have had enough?” I: “Нет, я не говорила”. – “No, I didn’t say this”. Katerina turns to TA (shouting), “Mister [TA’s name] you are a liar!”

Katerina expresses her feelings about the TA in her drawing (Figure 8.6, indicated by the arrow) in another interview:

Figure 8.6 Concentric Circles’ elicitation technique: 12 January
L: Почему он зарисованный у тебя?
К: Не люблю!!
L: Потому, что ты его не любишь, да?
К: Сосиска он! И-и-и может быть кака… (смеётся). Он – кака!

L: Why is the teacher painted all over?
K: I don’t like!!
L: Because you don’t like him, yes?
K: He is a sausage! And maybe poo... (laughs). He is a poo!

Katerina repeatedly and clearly exhibits her animosity towards her TA, which is also alarming when it comes to her relationship with her class teacher.

8.4.3 Relationship with the class teacher
Katerina also has issues in the relationship with her class teacher. When I ask Katerina in October what her teacher is like, she says, ‘Строгий!’ – ‘Strict!’ At home Katerina complains about her class teacher, that ‘он немножко так... жестко’ – ‘he is a bit like...harsh’, and she describes some instances when the teacher does not believe her complaints or is overly strict with the children. On 15 November Katerina makes the following commentary on her drawing (Figure 8.7):

Figure 8.7 ‘Concentric Circles’ elicitation technique: 15 November
L: Ты сказала о своём учителе… где ты учителя нарисуешь?
K: Тут (показывает на второй круг). Он будет upside down (с ухмылкой как будто это месть).
L: А почему?
K: Ну-у (добро-игриво-злобная интонация) он всегда строгий. Вот тебе (будто мстит) – плохое лицо, и можно бороду нарисовать.
L: Угу.
K: (Смеётся) И ещё, может быть, усы [ударение на “У”].
L: Усы.
K: Усы… (ударение на “У”).
L: Так у него же нет.
K: (Хихикает) Есть… он там (указывает, хихикая) и платьице…

L: You said about your teacher…where will you draw your teacher?
K: Here (points at the middle circle). He will be upside down (with a snigger).
L: Why?
K: Well (playful and wicked intonation) he is always strict. You get it! (as if taking revenge by drawing him) Bad face… and can draw him a beard.
L: Eh [I see].
K: (Laughs) And may-be moustaches [stresses the first syllable].
L: I see.
K: Moustaches (stresses the first syllable).
L: But he doesn’t have.
K: (Laughs) He has… he is there (shows with a grin) and a dress (drew him in a dress).

On 12 December Katerina draws her teacher with long hair, long arms and wearing a pink outfit. She points out the negative issues in relationships with her teacher who is drawn outside of the circles (Figure 8.8) in our interview on 13 March. Her mother says that her own attitude towards the class teacher is neutral; however, she adds that she thinks, ‘без маминой [Бабушки Катерины] помощи, он бы на Катерины подзабил’ – ‘without Mum’s [Katerina’s grandmother] help he would have given up on her’. The teacher, in mother’s opinion, focuses on the negative and does not offer the necessary support (3 November):

L: Вы думаете, что учитель поддерживает её? Плюсы, минусы?
M: Минусы он поддерживает (смеётся). Мне кажется, ему пофиг.
L: Do you think that the teacher supports her? Any advantages, disadvantages?
M: He supports disadvantages (laughs) [enhances the negatives]. I think he couldn’t care less.

Bullying

Bullying is another significant aspect of social relationships for Katerina in the L2 school. (I interpret bullying in 11.5.2.2 and cross-analyse in 10.4.4.) In the first month of observations, Katerina says that there are two things that she would like to happen in school (20 October):

К: …Чтобы Тома не было!
L: Потому, что он тебя обижаеет, он плохой, да?
К: И чтобы… мы только играли и не учились!
L: Аха-ха, но это же школа, так нельзя!
К: Можно! Бла-бла-бла-бла-бла-бла!

К: …So that Tom would not be here!

Figure 8.8 ‘Concentric Circles’ elicitation technique: 13 March

The mother’s view and Katerina’s deep feelings about her teacher are a result of the teacher’s attitude to Katerina; punishments for misunderstanding, her character, and L1 use (as seen from 8.2.1) illustrate that the teacher (and the TA) did not show the necessary sympathy and support to Katerina, instead, treating her as a problem. I discuss and interpret this relationship fully in 11.5.2.3, before analysing it in 10.4.4.
L: Is this because he offends you, he is bad, yes?
K: And so that... we would only play and not study!
L: Ha-ha, but this is a school, you can’t do this!
K: I can! Blah-blah-blah-blah!

Katerina shares that Tom bullies her regularly, ‘Он всегда меня бьет, каждый день’ – ‘He always hits me, every day’ (12 January), and that he is her enemy in school (20 October):

K: Он не любит, когда я хочу... правильно сказать учителю.
L: Угу, а у тебя с ним была ссора?
K: Угу.
L: А что он сказал?
K: Что я, что... он в меня плюнул.

K: He does not like, when I want... to say correctly to the teacher.
L: Yep, did you ever have an argument with him?
K: Yep.
L: What did he tell you?
K: That I, that... he spat on me.

On 3 November, Katerina also complains about this boy:

K: (Описывает картинку) Это девочка Том [хотя он мальчик],
L: Он тебя обижал?
K: Да.
L: А что он делал?
K: Он плюнул, укусил.

K: (Describes her drawing) This girl is Tom [although he is a boy].
L: Did he offend you?
K: Yes.
L: What did he do?
K: He spat [on me] and bit [me].

On 12 January, when Tom bullies Katerina (hits, kicks, or spits on her), I ask her whether she informs her teacher, to which she tells me:

K: Мистер [имя учителя] не разрешает.
L: Не разрешает тебе говорить?
K: Да.
L: Почему? А что он тебе говорит? Ты когда ему говоришь, он тебе говорит: “Не говори мне,” да?
K: Не. Просто, “Do your work!”
K: Mister [teacher’s name] does not let me.
L: Doesn’t let you say?
K: Yes.
L: Why? What does he say to you? When you try to tell him, he says, “Don’t tell me,” yes?
K: No. Just, “Do your work!”

When Katerina seeks help and protection, not listening to her is clearly upsetting but also can be traumatising, leading to helplessness in learning, and perhaps may be linked with Katerina’s misbehaviour in school (described in 8.4.1) as a way of attracting attention to her issues.

To my shock, the boy kicks Katerina from behind even when I am present in class (12 January). Katerina says that he regularly hurts her:

L: Скажи мне, а тебя часто Том бьет?
K: Да.
L: Каждый день?
K: Да.

L: Tell me, does Tom hit you often?
K: Yes.
L: Every day?
K: Yes.

What Katerina perceives as bullying her teacher sees as ‘the dynamic’ (4 November):

I think what’s interesting with Tom because he is quite a strong character, Katerina is quite a strong character, that’s a clash. But what’s interesting, they seem to both quite like each other, they have moments that they can be really nice to each other. But there’s also times when they don’t want to be near each other. So, it’s really interesting, how their dynamic, and their relationship [functions].

After another conflict with Tom in school, Katerina’s grandmother goes to talk to the class teacher about it and he says, ‘Я разобрался, у них “hate and love” “hate and love”’ – ‘I figured this out, they have “hate and love”, “hate and love” [relationships]’. The following morning, she came back again and said (3 November):
Извините, это в школе вообще не приемлемо, это — abuse, я не хочу. Я хочу своего ребёнка отправлять без всяких “hate”, без всяких “love”, и чтобы он учился и никому, никому не позволено вообще обижать.

I am sorry, but in school it is not acceptable at all, this is abuse, and I don’t want it. I want to send my child to school without any “hate” and without any “love”, so that she studies and nobody, nobody is allowed to hurt her.

After the parental complaints about the conflict with Tom the teachers try to put children separately at all times, although Tom does hurt Katerina when he has a chance, making her upset and anxious.

8.5 Case summary

The summary of Katerina’s case findings are the following:

- Katerina reported being unhappy and having a generally negative learning experience in her L2 school. L1 was banned in school, which was deeply upsetting and harmful for Katerina’s well-being. At the same time, Katerina had L2 literacy, cognitive, and overall attainment issues in her learning (as reported by her teacher and supported by observations). As no physical, speech or other impairment was found in the assessment of Katerina, her L2 learning issues were sociocultural, conditioned by her experiences.
- Low academic expectations were identified with a lack of learning support, including punishments for making mistakes, which were marked meticulously.
- Avoidance motivation was significant in Katerina’s case revealing her fear of learning in class. Approval/praise was a salient motivation, aimed at avoiding punishments and being acknowledged and accepted.
- Low engagement in learning, including in learning L2 (but not in speaking L2 or generally using L2 as a language) and mathematics were identified with a prevalent fear of mathematics.
- Katerina expressed dreams/hopes for L2 and mathematics proficiency and for freedom and a fair attitude in class, which reflected her real in-class issues.
- Katerina expressed insolent social behaviour in school. Bullying was reported but was not seen as bullying by the teacher. Stigmatising relationships with the TA and class teacher incurred animosity, a lack of sympathy and support, and made Katerina feel that she was not listened to and left to deal with her issues on her own.
Chapter 9  Ivan

9.1 Introduction

This is the fifth embedded case: a Russian-speaking boy, Ivan. It is different from the other cases in that Ivan arrived at the earliest age (at the age of four) and has spent the longest time in the UK (see Table 9.1). Ivan was exposed to Russian and Ukrainian at home during the first three years of life, according to his mother. Just as in other cases, there is one TA who supports this class. Ivan attends a Russian complementary school on Saturdays, as well as, arranged by his mother, a weekly Eleven Plus (grammar schools’ entry test) preparatory school, for which he regularly needs to prepare extensive homework.

Table 9.1 Ivan’s background information

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at the start of the data collection/Year of birth</td>
<td>9 years old/2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 Year</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in the UK at the start of the data collection</td>
<td>5 years 10 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Linguistics degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous schooling in a Russian-speaking school</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous exposure to English</td>
<td>No, ‘Absolute beginner’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL provision/specialist in the L2 school</td>
<td>No, intervention classes are conducted by the SEN specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s Curriculum</td>
<td>IPC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As I explained in Chapter 4 sections 4.9.4 and 4.9.5, the presentation in this case follows the same logic as in the other cases – arranged by the three overarching themes, which mirror the research questions: Experiences, Motivations and Social behaviour and relationships in L2 the school. Within these themes there are themes/codes, unique to this case (titles within the overarching themes).
9.2 Experiences in the L2 School

9.2.1 Initial learning experiences

In our first interview Ivan describes himself as a polyglot (2 October):

L: А ещё какой-то язык знаешь?
I: Я знаю пять!
L: Ты знаешь пять? Какие?
I: Чуть-чуть э-э… Так, английский, украинский, русский, испанский чуть-чуть, и чуть-чуть французского, и чуть-чуть, э-э... Словакии чуть-чуть. Потому, что похоже на русский.
L: М-м-м, ого! Значит, шесть, не пять!
I: Да, шесть.

L: Do you speak any other languages?
I: I speak five!
L: You speak five? Which ones?
I: A bit...eh... Well, English, Ukrainian, Russian, Spanish a bit, and a bit of French, and a bit... eh...Slovakia a bit. Because it is similar to Russian.
L: M-m-m, wow! So, not five, six!
I: Yes, six.

At the time of the data collection, Ivan is a high achiever, getting praised by the teacher for his achievements (30 November):

L: Учитель тебя много хвалит?
I: Ну да… Я в высшем классе.

L: Does the teacher praise you a lot?
I: Well yes... I am in the highest [group] in class.

He, however, explains that he has not always been the best (8 November):

Я на высше... когда я пришёл в эту школу я…от всех отставал. Но теперь я на высшей группе ... уровне.

I am on the high... when I came to this school I... I was behind everyone. But now I am in the highest group... level.

Accordingly, his teacher says, Ivan was different when he arrived at his L2 school (8 November):
He couldn’t communicate to the other children what his ideas were, but now, [he can] because language is power. And it’s communication. So, if he couldn’t say what he wanted, how could he get his views across? But now, he has the key. He has the language; he can do it.

In our interview on 30 November Ivan says he feels ‘fine’ being a Russian-speaking pupil in an L2 school: ‘Ну, я себя чувствую нормально, потому что я уже хорошо умою по-английски разговаривать’ – ‘Well, I feel fine because I can speak English well already’ and because ‘он мне уже легкий’ – ‘it’s already easy for me’. Mother agrees that Ivan ‘уже нравится всё на английском, потому что он его освоил’ – ‘likes everything in English already, because he has mastered it’. Moreover, Ivan says that he feels ‘fine’ now also because he is in the highest attainment group in his class.

Ivan, nevertheless, remembers the challenges he encountered learning the language. These comprised well-being and engagement issues in Ivan’s schooling. Ivan’s mother says that in Years 3 and 4 she was worried about Ivan’s well-being and progress as ‘был какой-то такой ступор в начале, и, мне казалось, что мы отстаем’ – ‘there was some kind of stupor in the beginning and I thought we were behind’. Prior to this, at the start of Year 2, Ivan expressed negative emotions about learning, when he came home and said to his parents, as his mother recalls (17 November), “Всё! Мне уже школа ...не нравится!” Я говорю, “А почему, в чем дело? Что-то происходит?” “Нет, убрали все игрушки, надо теперь учиться!”

“That’s it! I don’t like school... anymore!” I say, “But why, what happened? Is anything going on?” “No, they put all the toys away, now I have to study!”

However, only when Ivan started to ‘креативить’ – ‘do creative things’, i.e. ‘писать книжки и уже их оформлять’ – ‘writing books and decorate them’ in English, did his mother notice an improvement. Figure 9.1 shows one page from Ivan’s horror novel entitled ‘The Curse of the Skeleton’, which Ivan allowed me to photograph. His mother adds, ‘Когда уже вижу, что ребёнок садится и пишет какие-то истории, я понимала, вот, прогресс’ – ‘When I see that the child sits down and writes some stories, I understood: this is progress’. Ivan started compiling books together with a stapler, as he says, ‘Ну, просто я любил писать. И вот я сел и написал книжку’ – ‘Well, I just loved writing. And I sat down and wrote a book’. His mother says that Ivan writes when he has ‘вдохновение’ – ‘inspiration’. Ivan wrote his first book in Russian when he was five (Ivan’s creativity is discussed in 11.4.2). These findings picture Ivan’s journey in the L2 school from having progress and well-being concerns (‘not feeling fine’), which were linked with not having the fundamental ‘key’ – L2 proficiency (analysed in 10.2.1 and discussed in
11.2.1) – and ameliorated with the help of self-initiated creative activities in English, to feeling he is a multilingual pupil (exemplifying his multilingual self) in the L2 school.

![Figure 9.1 Ivan’s own book example](image)

### 9.2.2 Progress and achievement

I will now detail Ivan’s experiences of achievement and progress. As Ivan reports, during the study he is a pupil with both high achievement (the results juxtaposed with other pupils’ results in class) and progress (a difference in the results of the same pupil over time) in mathematics, actively helping others and discussing the answers in observations. Ivan’s mother notes that Ivan’s English level is weaker than his mathematics level (18 May):

Л: Как Вы думаете, английский сильнее у него, чем математика?
М: Я думаю, математика сильнее.

L: Do you think his English is stronger than mathematics?
M: I think mathematics is stronger.

In mathematics Ivan receives a maximum percentage score in tests, making few mistakes in competitive activities, and gets praise from the teacher for answering correctly. In November the teacher says that Ivan is in ‘the kind of top end’, ‘one of the more able’ in achievement and progress results: ‘his maths is good, his English is good as well’. In May Ivan’s teacher is also very positive about Ivan’s learning experience: ‘he is all-rounded and there isn’t anything that he is struggling with’. The class teacher says that for Ivan, the only issue is that he ‘talks a bit too
much sometimes’, and ‘at times there is that slight chatting. There are people who never do that’. Ivan’s mother states, that, although there are no marks in schools – ‘[Я] оценок не вижу, ничего не вижу’ – ‘[I] don’t see any marks, nothing’, Ivan himself tells her that he is among the most successful pupils and ‘ему всегда дают вот самый большой уровень’ – ‘he is always given the highest level’ of difficulty. This, inter alia, reveals that his mother has not been sufficiently kept informed with respect to Ivan’s progress/achievement in learning, which is provided only once a year. At times, Ivan gets much lower marks in mathematics tests than other pupils (e.g. 24 out of 72); however, these are higher than his previous scores.

Ivan’s knowledge, in his opinion, already excels those children ‘who are English’ as he notes, ‘Я думаю, я уже знаю некоторые вещи больше, чем другие люди в классе, которые английские’ – ‘I think, I already know more than other people in class who are English’. Ivan surpasses others because, as he says, ‘я хожу в школу и уже учусь’ – ‘I go to school and already study’ and ‘даже людям помогал людям на уроке’ – ‘even helped people in a lesson’. Starting from January, Ivan repeatedly reports that he has not learned anything new in nearly every interview or has learned ‘nothing’ and that some assignments are too easy starting from the second month of the study (November). On 24 January Ivan says that he worked well because ‘было легко’ – ‘it was simple’. Ivan says to his desk-mates on 22 February, looking at an assignment, ‘This is so easy!’ On 21 March Ivan reports to feel that everything is too easy for him. I ask Ivan about anything interesting he has done in school, he says, ‘Мы пока ниче не делали’ – ‘We haven’t done anything yet’ and ‘А мы ж ничего не делали… Мы не работали’ (улыбается) – ‘We haven’t done anything... We didn’t work’ (smiling). Further on in May, Ivan does not specify anything new he has found out in school, saying, ‘Я выучил [ничего]… как обычно’ – ‘I have learned [nothing]... as usual’. While having a high level of self-competence (further touched upon in 9.4.1), this signifies that the level of difficulty of the assignments is not high enough for Ivan. (I cross-analyse this in 10.2.1 and 10.4.3 and discuss in 11.2.5.)

**9.2.3 L2 ‘success’ level**

When I ask Ivan in the interviews how his English is progressing, he solidly indicates that his English level is flawless, ‘excellent’ from November through May, and sometimes ‘almost’ flawless. Ivan writes that he is at the top of his success level in English (see Figure 9.2).
His English level is exceptional, as Ivan says, when he is given the most challenging assignments, ‘если нам задали что-то... что-то... сложное, то, что нам нужно очень красиво [сделать]’ – ‘if we are given something... something... difficult that we need very beautifully [presented]’, but his work is less well presented when an assignment is simple, and worsens a little further ‘когда я... как э-э-э не очень слушаю’ – ‘when I … like eh-eh don’t listen very [attentively]’, or, as Ivan explains, ‘если я не люблю [задание]’ – ‘if I don’t like [a task]’. While revealing his high confidence (see also 9.4.1), these show how Ivan links the level of difficulty of assignments, his attention and ‘liking’, with his L2 level; the latter becomes absolutely splendid when dealing with tasks at higher levels of difficulty. At different times, Ivan also explains that his English is ‘definitely’ at the top because: ‘у нас очень хороший день был’ – ‘we’ve had a very good day’ because he goes to more than one English school (one state-funded and another Eleven Plus preparatory) and because ‘я учился много’ – ‘I studied a lot’ (22 February) or because ‘было интересно’ – ‘it was interesting’ (16 May). He re asserts that his English is perfect in his L2 school because ‘они делают всё интересно’ – ‘they do everything in an interesting way’. Overall, Ivan sees his success in L2 and learning as rooted in attentiveness and hard work, creativity and enjoyment, as well as the increased levels of difficulty (cross analysed in 10.2.3 and interpreted, inter alia, in 11.2.5).

9.2.4 L2 vocabulary and reading
While reporting to have a high level of L2, in observations, Ivan’s perceived feeling of himself does not fully correspond to the observations. Ivan speaks English very well, but not as fluently
as the other children in class. This does seem to contradict his own description of his L2, which may reflect his idiosyncratic manner (fluency) rather than the L2 level in particular. Ivan says that his English is perfect, flawless; however, he makes some spelling mistakes, just as any other pupil might do in Year 5. For instance, spelling mistakes are not infrequent, such as ‘freind’, ‘usul’, or he pronounces the word ‘sociable’ as [‘sosiabl]. At times, when answering questions in lessons, Ivan misses the details of the requirements, which indicates a lack of in-depth language knowledge or an understanding of the analytical part of the assignment. Ivan mixes up tenses in literacy in mathematics (21 March). Some difficulties are identified when the requirement is to use academic vocabulary (November, January). In an unprompted communication in class, Ivan is inhibited, quiet, and does not seem as confident. Figure 9.3 shows an example of Ivan’s writing in which he does not always complete the task fully (to write ‘in full sentences’), in answering question 3 he writes ‘oars and the sails’, and questions 6 to 8.

![Figure 9.3 Example of Ivan’s writing: 24 January](image-url)
Similarly, with these observations, the teacher notes, ‘Being a child who is from a family where English isn’t the first language, he [Ivan] can still work on kind of ...on improving his vocabulary’. The extent of vocabulary is ‘the only thing I can really point out that he could be lacking compared to someone else who is more able in writing’, the teacher adds. The way of improving Ivan’s vocabulary the teacher explains in our first interview on 30 November as following,

Because they speak Russian at home, he needs to read lots of kind of deep texts, so that he can get good language out of it. I mean, it’s modelled in school through me and other teachers but... if he can, then read more, and I said [to his mother], “You know, make sure you’ve got a dictionary out”.

Towards the end of the academic year (19 May), the teacher emphasises that his vocabulary depth has ‘got better!’ The most fundamental aspect in Ivan’s L2 vocabulary and overall success is his own progress, as she explains (19 May):

If you didn’t know that he didn’t speak English when he came to school, you wouldn’t be able to understand, coz his vocabulary is vast. Because he reads a lot, and that’s the key. So, there is children here, who are native English speakers, and he has a bigger vocabulary than they do, because he reads!

Ivan’s mother, on the contrary, says that Ivan has no issues with the subjects in relation to test preparation, for example, as he does not have any issues with verbal reasoning in the test and in mathematics ‘he also gets praise’, except for English: ‘Естественно, нужно подтягивать [его] английский’ – ‘Naturally, [he] needs to improve [his] English’ (18 May). This is due to the fact that, as his mother highlights, exams have high L2 literacy demands, which do not explicitly assess the L2 level. Verbal reasoning, for instance: ‘Я бы тоже отнесла к разделу английского языка, но как бы логика’ – ‘I would also categorise as a section of the English language, but as logic’. The mother, Ivan, and his teacher have, therefore, different views on Ivan’s progress and achievement in L2 specifically. I provide a cross-case analysis of this in 10.2.1 and discuss it in 11.2.1.

9.3 Motivations in the L2 school
This section presents Ivan’s motivations in the L2 school starting with his overall interests and feelings about school and learning. This section is cross-analysed later in 10.3 and interpreted in 11.4.

9.3.1 Interests and feelings about learning and school
On 2 October Ivan says that school is one of his favourite places ‘потому, что здесь друзья, и э-э-э... и ты учишься, и здесь очень весело!’ – ‘because friends are here and eh … and you
study, and it’s very fun here!’ Ivan reports that he likes the friendly supportive environment in his school when the ‘учителя... если ты не понимаешь, они тебе помогают и рассказывают про то, что ты не понимаешь’ – ‘teachers … if you don’t understand, they help you and tell about what you don’t understand’. He adds that his experience in the L2 school is good, ‘потому, что я не дерюсь и ничего такого не делаю’ – ‘because I don’t fight and don’t do anything like that’, showing how his positive experience results from his ‘good behaviour’. Ivan lists the most valuable parts of school for him: ‘Что мне больше всего нравится в школе? Перемена и уроки, и физкультура, и рисование, и ещё... э-э десерты!’ – ‘What do I like the most in school? Break time and lessons, and PE, and art, and also... eh desserts!’ The only days when Ivan does not really like to go to school are when ‘в школе что-то скучное будет...’ – ‘there will be something boring in school...’, which occurs ‘если нам нужно написать очень длинное ... не story… а то, что тебе задали!’ – ‘if we need to write very long... not a story... but what you are instructed!’ On 30 November Ivan tells me about the versatile activities in learning and his enjoyment of them and his positive mood, particularly noting lessons on how to send e-mails, which children did in class, sending their e-mails to each other. Ivan especially points out his liking of the art lesson.

Similarly, Ivan says that his experience is excellent in January. Given a free choice, Ivan mentions that he would have chosen to do computing or drawing, which are his favourite lessons – ‘Это мое любимое!’ – ‘This is my favourite!’ – although he does not have any subjects which he does not like (24 January). Throughout the study Ivan repeats that his favourite lessons are art (October, November, January – twice, and February), computer programming (January and February) and mathematics (February). Aside from this, Ivan says in February, ‘Мне всё почти нравится’ – ‘I like almost everything’ in learning. Ivan reports that his learning in both L2 and L1 (supplementary Russian language school) schools is ‘going well’. Ivan adds that his experience is almost perfect because ‘я очень хорошо учусь и я очень хорошо умею [выполнять задания]’ – ‘I study very well, and I can [accomplish tasks] very well’.

His excellent experience remains the same throughout the study. In a March interview Ivan reports again that he feels happy in school and that he enjoys art. He says that with the exception of history, which ‘can be boring’, and choir and music, which are slightly less interesting, ‘almost all’ subjects are exciting (28 March):

L: Какие уроки интересно, какие нет?
I: Не очень интересно... Я бы сказал... Я думаю, почти ничего нет.

L: What lessons are interesting, which ones are not?
I: Not very interesting... I would say... I think, almost nothing.
For Ivan it is ‘интересно, весело!’ – ‘interesting, fun!’ in his L2 school. In the same month Ivan notes the diversity of the learning activities, particularly highlighting the ‘roleplay’. Ivan says that his L2 school is ‘очень хорошая’ – ‘very good’ because ‘она outstanding’ – ‘it is outstanding’. In May he reports to enjoy ‘everything’, disliking ‘nothing’. Following his mother’s view, Ivan enjoys learning because children are ‘больше заинтересовывают’ – ‘made more interested’ – in their English school and they have ‘больше возможностей, больше финансов’ – ‘more opportunities, more funding’, as opposed to their Saturday L1 school. Ivan clearly has an excellent experience in his school, due to the way children are motivated, and his sense of achievement, particularly enjoying art, mathematics, and computing, although he does not mention L2. I analyse this finding in 10.3.1 and interpret this in 11.4.1.

9.3.2 Praise and rewards. A strong need for achievement.
The sense of achievement through praise and rewards is a significant motivation for Ivan. For instance, on 2 October Ivan says that his learning experience is particularly impeccable when he gets the

“Star of the week” или меня очень хвалят, и у с есть как такое, ну как, такая программа школьная, “Dojo”, и на них ты можешь [видеть] как учительница можешь, как, тоже туда [ставить оценки], потому что у каждого, кто там есть, как, свой ... доджо.... И у родителей. Они могут видеть, что на нем...

“Star of the week”, or when I get lots of praise, and there is a school programme, “Dojo”, and on them you can [see] how the teacher can also [put marks] there...
Because everyone, who is there, their... “Dojo”... and parents can see what it is for...

He tells me that he was given the ‘Star of the week’ for his mathematics achievements twice in Year 4 and once in Year 5. Ivan admits that it is important for him to study well for two reasons: for himself and so that he can get praise from his mother. His mother stresses that receiving praise is ‘ему очень важно, очень!’ – ‘very important for him, very!’

To receive praise, Ivan reports, he tries very hard to learn, which his teacher acknowledges by seeing Ivan as ‘a very motivated learner’ who ‘always does his best!’ and is ‘always interested in everything that is going on’; the teacher adds ‘he seems to always know what he has to do!’ (19 May). The teacher attributes Ivan’s motivation to an inner moral principle of working, external to the school (30 November):

He’s got a good work ethic and he likes to get things done. So, whether it started with the family, it is within him. Whether it’s nature, whether it’s nurture, that’s his technique and that’s what he likes to do.
In lesson observations Ivan appears motivated, emotional, and eager both to finish and to fill in tasks correctly, e.g. displaying happiness because of an assignment accomplishment. Ivan looks driven in both mathematics and literacy, worrying about his results in mathematics and comparing answers. I notice on three occasions (in February and March) that Ivan reads or works quietly while other pupils seem to read but are actually playing with their bookmarks or other objects. He looks anxious and asks his friend when he got the answer wrong in a spelling test on 2 December, to which the teacher says, ‘Stay with me, Ivan’. In different lessons throughout the study I observe how Ivan walks around the classroom, taking part in different activities; he actively listens to the teacher and raises his hand to answer in mathematics, and calculates and writes quickly and energetically. Ivan rapidly changes his activity, participates in lessons, and answers questions correctly. When instructed, he starts to draw or read immediately, whereas it takes longer for the other boys to start reading.

Studying ‘well’ is important for Ivan, he reveals, because of the final progress sheet at the end of the year, which shows that Ivan is concerned about achievement in his learning. In March when I ask to take a photo of Ivan’s work, he asks me ‘не обращать внимания’ – ‘not to pay attention’ to that one number sentence he got wrong and he puts a cross next to it. Figure 9.4 shows Ivan’s cross to the right of the top number sentence (indicated by the arrow).

Figure 9.4 Ivan’s mathematics: 21 March

The teacher shares that Ivan is motivated by academic rewards, telling him, “Look! You know how it works, I know you are reading but if I don’t see the evidence, then I can’t reward you”.

And then he changed his ways’. When Ivan is given a pen licence, he becomes more interested in writing and writes more ‘accurately’. He is very competitive; he becomes interested in a game when he realises that he can win. The teacher describes Ivan as a pupil who does not like making mistakes, the extent of which is that (30 November):

You can see if he is kind of wrong you can see he is a bit of... almost, as if, he is upset with himself. Because, I think, he has high standards for what he wants to do.

In March Ivan finishes one task, he looks at the partner’s work and sees that he has a different answer, which greatly surprises him, as he almost exclaims, ‘What?’ Ivan starts to compare his answers with the boy’s answers as if he is not that confident about his own results or secretly discusses the answers with the girl next to him.

Ivan, however, does not demonstrate high activity in music and dancing, and barely sings, which corresponds to his reports about not enjoying these subjects. Previously, at the end of Year 4 Ivan’s mother was given a sheet with marks. It stated that Ivan was given a lower mark for engagement (‘B’) in one subject, dancing, having ‘As’ in all other subjects. Ivan’s concern about this is revealed when he repeats this to me a few times in different interviews. He adds that he is not aware why he got a ‘B’, revealing his focus on academic achievement. Observing him dance in a music lesson, I am stunned by his unwillingness to do much and that he is told off a few times, because Ivan is determined, focused, and unusually active in all other lessons. While Ivan prioritises achievement, this, for him, refers to challenging subjects and tasks, as opposed to engaging fully in dance lessons. The reasons behind his lack of interest in dancing and music may be found in the academic element of the lessons. In November and February Ivan discloses that he likes challenging tasks because they are interesting. Ivan says that he always tries to choose the highest level of difficulty in his lessons, which is ‘самое главное’ – ‘the most important’ and entitled ‘might’, as opposed to ‘must’, ‘should’, and ‘could’ levels. In other words, he posits academic and mental challenges (the most difficult) as his priority and interest (the most important), and thus, the most motivational. These signify that for Ivan motivation in learning, apart from praise and marks (achievement), may be rooted in academic/mental/cognitive depth.

9.3.3 Motivation for joy and communication

An additional motivation in Ivan’s learning is joy and communication. In lessons in October, Ivan notes that he likes their 30-minutes of free time every Friday: ‘Где ты можешь [делать] все, что хочешь. У нас есть iPadы, и мы иногда делаем [computing]’ – ‘Where you can [do] anything you want. We have iPads and we sometimes do computing’. Ivan stresses the ‘fun games’ they play during Christmas time in PE, and he especially likes doing homework when it is turned into games. In two lessons in November he is more eager to chat to friends than concentrate on a task.
In January he says that he loves his school since ‘здесь друзья и... ты учишься’ – ‘friends are here and... you study’. Additionally, Ivan says that he wants to write his books in English, ‘Потому, что я тоже хочу друзьям их показать’ – ‘Because I also want to show them to my friends’. Ivan, as his mother confirms (17 November), has

Motivation to go to school, because everything is interesting here, and communication is here, friends are here. But well... Doing something at home... no, no. At home merely Lego, cartoons, drawing...

In May she also says that Ivan loves communicating with his peers and friendships, adding that Ivan likes ‘сам процесс приобретения новых знаний, особенно потому, что здесь умеют заинтересовывать’ – ‘the process of learning new knowledge per se, especially, because they can evoke interest here’; however, communication with peers is the ‘движущая сила’ – ‘driving force’ of his liking the school.

At home, however, for his mother, Ivan is not diligent, particularly if a task is monotonous and requires perseverance and assiduous work and practice. Ivan willingly does homework if it is game-based mathematics, but not writing a composition, or, what seems to him, purposeless writing (e.g. when practicing handwriting), as she explains. His mother attributes Ivan being less organised, self-aware, and motivated at home to gender, because Ivan ‘is a boy’. Overall, his mother reports that Ivan would only be interested and eager to do what he likes, e.g. writing his book, drawing a picture, or any other creative idea that emerges, which ‘он может этим заниматься три часа!’ – ‘he can be busy with for three hours!’ but he is reluctant about doing homework. His mother’s view of Ivan at home contrasts with Ivan’s achievement and activity in class (exemplified in 9.3.2). Ivan himself says that he is a good artist and can draw well. In art lessons, while usually zealous, Ivan exhibits surprising patience. Having made a mistake in a pointillism application, drawing with straws rather than dots, Ivan calmly corrects his technique and starts to draw dots between the green-coloured shapes – which resemble flowers or berries (Figure 9.5). Ivan draws carefully, slowly, and is particularly thorough; he does not talk while he draws, which is surprising as he usually likes to chat. Ivan, as his mother conveys, is very assiduous when it comes to something he likes.
Figure 9.5 Ivan’s pointillist picture: 16 November

So far, Ivan expressed motivations in learning for creative work based on personal inclinations, alongside motivations for communication, joy, and achievement, becoming particularly high if learning provides a cognitive challenge. These are analysed in 10.3.2 and discussed in 11.4.1, and in relation to cognitive demands – in 11.2.5.

9.3.4 Motivation to learn L2

In relation to L2, Ivan reports that he especially likes creative tasks in the English lessons, which supports his mother’s view of the L2 school being motivational compared with the L1 Russian Saturday school. In October and November Ivan says that he enjoys speaking and learning English because ‘есть много креативного’ – ‘there is lots of creativity’. His favourite thing in L2 learning is ‘писать историю и diary’ – ‘writing stories and a dairy’, because ‘ты [можешь вместить] в них все, что ... все можешь туда, то, что ты хочешь, и это интересно’ – ‘you can [put] in them everything you can [put] there what you want, and this is interesting’ (2 October). Ivan’s enjoyment stems from his creative writing of books (presented in 9.2.1).

In one interview in February Ivan shares that his least favourite subject is English, ‘потому что... иногда там скучно!’ – ‘because... sometimes it is boring there!’ including ‘ну, если как писать долгий текст, и такой скучный, как тебе дали задание и оно просто скучно’ – ‘well, if like writing a long text, and it is so boring, like you are given a task and it is just boring’. In March Ivan says that he likes learning English. In May Ivan notes that, out of all the components of English learning in school (book club, free reading, and comprehension – including purposeful
reading), Ivan does not like comprehension ‘больше всех’ – ‘the most’. In May Ivan shares that writing stories improves the whole experience of English learning and his mood.

It appears Ivan is motivated not by L2 in itself but by interesting ‘creative’ learning tasks. Comparing writing and drawing, his mother shares that Ivan is motivated to do the former, only provided it is linked with learning, ‘[Он] рисует очень часто. А вот пишет... скорее, после чего-то, что в школе происходит’ – ‘[He] draws very often. But, well, writes... maybe, after something that happens in school’ (17 November). Correspondingly, Ivan indicates another time in February that, if he was given a choice, he would not choose doing English or mathematics, but art. L2 motivation is cross-analysed in 10.3.3 and discussed in 11.4.2.

9.3.5 L1 in comparison with L2 motivation

Compared with L1, however, Ivan has higher motivation to learn L2. The Russian school Ivan attends on Saturdays with ‘чисто классическим нашим бывшим советским подходом’ – ‘our purely classical former Soviet approach’, his mother sighs, ‘ему это совершенно не подходит’ – ‘is not appropriate for him at all’. Because of the Soviet teaching style, Ivan has low L1 motivation, as his mother notes. She says, for example, in reading, it is challenging for her to motivate him to read in L1, and since he ‘уже все перечитал на английском, поэтому его заставить на русском тяжеловато’ – ‘has already read everything in English, so making him read in Russian is hard’. He does not want to read in Russian, but initiates reading in English himself and enjoys reading in English. He is highly motivated to read, as his teacher says, ‘We discuss what we have read and then he also adds, “I’ve read further”’. His mother explains Ivan’s growing L2 motivation for reading is due to the L2 school’s engaging pedagogies as compared with the Saturday Russian school. Ivan says that he needs to learn English because, ‘Я живу, и мне нужно его учить, чтоб разговаривать’ – ‘I live here, and I need to learn it, to talk’ and ‘если ты хочешь, как, всех здесь понимать и всё, то лучше тренироваться!’ – ‘if you want to, like, understand everyone and everything, better to practice!’ Regarding L1, Ivan says that he needs Russian to talk to his mother and friends from his Russian school. Ivan is not willing to do his homework from the Russian school. They are ‘стопоримся’ – ‘stagnating’ in it, as his mother reveals. He thus has pragmatic reasons for L1 motivation; however, in essence, Ivan’s L1 motivation is what his parents want him to do, which I will present further. I interpret this in 11.4.4.2.

9.3.6 Parental and school impact on motivation

Ivan shares that his mother organised for him to go to the Eleven Plus preparatory school and a Saturday Russian school and emphasised the importance of these to him. He says that he does not really like going to this English school, but ‘ну мама... меня заставляет’ – ‘well Mum... makes
me’, and he attends because ‘мама сказала, что нужно готовиться к экзамену’ ‘Mum said that I need to prepare for the exam’. In February Ivan says that it is important for him to study well in school because ‘мама хочет, чтобы я хорошо [учился]’ – ‘Mum wants me to study well’. This includes learning L2 because he wants his mother and father to be proud and happy. Throughout the study, Ivan consistently says that his parents and teacher tell him to learn English. His mother says she coerces Ivan if he does not want to do what he has to, constantly reminding him to do his homework at home, for both Russian (Saturday) and English (mainstream) schools. His teacher confirms that Ivan has a supportive family, judging by Ivan’s ‘learning outside of school and it shows the kind of family he must come from’ because ‘there is an expectation from them’ since Ivan is always ready with homework. The L1 school, as the teacher adds, is also a sign of parental involvement, ensuring that Ivan ‘keeps up with his Russian work and his school work’. His mother wants Ivan ‘to keep’ both Russian and Ukrainian, as she is certain that (18 May)

Он [Иван] скорее забудет русский язык и поэтому я принципиально с ним не говорила на английском. Ну и тем более, все-таки, мой английскй – это НЕ [ударение] английский. Это не тот английский, который бы я хотела, чтобы он слышал в первую очередь и на него бы ориентировался. Как с произношением, так и с лексикой, и так далее. Поэтому я хотела оттянуть этот момент как можно дальше. Вот ну, в принципе, я не думаю, что мы допустили какую-то ошибку.

He [Ivan] will soon forget the Russian language, and that’s why I, by principle, didn’t speak English with him. Well, all the more so, my English is not THE [emphasis] English. It is not the English, which I would like him to hear in the first place, and to orient himself on to. As with the pronunciation, so with the lexicology, and so on. Thus, I wanted to delay the moment as much as possible. Well, basically, I don’t think that we made any mistake.

At home, his mother wants one pure language, not allowing the mixing of languages, Ivan says that he always speaks Russian with his mother, except for ‘только для уроков...’ (тихо) – ‘only for homework’ (quietly). Ivan does not use English with his parents, which is his parents’ decision, made in order to ‘оттянуть’ – ‘delay’ the moment when Ivan will start using English with them. For this reason, his parents state that they have many Russian-speaking friends from his L1 school for Ivan to use Russian with ‘вне школы’ – ‘outside of school’. Ivan does not have any English-speaking friends outside of school but only from his class and afterschool club. His mother asserts that they do not ‘learn’ L2 at home ‘и никогда не занимались. Принципиальная позиция’ – ‘and have never done it. On principle’. However, at the end of the same interview, she says that she asks Ivan to read in English at home.
Apart from sending Ivan to extra-curricular learning to aid the Eleven Plus, his parents buy lots of books for him to read and help with homework. His mother admits that the pressure of the Eleven Plus test is a ‘оргомный стресс!’ – ‘tremendous stress!’ for Ivan. She worries about her son’s preparation for exams exclaiming, non-verbal reasoning ‘это ужасно сложные логические цепочки! Ужасно!’ – ‘is a terribly difficult logical sequence! Terrible!’ Ivan says that although he does not enjoy the Eleven Plus, he still does it. Overall, the evidence shows Ivan’s intensive learning outside of school, which reflects parental involvement in his learning. (I provide cross-case analysis of this in 10.3.4 and discuss this in 11.4.4.3.)

9.3.7 Dreams and wishes
In the interviews based on the creative technique drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ Ivan consistently names and describes three main things: becoming a designer (or an architect), an artist, or a writer. Ivan’s dreams and future plans are particularly clear at times when he tries to negotiate his learning with his mother: ‘Мне это не нужно! Математика! Я буду художником!’ – ‘I don’t need this! Mathematics! I will be an artist!’ as his mother says. Other dreams are to do computer programming, which appeared after Ivan visited his father’s work. His mother says that Ivan’s dreams of becoming a designer never change; however, he does have ‘вариации сиокупные’ – ‘momentary alternatives’ to try other things. His mother also points out that Ivan’s dreams are still ‘childish’; however, it is already clear ‘что ему лежит ближе всего к душе’ – ‘what lies closest to his soul’. Regarding schooling, in November Ivan says that he ‘пока не представляю’ – ‘does not yet imagine’ himself in a secondary school or how it is going be. Figure 9.6 shows that Ivan reports a dream/hope for passing the Eleven Plus, apart from becoming an artist (represented through an easel), a computer programmer (a laptop), and an architect (a bridge).

Figure 9.6 Ivan’s drawing: 22 February
In February and March Ivan also adds that he does not have any wishes linked with school. He explains that his wishes are not linked with English because, as he says, ‘я уже знаю как разговаривать’ – ‘I already know how to speak’. However, writing in L2 and a dream of becoming a writer is a distinct dream and a goal, as he says that he has started to work in class with a helper to ‘write a book’: ‘Я работаю сейчас с помощником, с помощницей, чтобы написать книжку’ – ‘I work now with a helper to write a book’. I ask Ivan about this book (20 February):

L: Это у вас задание учительницы такое было?
I: Нет. Мы сами.
L: Is this a task your teacher gave you?
I: No. [We started it] By ourselves.

Initiating books of creative writing embodies a part of Ivan’s future dream of becoming a writer, which denotes how Ivan’s wishes are not mere fantasies. Overall, Ivan expresses clear dreams/wishes that are more distant/long-term rather than linked with a closer future (secondary school), except for achievement (exam results) (analysed in 10.3.4 and discussed in 11.4.4.1).

9.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school

This section presents the findings of Ivan’s social behaviour, the emotions pertinent to this behaviour, and his social relationships, starting with Ivan’s distinctive confidence and communication. This section is cross-analysed in Chapter 10 section 10.4 and cross-discussed in Chapter 11 section 11.5.

9.4.1 ‘Overly’ confident and communicative

Ivan displays an unusually high confidence in observations in November, and says that he is ‘the best’, and the most ‘advanced’ in different interviews from November through March. When the teacher asks whether anyone feels confident about the test, Ivan raises his hand. In our interview in February Ivan says that ‘Я хорошо учился и всё знаю! Почти’ – ‘I studied well, and I know everything! Almost’ and ‘Я чувствую себя хорошо, потому что я знаю’ – ‘I feel good because I know’. In May (16) Ivan notes that he feels ‘happy’ and ‘fine’ because, he asserts, ‘Я все знаю’ – ‘I know everything’ and ranks his L2 level as high as 10 (Figure 9.7), which links well-being and competence in Ivan’s learning.

Similarly, the teacher says that Ivan expresses consistent confidence in learning and ‘he doesn’t like to be wrong and he doesn’t like to lose!’ Teacher adds that Ivan thinks that he is competent in everything. He is even ‘OVERLY [emphasis] confident’ sometimes. When Ivan lost in a game ‘he really didn’t deal with it very well’, so he ‘took himself away from the game’, ‘I am not
playing now!” trying to make excuses: ‘It’s because you paused it, and I wasn’t ready!’ Ivan ‘couldn’t bear to lose!’

Figure 9.7 ‘Today I’ exercise: 16 May

The teacher further reveals that Ivan acted as if he was ‘invincible but he wasn’t’. He said (19 May),

“I am gonna win! You NEVER GONNA BEAT ME, YOU GONNA BE SEEING THE BACK OF ME” [emphasis]. And then... he lost! And he was... worse! Because he’s promoted himself so much!

In December observations, when Ivan gives the incorrect answer to a question, he is explicitly, although quietly, surprised, saying, ‘What?!’ Another time in January, describing their test, a girl says, ‘It’s double-sided’, and Ivan responds with a patronising and almost contemptuous tone of voice, ‘Everybody knows’. In contrast, his mother asserts that Ivan likes praise and good marks, but ‘у него нет такой вот прямо obsession быть лучше всех, такого нет’ – ‘he does not have just like an obsession to be better than others, he does not have’.

An interesting finding relates to Ivan’s activity when it comes to communication in class. The teacher mentions that Ivan ‘talks a bit too much sometimes’ in our interview in November. When the teacher does not seem to pay attention, and explicitly says not to do something, Ivan pushes the boundaries, and finds it hard to sit still. He often chats to classmates in lessons (in November through February), even when it is not allowed and gets told off. Ivan is communicative or even ‘слишком общительный!’ – ‘overly communicative’, as his mother reiterates in the November and May interviews: being the first in class who is willing to be distracted. The teacher agrees
that, ‘he is always surrounded by other people, he is never on his own (...) maybe too many people’. Ivan, by the end of the year, just as in November, is ‘a bit too chatty, he talks a bit too much at times’. At the same time, in the interview the teacher alleges, ‘he knows when to stop’. As is clear, when it comes to confidence and communication, the adverb ‘overly’ seems to be characteristic of Ivan.

9.4.2 Secretive about his truthful feelings
Somewhat contradicting Ivan’s confidence, and his excessive communication during lessons in school, he also exhibits reticence. Ivan does not share much about his learning, as his mother says, there is ‘очень мало вот контакта что происходило в школе’ – ‘very little contact about what happened in school’. His mother admits that at home Ivan revealed that he did not want to tell her the ‘real’ things he does not like in his school, such as toilets, because if he does not like something, he would rather keep quiet. Because of this, Ivan’s mother tells me that if he does not answer any questions in the interviews, then I should still try to find out the truth.

The teacher calls Ivan’s reticence a diplomatic quality, as he knows the boundaries where he needs to compromise and he would not even convey if he did not like something. Mother says Ivan might not say if he does not like something, as he is ‘diplomatic’ in order ‘not to offend anyone’. In November observations, while usually active, Ivan does not participate in class when talking about deeper analytical topics that possibly appeal to feelings (e.g. tolerance, acceptance, moral education, values, and equality). In March when he is asked about the feelings of the characters in the role play, he does not actively participate, saying a very simple feeling, ‘angry’, while other children add ‘disappointed, remorse, guilty, attacked, hurt inside’. Ivan does not talk loudly at all during the whole study, as if he does not want to express himself or to attract attention. When Ivan gets agitated, he expresses it quietly, or when excited, he exclaims whispering, without raising his voice during interviews and observations. In a lesson in January Ivan quietly argues when a girl takes papers from his hands and shouts, ‘That’s mine!’ Ivan responds, whispering, ‘That’s mine!’ It seems that Ivan behaves quieter than he would like to.

In his mother’s opinion, being secretive may be caused by language-related issues in terms of self-expression. His mother’s worries included her fear that Ivan would not be able to express his thoughts, and that he would, because of this, ‘Как был замкнется из-за того, что у него что он не может себя объяснить, что он хочет сказать’ – ‘As it were, develop a block, withdraw into himself and get quiet because he cannot express himself’. A few times, Ivan was not able to explain himself in conflict situations in school because he, as his mother describes (17 November),
Просто не native English-speaking person, он не мог выразить, что он хотел... Вот он не мог объяснить на английском языке, внятно, что произошло.

Just not a native English-speaking person, he couldn’t express, what he wanted... He couldn’t explain in the English language, audibly, what had happened.

At home, however, his mother adds, Ivan is ‘явно’ – ‘clearly’ not quiet and even reckless at times. He is agile, impatient, and competitive. However, while Ivan is competitive, he is still agreeable and compromises, and does not like to argue. At the same time, his mother reveals that Ivan ‘вечно приходит каких-то синяках, он вечно где-то падает. Ничего не может объяснить, так внятно...’ – ‘always comes covered in bruises, always falls somewhere, can’t explain anything, like, audibly...’ Thus, Ivan expresses reserved behaviour in school, does not share his learning experience with his mother, and, significantly, does not express such behaviour at home, which, in his mother’s opinion may be caused by language-related issues (analysed in 10.4.1 and discussed in 11.5.1.1).

9.4.3 Strategic learning partner

Ivan is proactive in lessons, which is especially evident when it comes to his choice of partner to work with. It may seem that Ivan finds partners easily in class; however, he talks to the same boy three times in a mingling activity which is not apparent at first sight. The teacher says that Ivan always has a partner, but in observations, when Ivan does not have a partner, the teacher sits next to him and ‘plays’ his partner. When asked to find a partner, Ivan actively goes to ask one boy to be his partner, but he is already taken. So, Ivan says, ‘Pleeeease, pleeeease’, begging the boy. But the boy does not agree. So, Ivan is rejected or is just a bit too late to work with that boy. Then he moves to a girl and asks her, and she agrees. She is his second choice and they start working together. It appears that Ivan deliberately wants a specific partner and he is willing to actively look for the one he wants to work with. The teacher explains this: Ivan is ‘probably more cautious about who he’s working with. He wants to work with someone who is like-minded, someone who is as motivated and involved as he is’. The teacher posits, that Ivan ‘has high standards for what he wants to do,’ adding that (30 November),

Sometimes he’d rather work by himself so that he can get it done. Maybe other people might slow him done or maybe not as involved as he is. So, he’s got a good work ethic.

The teacher also notes that Ivan tries to stay away from trouble-makers in class because ‘he knows who he needs to be with… to get the best he needs out of his education’. Moreover, Ivan works by himself because (30 November):
He doesn’t wanna compromise his ideas with anybody else. He just wants to do what he wants to do.

Ivan enjoys communication, and often has difficulties with finding partners, about whom he is very particular: when it comes to learning, he expresses strategic behaviour in choosing work partners, prioritising his achievement (work standard) over communication. While being analysed in 10.4.4, in relation to other cases, this is discussed as part of social relationships in 11.5.2.1, as well as part of prioritising achievement in 11.4.1.

### 9.5 Case summary

The summary of Ivan’s case findings are as follows:

- Ivan’s well-being was linked with L2 proficiency. Ivan was a high achiever, particularly strong in mathematics. His teacher, mother, and Ivan himself shared different views on Ivan’s achievement and progress. Motivation for achievement (praise, rewards) was salient, especially in the case of increased cognitive (academic) difficulty. Motivations for joy and communication were a significant ‘driving force’ of loving school.

- L2 success was rooted in the incorporation of creative tasks, and increased cognitive depth, alongside Ivan’s own mental/physical input (hard work, attentiveness). Unless it involved creative work, L2 motivation was not strong, compared with high learning motivation in mathematics, art, and computing. Ivan considered himself a multilingual person, prioritising L2 rather than L1: his motivation for L2 was stronger than motivation to learn L1.

- Parental impact on motivation was substantial, at times becoming a source of stress. Ivan expressed overly high confidence in learning, which may have been caused by a prevalence of low academic/cognitive difficulty in his activities (for Ivan’s level).

- Dreams and wishes were clear and more long-term, rather than more immediate, except for exam results. Ivan’s writing of books in school and at home reflected his dream of becoming a writer, showing that some dreams were vivid goals (rather than only fantasies).

- Ivan valued friendships in learning and in observations was at times left on his own (even though he is described as a child who has many friends). However, when his achievement was at stake, Ivan chose to work on his own, or preferred highly motivated, like-minded learning partners. In contrast with home, where he was not quiet, Ivan expressed somewhat discreet and reticent behaviour in school, which, in his mother’s view, can be rooted in language-related issues.
Having presented the findings from each case study, I will now move on to the cross-case analysis chapter, which is a ‘bridge’ between the findings (Chapters 5 to 9) and the discussion of the findings (Chapter 11).
Chapter 10  Cross-Case Analysis

10.1 Introduction

As stated earlier, the aim of this thesis is to investigate the experiences/issues and personality development of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2. The research questions of the study are the following:

1. What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?
2. How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

The cross-case analysis aims to make the analysis process more visible and therefore accessible. As I articulated in Chapter 4 section 4.9.7, in my cross-case analysis I followed the guidance of Yin (2014) and Stake (2006). I now re-state the background information about the cases, reminding the reader that at the time of the study all pupils were recent migrant pupils at Key Stage 2, using Russian as their L1 (Table 10.1).

Table 10.1 Background information about individual cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 year</td>
<td>Year 5</td>
<td>Year 6</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Year 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country of Birth</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert/first language</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Russian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time period spent in the UK at the start of the study</td>
<td>2 months</td>
<td>1 year and 2 months</td>
<td>1 year and 4 months</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>5 years and 10 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>School C</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>School C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Guided by the overarching themes, which I describe in 4.9.4, in this chapter I first focus on the Experiences in an L2 school overarching theme (10.2), establishing common and unique learning
experiences across the cases. Then, I analyse the expressions of Motivations (10.3) and the Social behaviour and relationships (10.4) in L2 school themes. Each section includes the tables of the themes/codes (headings of the sections within the cases in Chapters 5 to 9), and the typical and atypical findings. The more typical findings were considered significant and were included in the discussion. As I articulated in 4.9.8, while deliberately excluding some insignificant findings which were atypical or indirectly related to learning, some atypical findings in one or two cases were assessed as significant and included in the interpretation (Chapter 11) (e.g. the atypical but significant relationship with Katerina’s teachers in 10.4.4, which is discussed in 11.5.2.3).

10.2 The experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils

This section analyses the Experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in an L2 school overarching theme. The cross-case themes which fell into the overarching themes are grouped by similarity and for the purposes of clarity are presented in tables generally following the presentation of the cases. Each table is followed by the analysis of the findings across cases. This analysis includes typical and atypical (unique) findings.

10.2.1 Links between achievement/progress, learning issues, and L2

In the individual cases, as seen from the cross-case presentation of the themes and findings, learning issues are linked with the L2 proficiency (Table 10.2).

Table 10.2 Achievement/progress, expectations, and assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes/Themes (sub-headings of the sections)</th>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement and learning issues</td>
<td>Initial immersion and progress in L2 school</td>
<td>Initial learning experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td>Difficulties in learning and in English</td>
<td>Progress and achievement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning in mathematics</td>
<td>Mathematics experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


| Typical findings | Link of achievement/progress, general learning issues and L2 proficiency  
Low expectations and generalising attitude based on L2 proficiency (Yulia, Rita, Katerina). High expectations (Alisa, Ivan)  
Mathematics is the strongest subject (Alisa, Rita, Ivan, Yulia)  
Lack of academic challenge and stretch in the strongest subject (Ivan, Rita)  
Absence of a common approach regarding assessment of EAL pupils. Overly meticulous marking at low L2 proficiency stage was an aggravating factor (Yulia, Katerina) |
| Atypical finding | |

Across cases, achievement and learning issues were linked with L2 proficiency. In Yulia’s, Alisa’s, and Rita’s cases, L2 progress was slower when compared with mathematics (and science in Alisa’s case), although L2 oral progress was emphasised in Yulia’s case six months after her arrival. At the end of the study, Alisa progressed well, as her teacher reported. Similarly, Rita’s teacher reported that Rita’s progress and achievement were high (highest in mathematics, lowest in reading, but she had started to make more progress in reading), which did not depend on her L2 migration status. At the same time (in the same interview), he reported that the L2 could have been a hindrance, i.e. the issues with the nuances of L2 could have been a barrier. Conversely, Katerina had both low achievement and progress; some cognitive issues as well as maturity-related issues were also identified by her teacher. The school intended to put Katerina on the ‘disabled educational list’. In Katerina’s case achievement difficulties were linked with ‘educational language’ as opposed to general language proficiency. In Ivan’s case, achievement issues were identified initially after arrival (Ivan was ‘behind’ everyone else). However, Ivan had both high achievement and progress at the time of the study across the subjects (based on his and his teacher’s reports), but it was interpreted differently by his mother and teacher. Section 11.2.1 discusses the significance of this finding in relation to the literature.

In three cases (Yulia, Rita – in her first year, and Katerina) teachers had low expectations about pupils based on their L2 being rooted in their ‘natural’ abilities. Yulia’s EAL TA had low expectations for her and saw the problems in achievement linked with her natural abilities (not being smart). However, it was based on language abilities only, generalising other subjects in which the TA was not present and therefore did not observe. Similarly, Katerina’s teacher expressed low expectations and saw the issues stemming from her natural abilities (not being
smart or able). Rita reported a generalising attribution of abilities towards her across the subjects based on L2 proficiency from her class teacher and pupils in her first year in England, who thought that she was not smart in mathematics because of her L2 level. These academic expectations are discussed in 11.2.1.

Experiences of mathematics across cases were distinct. Mathematics was the strongest subject across four cases (Alisa, Rita, Ivan, Yulia). Difficulties in mathematics appeared when it involved literacy (Alisa, Rita, Yulia). For Ivan, mathematics achievement remained higher than L2 (L2 was weaker). Test results showed that Ivan at times had lower-level achievement compared with other pupils but higher level results compared to his own previous results (progress) in mathematics. Rita received progressively lower test results in mathematics during the year, but she passed the exam, receiving ‘greater depth’ in mathematics. She burst into tears after low mathematics test results, revealing her hidden anxiety (this is discussed in relation to emotionality in 11.5.1.3). Additionally, a reported absence of increased academic difficulty of the strongest subjects (mathematics) was identified in Ivan’s and Rita’s cases. I discuss this finding in 11.2.5.

Assessment was marked by an absence of a common approach. Academic assessment in Alisa’s case was conducted with the help of abbreviated letters (e.g. ‘A’ means ‘Ask’), and the ClassDojo application (ClassDojo Inc.) points, rather than marks. In Katerina’s case, ‘house points’ were used for both academic and behavioural assessments (i.e. gaining or losing ‘house points’ depending on achievement, behaviour or participation). In Rita’s case, the meaning of test results was not explained to her or her parents. Overly meticulous marking at a low L2 proficiency stage was an aggravating factor in Yulia and Katerina’s cases. This cross-case analysis is further interpreted and discussed in 11.2.3.

10.2.2 Learning support in lessons
A lack of learning support in lessons emerged in three cases as seen from the cross-case presentation of the themes and findings (Table 10.3). Alisa, Rita, and Ivan did not receive any specific support in lessons during the study, which was not a concern for the children. Alisa had some reading interventions outside of class with the school’s SEN specialist since there was no EAL specialist in this school. Rita also had some reading support outside of class (attended the reading ‘book club’). However, Alisa’s mother mentioned the lack of support outside of lessons pertaining to the curriculum’s transparency and homework consistency.

Rita did not receive any support in class except for being able to use Google Translate in all lessons translating into L1, which she reported helped her (also analysed as part of LL experiences in 10.2.3 and discussed in 11.2.4). Rita’s teacher reported feeling disoriented about migrant
children due to the absence of a nationally approved plan as regards EAL and he, therefore, developed his own isolated plan just like the other teachers in England.

**Table 10.3 Organisation and learning support**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Learning support and organisation</td>
<td>Learning support and organisation: support with L2</td>
<td>Learning support, organisation, and academic demands</td>
<td>Learning support issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Learning support in lessons as a concern (Yulia, Katerina, Alisa); punishments for misunderstanding emerged in two cases (Katerina and Yulia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atypical findings</td>
<td>Use of Google Translate as an aid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were concerns about a lack of learning support in lessons in Katerina’s, Alisa’s, and Yulia’s cases. Yulia and her mother reported not getting much help in lessons, and she was ‘just abandoned’, including in mathematics, due to her L2 level. Similarly, Katerina’s mother was worried that she did not receive appropriate support in school. Yulia was given some L2 support (a Russian-speaking friend in the breakfast club; a few one-to-one lessons once a week as well as group lessons twice a week with four other recent migrants during school hours taught by an EAL TA) outside of class. In lessons Yulia was the only case who was provided with a bilingual dictionary on her desk and who was supported in some L2 lessons. Katerina also attended weekly reading interventions with the TA and a visiting teacher. Although Katerina and Yulia attended L2 intervention classes, they did not receive enough support in the mainstream lessons, as they reported themselves. Learning support is discussed in 11.2.2.

In Yulia’s and Katerina’s cases there were also some incidents of punishment in observations of Yulia for misunderstanding (and for making mistakes – Katerina). In observations, Katerina was shouted at for asking for help or for causing a distraction. Consequently, Katerina admitted being quiet when she had questions (this is also discussed as part of reticence in learning in 11.5.1.1).

**10.2.3 LL experience**

The causal relationships between well-being and language issues as well as literacy issues emerged across cases (Table 10.4).
### Table 10.4. LL and well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Differentiated tasks and growing stress. Spelling tests with unknown words</td>
<td>L2 learning</td>
<td>L2 experiences and progress</td>
<td>Literacy issues</td>
<td>L2 ‘success’ level. L2 vocabulary and reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Literacy and speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Using L1 in learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>L1 issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>L2 literacy issues (Yulia, Katerina, Rita, Alisa – at the start of the study)</td>
<td>Good literacy progress (Ivan, Alisa – at the end of the study, Rita’s teacher – reading slightly lower)</td>
<td>Good speaking (Katerina, Ivan)</td>
<td>Differing L1 use and presence in learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atypical findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creative writing of books as a way of improvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L2 writing and reading issues were identified in four cases (except for Ivan). Based on Rita’s reports, purposive writing was challenging for Rita due to her lack of vocabulary. Based on her teacher’s reports, Rita’s writing was at Year 6 standard, and listening exceeded Year 6 standard. Reading was the lowest, slightly below Year 6 standard. Alisa had some literacy issues at the start of the data collection. Towards the end of the data collection the teacher noted improvement in writing due to extensive reading, improvement in her listening comprehension, and more confidence in speaking. Alisa reported enjoying reading and she produced a lot of writing in lessons, however, she did not want to speak about L2 learning in the interviews. For Katerina, there was no substantial change in her issues during the study. Her reading was confident with easy books and support (in interventions). Issues were identified in learning L2 or learning using L2. Speaking was natural, confident, and easy. L2 experiences are discussed in 11.2.5.
Differing/contrasting L1 use and presence emerged across cases. L1 was not used and not apparent, although not forbidden, in two cases (Ivan, Alisa). In two cases there was some use of L1 to aid learning in the first four months (Yulia) and in the first two years (Rita). Rita was allowed to actively use L1 at all times in all lessons during her first year in her L2 school using Google Translate and allowed to write in L1 during her first two years in the L2 school. The writing was then translated into English by her TA, using Google Translate. In contrast, L1 was not allowed in English books as the TA instructed in Yulia’s case; she was, however, given differentiated tasks with some L1 used in them in her first months after arrival. When she had to write the same words as other children in the spelling test with unknown words, she started to cheat and marked herself higher on the tests. Katerina was banned from any use of L1 at all times in school. I discuss the L1 presence in learning in 11.2.4.

An atypical but significant finding regarding the L2 emerged in Ivan’s case. Initial stagnation in learning in his migration experience was identified: Ivan was behind in L2. Creativity was one way to improve L2, namely: the creative writing of books Ivan assembled with a stapler, drawing illustrations himself. Ivan reported excellent L2 experience at the time of the study. There emerged some differing views on L2 by Ivan, his teacher versus his mother. In Ivan’s opinion, his L2 exceeded those who were English and his L2 level was excellent, especially when it came to increasingly challenging tasks, but getting worse in simple tasks and when the task was less engaging (discussed in 11.2.5). The extent of vocabulary in L2 was the only issue in his teacher’s view, which got better towards the end of the study. His mother contrarily said that Ivan had no issues except for L2, which needed improvement as Ivan made spelling mistakes and his learning was slightly different to English-speaking children. Insignificant spelling and pronunciation errors in L2 were observed. I discuss this in 11.2.5.
10.2.4 Summary

Figure 10.1 presents the summary of the cross-case analysis of the overarching theme of Experiences of Russians-speaking migrant pupils in the L2 school. I discuss these findings in 11.2.

**Experiences in L2 school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Achievement/progress and general learning issues are a concern, which stem from, and are conditioned by, L2 proficiency.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low expectations and generalising attitudes are based on L2 proficiency (Yulia, Rita, Katerina).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The assessment approach is characterised by the absence of a common approach. Overly meticulous marking at low L2 proficiency stage, lack of learning support in lessons, and punishments for misunderstanding are aggravating factors (Yulia, Katerina).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy issues are a concern. Mathematics is the strongest subject (except for Katerina). The absence of increased academic difficulty in the strongest subject (Ivan, Rita).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative writing of books in L2 as a way of improvement (Ivan).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differing L1 use and presence in learning: using L1 in learning in the first two years (Rita), some use of L1 in the first 4 months (Yulia), not using L1s in learning (Ivan, Alisa), L1 is banned at all times (Katerina).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10.1 Summary: Experiences

10.3 Motivations in the L2 school

In this section I analyse the expressions of motivations of pupils in L2 schools across cases, starting with the general experiences of being in school and motivation for participation in learning. As in the previous section, each table is followed by the comparison and contrast of the findings across cases.
10.3.1 Experience of being in school vs participation in learning

The cross-case analysis of the themes and findings (Table 10.5) showed generally excellent and happy experiences in L2 schools in three cases, with the exception of Katerina and Yulia.

### Table 10.5. Participation and feelings about school and learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/ Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Interests and feelings about school and learning</td>
<td>Interests and feelings about learning</td>
<td>Interest and feelings about the school and learning</td>
<td>Interests and feelings about learning and school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance in learning</td>
<td>Participation in learning</td>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>Escaping learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Generally happy experiences of being in school (Alisa, Rita, Ivan), but lowering (Alisa, Rita, Yulia) or low (Katerina) participation in learning in academic subjects</td>
<td>Avoidance and distraction in learning emerged in four cases (Katerina, Rita, Yulia, Alisa)</td>
<td>Unhappy L2 school experience (Yulia, Katerina)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atypical findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Throughout the study, Alisa pointed out her excellent experience in school due to factors unrelated to learning experiences: e.g. going to the cinema and Fridays because of lots of rest (half an hour of play time every Friday afternoon). Alisa also liked homework because it was not very difficult. Just as Alisa, Rita spoke about activities she liked unrelated to learning (rehearsal performance, drum playing) when I asked her about learning. Rita enjoyed the school as it was interesting, and there was little homework, a light workload, half an hour of free time on Fridays, and extracurricular activities during and after classes. Similarly, Yulia reported liking the school because of activities unrelated to learning in school, e.g. going to another school for PE. In contrast, Katerina and Yulia reported feeling sad in their school.

At the same time, lowering (Alisa, Rita, Yulia) or low (Katerina) participation in learning (a lack of learning motivation) in academic subjects was identified in four cases. Katerina showed a lack of engagement in academic subjects reporting she did not enjoy the school, learning, or tasks...
throughout the study. Alisa participated well only in individual writing and reading, explicitly avoiding speaking and listening comprehension. Similarly, Rita and Yulia at times did not say a word in the whole lesson and did not participate in discussions. This finding is discussed in relation to motivation in 11.4.1 and in relation to submissive social behaviour in 11.5.1.1.

Avoidance and distraction in learning emerged in four cases (Katerina, Rita, Yulia, Alisa). Avoidance in Rita’s case was exemplified through refraining from volunteering or speaking aloud, especially if it was quiet in the classroom throughout the study. Rita seemed to like being inactive, almost invisible, throughout the study. Rita distracted herself by playing with different objects on her desk, not finishing tasks, and paying attention to other things when she did not know what to answer as was evident in observations. Conversely, Rita was very chatty with her classmates when it was not quiet in the classroom. Rita willingly prioritised avoiding attention over academic achievement. Katerina tried to prolong our interviews instead of going back to class which she confirmed herself when asking to have more than one interview a day. Katerina anticipated the times when she could miss the lessons. She also reported disliking and trying to avoid difficult tasks, switching onto something else. Similarly, Yulia avoided learning-related topics in the interviews and she persistently tried to avoid L2 lessons. Alisa also distracted herself and avoided learning, playing with different objects quietly, looking disengaged in all class discussions or speaking activities. I fully interpret this avoidance in 11.4.3.

10.3.2 Success, joy, and communication
Cross-case analysis of the themes and findings showed that academic achievement (success) motivation was salient and took similar forms across cases (Table 10.6): approval, acceptance, praise, and rewards.

Table 10.6 Approval, acknowledgement, success, and joy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Approval and success</td>
<td>Approval and acceptance: a need to be ‘smart’</td>
<td>Rewards, praise, and approval</td>
<td>Approval/ praise and academic motivation</td>
<td>Praise and rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation for marks and praise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strong need for achievement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Motivation for joy and communication rather than learning

Typical findings

Academic achievement in L2 schools was emphasised in the form of rewards (test results, final assessment sheet), praise, and approval (acceptance – Katerina) (Alisa, Rita, Ivan, Yulia, Katerina)

Teachers, children, and parents share contrasting views on pupils’ achievement motivation (Alisa, Rita, Yulia)

Motivation for joy and communication is significant and overpowers motivation to learn (Rita, Alisa)

Atypical findings

Rita needed approval, acceptance, and showed a need to be ‘smart’, which was undermined by her L2 status. Rita also expressed an intensified but covert motivation for academic achievement in the form of focus on rewards (points, test results). Katerina and Ivan showed strong motivation for praise, alongside academic marks and rewards motivation. Katerina gave the appearance of working hard and being on task in order to receive praise from her teacher. Ivan attributed his excellent learning experience in his L2 school to rewards, a substantial amount of praise, and Dojo points, especially if parents could see them. Ivan revealed his achievement focus in learning, e.g. he was determined to study well due to the final assessment sheet being more interested in cognitively and academically challenging assignments. Alisa also focused on getting praise and rewards (e.g. a medal for attendance, ClassDojo application points, winning) as well as approval from others (acknowledgement of her accomplishments). Similarly, Yulia showed strong academic motivation in the form of rewards (certificates), and written evaluations of her work. In lessons Yulia actively expressed an unusual determination when it came to receiving praise in the form of rewards (e.g. a Golden Certificate).

Teachers, children, and parents at times reported contrasting views on pupils’ achievement motivation (Alisa, Rita, Yulia). In contrast with Yulia, Yulia’s mother stated that Yulia was not interested in marks. Her teacher said that Alisa was ‘interested in everything’, having excitement about victory and prizes, regardless of Dojo points. Alisa’s mother indicated that approval and praise were essentially important for Alisa in learning. Rita, in her father’s view, did not focus on
marks and was not concerned about them. Rita’s father stated that Rita was motivated by herself, internally. Similarly, her teacher indicated that Rita was motivated in school but not for grades, rather ‘by just doing well’, ‘understanding things’, and the ‘enjoyment of working hard’, which were not academic achievements in her teacher’s view, but achievements in general (successes). However, Rita’s mother stated that Rita was motivated by academic achievement (‘study better’ ‘to get better exam results’). I discuss this contrast in 11.4.1.

There has been evidence of motivation for joy (recreation, easiness, fun) and motivation for communication in three cases (Ivan, Rita, Alisa). Alisa reported she liked resting, playing, and eating sweets in learning. Rita similarly reported she liked and anticipated the easy days in school when she had extracurricular clubs, or PE. In observations Rita focused on playing and communicating with her peers rather than learning. Ivan also exemplified a motivation for joy (free time, games) and communication. Communication was a driving force for him in his L2 school, as his mother reported. I discuss these in 11.4.1.

10.3.3 LL and mathematics motivations
The cross-case presentation of LL and mathematics motivation is presented in Table 10.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Motivation in English as a subject</td>
<td>Interests and feelings about learning L2</td>
<td>LL motivations</td>
<td>Interest and feelings about learning L2 and mathematics</td>
<td>Motivation to learn L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3 and L4 motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Lack of L2 motivation (engagement, interest) (Katerina, Alisa, Rita, Yulia)</td>
<td>Delineation of L2 motivation into components:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• High L2 motivation in speaking outside of class (Rita, Yulia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• But low in L2 learning in class, particularly for L2 writing (Rita, Yulia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Separation of L2 learning: low English language motivation from high motivation for literacy (Katerina)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• High L2 reading and writing motivation but lack of L2 motivation in public L2 speaking in class (Alisa)
Higher and clearer L3 motivations compared with L2 (Alisa, Rita)
Weaker L2M compared with motivation in mathematics (Rita, Ivan)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atypical findings</th>
<th>L2 Motivation is based on task/exam accomplishment rather than content</th>
<th>Lack of mathematics engagement, prevalence of fear for mathematics</th>
<th>Focus on creative tasks: strong motivation to write and self-assemble L2 books</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Generally, pupils expressed a lack of L2 motivation in the form of engagement or interest across four cases. Katerina reported being disengaged in L2 and in mathematics learning. L2 learning in school was a negative experience for Katerina. Alisa and Rita did not show focus and engagement in observations in L2 lessons. Rita revealed low L2 learning interest as did Alisa at the end of the study. For Rita L2 motivation was based on task/exam accomplishment rather than content: she was motivated to finish reading and the writing assignments in L2 by achieving the necessary word count. Rita focused on the amount of written words in L2 and finishing the task itself (rather than on the process, ideas or quality of writing, for example). The teacher and parents reported Rita had high L2 motivation. Similarly, Yulia reported being disengaged, trying to avoid L2 learning, and enjoying PE, which did not involve language. In L2 lessons Yulia did not participate, avoided tasks or just sat reluctantly. Yulia reported she did not like L2, as opposed to mathematics, L3, and PE.

Pupils (except for Ivan) delineated L2 motivation into components, being motivated in certain facets of L2. Rita, Yulia, and Katerina enjoyed speaking L2, not learning L2 (literacy). Katerina separated L2 learning from literacy and said that she liked literacy because of its freedom and simplicity (just writing stories). Alisa also expressed motivation to learn L2 delineated into parts: she showed great motivation to read and write in L2 as opposed to learning L2 as a whole, which Alisa admitted herself. Alisa was not motivated to speak L2 in class and did not express motivation in L2 listening activities (passive, distracted). The atypical finding was that Ivan expressed a focus on creative free tasks in L2, exhibiting strong motivation to write and self-assemble L2 books. At the same time, Ivan preferred drawing to learning L2 (having an L2 lesson).
In relation to mathematics, the least favourite subject was mathematics rather than L2 in Katerina’s case. In observations Katerina was not engaged in mathematics lessons. Alisa, on the contrary, focused on mathematics when I asked her about L2. Rita similarly focused on mathematics learning in the interviews, reporting a high interest in learning mathematics. The L2 and mathematics motivations are discussed in 11.4.2.

Compared with L2, Alisa had higher L3 motivation (a wish to learn L3 in the future): learning L3 and enjoying speaking L3. Rita had strong L3 (Spanish) motivation compared with L2, which seemed more challenging than L3. This finding is interpreted as an exemplification of a multilingual self in 11.4.4.2.

10.3.4 Dreams and hopes. Parental aspirations

The cross-analysis of dreams and hopes in learning as well as parental aspirations for children findings are presented in the Table 10.8.

Table 10.8. Dreams and hopes. Parental aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Dreams and wishes in learning</td>
<td>Dreams and wishes</td>
<td>Dreams and wishes</td>
<td>Dreams and wishes in learning</td>
<td>Dreams and wishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental impact on motivation</td>
<td>Parental impact on motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Parental and school’s impact on motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Parental aspirations as a cause of stress (Ivan, Yulia)</td>
<td>Dreams/hopes aimed at L2 proficiency (Yulia – four months, Katerina – first two months), mathematics proficiency (Katerina – once) learning two or more languages (Yulia, Rita, Alisa, Katerina)</td>
<td>More distant future dreams about professions (Rita, Ivan)</td>
<td>No immediate learning-related dreams (Ivan, Yulia – twice)</td>
<td>Freedom of expression/ fairness (Katerina, Alisa – once), self-worth (being ‘important’, competence – ‘to know everything’ – Alisa, being a ‘good pupil’ – Yulia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pass tests, exams (Ivan, Rita)</td>
<td>Recreational, pleasurable events (Katerina, Alisa, Rita, Yulia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parental aspirations were a cause of stress for pupils in two cases (Yulia, Ivan). Yulia said that her mother demanded that she studied well in school, which made Yulia anxious, and afraid to make a mistake. Her teacher noticed a ‘mismatch’ in Yulia’s and her mother’s determination in learning. In Alisa’s case her parents were very involved in Alisa’s learning, wanting her to do well, making Alisa redo mathematics until it was done perfectly. Her mother emphasised their future plans for Alisa, and the importance of learning L2. Alisa reported that her mother told her to learn L2 and taught L2 at home to Alisa. Ivan reported that his mother organised for him to go to the Eleven Plus and L1 Saturday school, admitting that Ivan’s exam preparation evoked a tremendous stress for Ivan (also supported by Ivan). Ivan openly shared that his mother made him attend these schools. Ivan said that studying well in school was important for him because his mother wanted him to, trying to make his parents proud and happy. I discuss this in 11.4.4.3.

Table 10.9 presents the cross-case analysis of pupils’ reported dreams and hopes, which is summarised in Table 10.8. I fully interpret pupils’ dreams and hopes in 11.4.4.1.
### Table 10.9 Dreams and hopes’ summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>October/November</th>
<th>November/December</th>
<th>January</th>
<th>February</th>
<th>February/March</th>
<th>April/May</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yulia</td>
<td>Being a ‘good pupil’, Proficiency in L2</td>
<td>To live in England and have more friends in the future, Proficiency in L2</td>
<td>Being a ‘good pupil’, Proficiency in L2</td>
<td>No dreams because ‘all is fine’, House in L2 country</td>
<td>Being a ‘good pupil’, Proficiency in L2</td>
<td>No dreams in school, Have sweets at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rita</td>
<td>Pass exams (SATs), L2 motivation to teach English in future or to work as a translator in England, Or teacher L2 in L1 country</td>
<td>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</td>
<td>Pass exams (SATs) and to pass GCSEs for future education</td>
<td>Pass exams (SATs) for a good education, To be an L2 interpreter because she translates for parents, Does not see herself living in England and speaking English in future, and focuses on test results</td>
<td>Pass exams (SATs) because of future job, Higher or similar L2 proficiency as compared to L1 proficiency</td>
<td>Pass exams (SATs) Go to L1 country, Go to Wales (holiday trips dream), Experience of having fun during school performance in summer (summer show)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rita:**
- Pass exams (SATs)
- L2 motivation to teach English in future or to work as a translator in England
- Or teacher L2 in L1 country
- (no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)
- Pass exams (SATs) and to pass GCSEs for future education
- Pass exams (SATs) for a good education, To be an L2 interpreter because she translates for parents, Does not see herself living in England and speaking English in future, and focuses on test results
- Pass exams (SATs) because of future job, Higher or similar L2 proficiency as compared to L1 proficiency
- Pass exams (SATs) Go to L1 country, Go to Wales (holiday trips dream), Experience of having fun during school performance in summer (summer show)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</th>
<th>A wish to ‘be the most important in school’</th>
<th>A wish ‘to be the most important in school’ To learn all languages in the world</th>
<th>A wish to know everything in the world, to be the best</th>
<th>A wish ‘to know everything in the world, to be the best’ A wish to have many toys, recreation (have fun), free choice of activities, food</th>
<th>Sweet drinks in class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alisa</td>
<td>L2 proficiency and speaking two languages in future mathematics competence dream A dream of freedom and rebellion/opposition against strict teacher (jumping on tables) in class</td>
<td>A dream of freedom and opposition to the strict teacher (e.g. jumping on tables) in class A horse that flies to school and speaks L1</td>
<td>No L2 dreams</td>
<td>No L2 dreams</td>
<td>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</td>
<td>No L2 dreams. A wish to spend time with her mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katerina</td>
<td>L2 proficiency and speaking two languages in future mathematics competence dream A dream of freedom and rebellion/opposition against strict teacher (jumping on tables) in class</td>
<td>A dream of freedom and opposition to the strict teacher (e.g. jumping on tables) in class</td>
<td>No L2 dreams</td>
<td>No L2 dreams</td>
<td>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</td>
<td>No L2 dreams. A wish to spend time with her mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>October/November</td>
<td>November/December</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>February/March</td>
<td>April/May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivan</td>
<td>To become a designer (architect), a writer in L2</td>
<td>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</td>
<td>(no interview focusing on dreams/hopes)</td>
<td>To do computer programming Pass 11+ become an artist, or designer (an architect), and a writer in L2 Wishes are not linked with English because, as he explains, ‘я уже знаю как разговаривать’ – ‘I already know how to talk’</td>
<td>Become a designer (an architect) and an artist</td>
<td>Become an artist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Same highlight colour denotes common findings across cases
### 10.3.5 Summary

Figure 10.2 summarises the cross-case analysis of the Motivations of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the L2 school overarching theme. These are discussed in 11.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressions of Motivations in L2 school</th>
<th>Positive experience of being in school with lowering participation in learning (Alisa, Rita, Ivan, Yulia). Unhappy learning experience and low participation (Katerina).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Avoidance and distraction in learning and being in class is prevalent across four cases (Katerina, Rita, Yulia, Alisa).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic achievement in L2 schools is emphasised in the form of rewards, praise, approval (acceptance – Katerina) (Alisa, Rita, Ivan, Yulia, Katerina).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation for joy and communication is significant (Ivan, Rita, Alisa) and overpowers the motivation to learn (Rita, Alisa).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Views on pupils’ achievement motivation by teachers, children, and parents differ (Alisa, Rita, Yulia).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of L2 motivation (engagement, interest) is identified (Katerina, Alisa, Rita, Yulia).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 motivation is further deliniated into components by children: high speaking L2M outside of class (Rita, Yulia) but low in L2 learning in class (Rita) and in L2 writing (Yulia); L2 learning (low L2M) is separated from literacy (high L2M) (Katerina); high L2 reading and writing motivation but lack of L2 motivation in public L2 speaking in class (Alisa).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Higher and clearer L3/L4 motivations are found when compared with L2 (Alisa, Rita).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weaker L2M is identified when compared with motivation in mathematics (Rita, Ivan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parental aspirations are a cause of stress (Ivan, Yulia).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diverse dreams and hopes are expressed in L2 schools.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 10.2 Summary: Motivations**
10.4 Social behaviour and relationships in the L2 school

In this section, I first analyse the Social behaviour (Table 10.10) of Russian-speaking migrant pupils, moving to the Social relationships in L2 schools theme.

Table 10.10 Social behaviour themes and findings across cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Quietness in lessons</td>
<td>Quiet discontent in lessons</td>
<td>Submissiveness and quietness in school</td>
<td>‘I am naughty!’</td>
<td>Secretive about his truthful feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being in L2 school</td>
<td>Quietness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning-related increased sensitivity and stress</td>
<td>Sensitivity about criticism and making mistakes</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fear of public use of L2</td>
<td>Anxiety and fear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Submissiveness and reticence in learning (Yulia, Rita, Alisa; only somewhat Ivan and Katerina)</td>
<td>Dupliciousness/manipulative behaviour in learning (Katerina, Yulia, Alisa – outside of class)</td>
<td>Learning-related increased sensitivity (anxiety and fear) (Yulia, Alisa, Rita – regarding the exams, Katerina)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atypical findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Domineering behaviour in school</td>
<td>Intensified learning confidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.4.1 Submissiveness and reticence in learning

There was submissiveness, reticence, and hesitation in class (but not outside of class) evident in social behaviour in four cases (Yulia, Rita, Alisa, Ivan (to some extent), Katerina – when it comes to asking for support in lessons). Yulia spoke quietly and was hesitant in her behaviour in learning:
she refused asking for help when she misunderstood and whispered the answers to me when
teacher asked the class a question. Similarly, Rita stated that she chose to be silent even when she
knew some answers in mathematics. Conversely, Yulia showed playful, free, and buoyant
behaviour in the interviews (shouting, laughing loudly, and suggesting activities). Rita was
reticent in learning, quietly talking with me about her discontent with her learning. Alisa was
overly submissive and overly quiet in school, and hesitant about asking for help in class (the same
as in Katerina’s case). The teacher expressed her concern about Alisa’s submissiveness and
quietness, and the need to work on her ‘emotional safety’. However, she was not quiet or shy at
home, as her mother revealed. Ivan always spoke quietly, even when agitated in school, which
was called a ‘diplomatic quality’ by his teacher and his mother. His mother revealed that Ivan
was secretive, possibly due to the language-related issues in terms of self-expression and he was
reckless and boisterous at home. I discuss quietness and submissiveness in 11.5.1.1.

10.4.2 Duplicitousness and rebelliousness in learning
There were cases of duplicitous and manipulative behaviour in class in two cases (Katerina,
Yulia). Yulia was duplicitous about her spelling test results, adjusting her mark by correcting
words during self-marking. An atypical finding was that Katerina, while being scared of asking
questions in lessons and being duplicitous, also expressed domineering/rebellious behaviour in
class (e.g. covertly kicking other children) (discussed in 11.5.1.2).

10.4.3 Learning and L2-related increased sensitivity
There was evidence for learning-related increased sensitivity (anxiety and fear) in four cases
(Yulia, Alisa, Rita, Katerina). Just as for Yulia, for Katerina and Rita L2 learning was stressful,
and often arduous and frightening. Sensitivity and fear occurred in Yulia’s case related to
speaking L2 in public. This was also the case in Rita and Alisa’s cases. Yulia reported well-being
issues linked with language: lack of understanding, loneliness, isolation, fear, and sadness. She
was overly sensitive (suddenly irritable, anxious, and sad) about mistakes, writing, and task
completion, exaggerated her failures, and became reluctant in learning. Yulia started to experience
growing stress and anxiety with an absence of differentiated tasks (after four months) and getting
upset and angry (shouting and nearly crying) as, in Yulia’s view, she failed to make her work
‘neat’. Both Yulia and Katerina constantly sought support in L1 from me. Rita was somewhat
anxious and nervous in learning when it concerned L2 learning, test results or public
presentations, while Alisa was overly sensitive about mistakes and criticism. Yulia, Katerina, and
Alisa avoided talking about learning L2 in some interviews. I discuss this finding as part of pupils’
emotions in 11.5.1.3.
An uncommon finding was an unusually strong learning confidence in Ivan’s case. While making similar mistakes as other pupils did in literacy, Ivan expressed surprisingly high L2 confidence. He claimed to be ‘the best’, ‘the most advanced’, and that he knew ‘everything’. Ivan was overly confident, in his teacher’s view, and did not like to lose or to be wrong. At the same time, Ivan repeatedly reported that he did not feel he has learned anything new (as seen from 9.2.2). Such high confidence in lessons seems to be caused by what Ivan perceived as the low academic/cognitive difficulty of activities (for Ivan’s level), which I interpret in 11.2.5.

10.4.4 Communication issues with peers

Across cases (Table 10.11) there emerged two types of communication/friendships: a problematic lack (Yulia, Alisa, Rita); and a fervent prioritising (Ivan), expressing vulnerability about social ties (all cases) (discussed in 11.5.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Yulia</th>
<th>Rita</th>
<th>Alisa</th>
<th>Katerina</th>
<th>Ivan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes/Themes (headings of the sections)</td>
<td>Communication and solitude issues</td>
<td>Characteristic friendship group</td>
<td>Alisa and Cathy’s (a girl with SEN) friendship</td>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>Strategic learning partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A new friend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship with the TA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A new foe: bullying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship with the class teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical findings</td>
<td>Communication with peers: Lack of friendships (Yulia, Alisa, Rita); a distinct value and priority of communication (Ivan); general vulnerability (all cases)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unique friendships with pupils with SEN in class (Yulia, Alisa)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bullying in L2 school (Yulia, Alisa, Katerina, Rita)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atypical findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships with the teachers as a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Friends are chosen strategically to improve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All pupils had some communication issues with peers. Yulia seemed uncommunicative/reticent to her mother, while the EAL teacher saw her as a laid-back, self-contained pupil who chose to be alone. Yulia reported communication and solitude issues, and not having friends. Yulia was communicative with me and a girl with SEN. There was a special unique friendship with a girl with SEN in class in two cases (Yulia, Alisa). Yulia and Alisa said they had only one friend. Alisa and her friend were bullied in school together. Her teacher expressed a concern about Alisa’s friendship, trying to separate the girls as Cathy was overly domineering towards Alisa. Rita had communication issues with peers, and no friends as reported by parents. The teacher said that Rita had a friendship group who were all EAL pupils and that she was very easy-going and flexible in friendships. Ivan was too chatty, overly communicative, oftentimes prioritising communication rather than ongoing work. Another finding was indicated in Ivan’s case regarding the strategic choice of friends in learning. Ivan chose to work on his own if other people might have slowed him down. I interpret this as an exemplification of achievement motivation in 11.4.1. The social relationships of pupils are discussed in 11.5.2.1.

Four out of five cases were marked by bullying reports. Yulia reported bullying cases, which made her more sensitive, stressed, and scared in learning. Katerina and Alisa reported bullying cases, which upset them. Rita got quieter after her answer was pejoratively corrected by another pupil in class because of a grammar mistake (discussed in 11.5.2.2). An uncommon finding was the communication issues with the class teacher and the TA as found in Katerina’s case: unconventional and stigmatising. In her first year Rita also reported upsetting instances with her class teacher, i.e. the teacher was neither talking to her much nor giving her opportunities to speak. This finding is discussed in 11.5.2.3.

10.4.5 Summary

Figure 10.3 summarises the cross-case analysis of Social behaviour and relationships of Russians-speaking migrant pupils in the L2 school overarching theme. I discuss these findings in Chapter 11, section 11.5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressions of social behaviour and relationships in L2 school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Submissiveness and reticence in learning (Yulia, Rita, Alisa, Ivan).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duplicitiousness/manipulative behaviour in learning (Katerina, Yulia). Rebellious behaviour in school (Katerina).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning-related increased sensitivity and stress (Yulia, Alisa, Rita, Katerina - sadness). L2 and L1 issues directly impact on well-being.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased learning confidence (Ivan) is potentially caused by the low perceived cognitive difficulty of the tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication issues with peers: lack of friendships (Yulia, Alisa, Rita); a distinct value and priority of friendships (Ivan); vulnerability (all cases).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problematic relationships with the class teacher and a TA as a cause of stress (Katerina). Upsetting first year relationship with the teacher (Rita).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends are chosen strategically to improve academic results (Ivan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique friendships with pupils with SEN in class (Yulia, Alisa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying in L2 school (Yulia, Alisa, Katerina, Rita)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 10.3 Summary: Social behaviour and relationships**
Chapter 11  Discussion

11.1 Introduction

This chapter is a discussion of the significance of the findings, comparing them with the relevant literature and addressing the research questions of this thesis:

1. What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?
2. How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

I have restricted my references to the literature in this discussion mainly to UK-based studies in view of considerable differences in the learning of migrant pupils in other contexts. I, nevertheless, referred to some individual studies if they were particularly relevant to the findings when such relevant studies were absent in the UK context. As I elaborated in Chapter 3, the overarching theoretical framework in this study is provided by Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. This theory is particularly useful as it poses fundamental ideas about learning and development as ‘social and cultural rather than individual phenomena’ without offering a ‘definitive model’ (Kozulin et al., 2003, p.1). Drawing on Vygotsky’s theory, a change of sociocultural environment (migration) for children incurs new unpredictable developmental changes. Environment for Vygotsky is seen as more than a physical context but as a context with ‘tools and cultural objects, as well as people’ (Bransford et al., 2000, p.80). The change of language leads to a change in the LL process including learning through a different language. LL is in itself ‘a form of higher mental functioning which is mediated by cultural artefacts’ (Liu et al., 2017, p.380). The experiences of children in the process of language change and the subsequent learning for these children form a “sense-generating” activity that changes the consciousness of a person’ (Kozulin, 1990, p.190).

Based on Vygotsky’s theory, experiences must be discussed as historical processes using a dialectical approach (Leontyev, 1997) which ‘examine[s] phenomena as dynamic, contextual, complex entities in a constant state of change and situate[s] the sociocultural development of the personality in humanity’s historical development’ (Mahn, 2003, p.135).

The first section of the discussion chapter (11.2) is concerned then with the first research question: what experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2? This is analysed, generally, by applying Vygotsky’s historicism, i.e. the
experiences of pupils in their development acknowledging their dynamic, complex, and contextual nature. In the second section of the discussion chapter (11.3) I attend to the second research question: how do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues? I separate the ‘experiences’ and the ‘personality development in the light of experience’ letting them ‘speak’ to each other clearly; nevertheless, an overlap between research questions 1 and 2 is inevitable.

11.2 Learning experiences/issues and L2

As mentioned earlier, this section is devoted to the first research question: What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2? The main feature of the findings in my study was that nearly all the experiences/issues of children were conditioned by their L2 proficiency or related to L2/L1 in one way or another. Generally following the findings in the previous Chapter 10, I start by focusing on achievement, academic expectations, and L2 (11.2.1) followed by learning support issues (11.2.2), and assessment (11.2.3). I then discuss the L1 presence in learning (11.2.4) and the L2 learning and mathematics (11.2.5) experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in Key Stage 2. Although discussed in separate sections it is not, however, possible to delineate achievement or language from other experiences/issues which emerged in the data, as they are intertwined with each other and other issues.

11.2.1 Achievement, academic expectations, and L2

There was compelling evidence in the data (section 10.2.1) that achievement/progress and general learning issues were a concern in L2 literacy or in other subjects, which overtly stemmed from and were conditioned by L2 proficiency, for all Russian-speaking migrant pupils in my study (for Ivan – in the initial years). All pupils saw the cause of their achievement difficulties in the L2 exclusively, which, the children reported, improved when their L2 proficiency increased. The findings from studies of other migrant groups in the UK emphasised L2 proficiency as a key skill needed for academic progression (e.g. Strand and Demie, 2005; Mantovani and Martini, 2008; Safford and Costley, 2008; Mistry and Sood, 2011; Demie and Hau, 2013; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014; Demie, 2018a; Strand and Hessel, 2018) and ‘the most apparent obstacle’ for the children (Ryan et al., 2010, p.14). In the L2 school environment immigrant children’s success was reported as dependent on understanding the rules, routines, requirements, and social customs, getting accustomed to a new educational system with different expectations, curriculum (Este and Ngo, 2011). Other factors included classroom arrangement (Ryan et al., 2010), or ‘physical space and social climate’, and cultural norms, e.g. the way pupils greet teachers as Chuang and Moreno (2011, p.157) maintained. The data in my study showed that these factors were essentially
regulated by the child’s proficiency in the language of instruction. Winterbottom and Leedy (2014) found that achievement barriers occurred in the differing perceptions of academic achievement from teachers and children, namely: teachers thought the student was performing well, but children felt bored and disengaged in learning. Haan and Wissink (2013) also observed differing views from parents and teachers on pupils’ academic potential and success. Concurrently, Ivan and his teacher considered his L2 level at the time of the study to be better than some of the native English pupils; however, his mother mentioned that Ivan did have issues with the L2. Class observations in my study predominantly supported Ivan and his teacher’s views, illustrating that this Russian-speaking mother’s, possibly overly high, expectations of Ivan’s L2 were reminiscent of the enactment of the ‘child as project’ (Hallden, 1991; Vincent and Ball, 2007) stance attributed to Russian-speaking mothers across various settings (Payne, 2015; Akifyeva, 2017). Alisa’s mother dissatisfaction with the academic demands of school can also be interpreted as symptomatic of the ‘child as a project’ child-rearing practice.

The data in my study revealed differing academic expectations: low-level expectations and a generalising attitude based on L2 proficiency in three cases (Yulia, Rita – in her first year, Katerina), and high-level expectations in the other two (Alisa, Ivan). It has long been acknowledged in the literature that ‘when teachers and principals have a low opinion of the children’s learning ability, the children seldom exceed those expectations’ (Haryou, 1964, p.203). One of the implications of low expectations was proven to be low achievement (e.g. Demie and McLean, 2007; Demie and Lewis, 2010; Strambler and Weinstein, 2010; Ewijk, 2011; Pulinx et al., 2017). The data in my study supported these conclusions, and generally allied with the findings of lower academic expectations of immigrant children (Dee, 2005 – in relation to race, ethnicity, and gender; Figlio, 2005 – focusing on migrants’ last names; Robertson, 2007 – in relation to migration; Anderson-Clark et al., 2008; Ewijk, 2011; Intxusti and Etxeberria, 2013; Sprietsma, 2013; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014 – at secondary level). In their study of 17- to 18-year-old immigrant students in mainstream English classrooms, Safford and Costley (2008) revealed how students faced ‘preconceived negative assessments of their abilities which were based solely on their lack of experience in English’ (p.141). My research revealed the same attitude towards three pupils of primary age (Rita – first year in England, Yulia, Katerina). L2 proficiency was a basis for generalised attitudes about achievement in English as well as in other subjects. This could be interpreted in Rosenthal and Jacobson’s (1968) words: ‘Sometimes the teacher recognizes disadvantages and perhaps, sometimes, she [he] creates them’ (p.55).

While low expectations in my study were essentially based on L2 proficiency, they were not directly attributed to L2 or migration status, as in Machovcová’s (2017) study; rather, they were
reported as rooted in the natural abilities of pupils (not being smart or able). Surprisingly, in Rita’s case (6.2.1), her teacher denied that the issues stemmed from migration and L2 (e.g. Rita’s teacher stated that her progress did not depend on her L2 status). This might have negatively influenced Rita’s experience, causing the bilingual L2 needs to be overlooked. Sood and Mistry (2011) showed how some teachers did not consider EAL pupils ‘bright’ or confident (p.207). The data in my study were consistent with this in Yulia’s (5.2.1) and Katerina’s (8.2.2) cases. Chen (2009) argued, ‘without an understanding of why children need to learn other languages and how knowledge of other languages is learnt, teachers will always be less effective than they might be’ (p.58). In relation to my data, the awareness of what emergent bilingualism entails by the teachers (Sierens and Ramaut, 2018) might have prevented children’s issues, including preconceptions of them based on their L2 level. An interesting finding, linked with the above, was that teachers’ expectations in my study aligned with their explanations of pupils’ success or failure. Improvement in L2 and other subjects’ progress/achievement was explained by some teachers as derived from external factors, e.g. due to the interventions as in Katerina’s case. However, low achievement and progress were explained as caused by internal factors (natural intelligence and ability) (8.2.2) rather than by a misunderstanding of the nature of bilingualism, and therefore, a failure to provide necessary L2 support for the pupils, leaving aside self-awareness of teachers’ own low academic expectations negatively impacting on children’s further academic achievement. An implication of these is that teachers and staff should not form preconceptions of migrant pupils’ intelligence, achievement/academic level, and progress across subjects based on their L2 level and that the impact of a change of languages on children should not be underestimated and overlooked.

11.2.2 Learning support as a concern

I will now discuss the findings concerning the learning support of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in lessons. The isolation, lack of transparency, and lack of consistency of the schools’ practices in the implementation of principles for dealing with EAL migrant pupils was an issue in the predominantly mainstreaming approach in three cases in the context of my study. Wardman (2013) found that newly arrived children did not always get additional help in learning L2. Consistently, the support at primary level in my study was minimal. Supporting the findings in Safford and Costley’s (2008) research, a lack of learning support in lessons was reported by pupils and parents in my study (as summarised in 10.2.2). As in Schneider and Arnot’s (2018) study, teachers in my study had differing and at times opposite approaches to meeting the needs of recent migrant pupils. Although bilingual EAL specialist staff members were emphasised in the literature (Chen, 2009; Tereshchenko and Archer, 2014), there were no bilingual specialists in the schools in my research, let alone EAL specialists in two schools out of three. Tan et al. (2017)
discussed that support for EAL pupils was linked with the EAL pedagogy, rather than SEN, with these two areas ‘being kept generally distinct’ (p.450). Nevertheless, in my study the SEN specialist in school provided EAL support in one case (Alisa). In Alisa’s case, the homework peculiarity (presented in 7.2.1) did not relate to being an EAL pupil in particular (but is a general arrangement in the school for all pupils). It would have been helpful for Alisa’s understanding, as she is EAL, to have had more systematic homework and a clearer/more transparent curriculum content communicated to her mother. Liu et al. (2017) found that one of the strategies of multilingual pedagogy was the use of bilingual translation including Google Translate. In my research, such implementation was extremely helpful for Rita, based on the pupil’s own reports (Rita, section 6.2.2), as she was given complete freedom to use it across subjects and was able to stop using it when she chose to, as it was used as a substitute for EAL specialist support in class.

A significant finding was that in two cases pupils were punished for misunderstanding instructions in L2 (Katerina – 8.2.3, Yulia – 5.4.2), especially troubling for Yulia who arrived to the L2 school a month before the study’s commencement. Katerina was punished for making mistakes. Supposedly, the teachers assumed their understanding of the instructions and the children’s confusion was interpreted as misbehaviour. The nature and the implications of such punishments were unquestionably traumatising for the children, but more telling were the uncomfortably deficient pedagogies in relation to EAL pupils employed by the teachers in these two cases. Chen (2009) described how ‘a problematic mainstream inclusion due to inadequate language support in class actually causes severe exclusion in the sense that the children are very withdrawn in the lesson, and their confidence is dampened’ (p.69). This was supported by the evidence in my study when Katerina admitted being quiet in lessons when she had questions and might explain the quiet behaviour of other pupils (discussed later in 11.5.1).

### 11.2.3 Assessment

In 11.2.1 I argued that the achievement issues of pupils overtly stemmed from L2 proficiency. In this section, I discuss the findings regarding the assessment of pupils, inter alia, showing that it was not their L2 proficiency level, which caused achievement concerns but the attitudes towards their L2 level. Assessment (specifically, formative) appeared to be peculiar in the data in that it was characterised by an absence of a common approach across the cases, in some cases done in a personalised form (e.g. Alisa was given an ‘A’ which meant ‘Ask’). It was clear from the data in my study that it was at times an issue for both children and their parents that there was no explicit marking system based on grades. The ClassDojo application was the only means of feedback from the school. However, this explicit form of assessment (ClassDojo, also ‘house points’, or ‘dots’) was at times used in place of grades for any achievements in learning or a way of punishments
(Katerina). In relation to summative assessment, academic achievement/progress was judged using standardised tests across the cases without a differentiation between migrant or non-migrant pupils. Hall (2001) and Akresh and Akresh (2011) deemed the standardised tests (both verbal and non-verbal) for EAL pupils as being ‘particularly prone to bias’ as low results in these tests ‘might simply indicate a bilingual pupil whose verbal talents have not been accurately reflected because of the language bias’ (p.13). The results of such tests in my study were disclosed to the child in one case in the forms of percentage/points from their tests without any interpretation of these results. The implications of these tests and the disjointed assessment approaches were Rita’s own interpretations of their results (e.g. Rita’s emotional distress and perceived failure exemplified in crying after her exam result).

Significantly, assessment also disclosed an absence of consideration of the children’s emergent bilingualism (Shohamy, 2011; Mueller-Gathercole, 2013; Backer et al., 2017). This was due to an absence of official guidance regarding assessment of EAL pupils. Research developments in the formative assessment of multilingual pupils advocated the inclusion of the full language repertoire of children (Shohamy, 2011; Sierens and Van Avermaet, 2014; Backer et al., 2017; Leung and Solomon, 2019; the Bell Foundation, 2019). These, however, have not been part of the official guidance provided for teachers and, therefore, have not been incorporated into mainstream English classrooms. It was particularly traumatic in Katerina and Yulia’s cases. Excessive marking was a cause of upset and stress in Yulia’s case (5.4.2); it evoked fear and avoidance in Katerina’s case (8.2.3). Making mistakes was an aggravating factor in anxiety development for these pupils in my study who expressed strong negative reactions to overly meticulous marking in the low L2 proficiency stage. Nearly three decades ago Krashen (1989, p.59, italics in original) emphasised,

In all successful language teaching methods, the focus is on the message and not the form, on what is being said rather than how it is said. Also, student speech is allowed to develop on its own; there is little emphasis on error correction and grammatical accuracy.

Krashen (1985) said that successful language acquisition was not possible in cases of a mental block (the affective filter that prevents the input), including if a learner was anxious, unmotivated, or lacking self-confidence. Baker (2006) also emphasised the importance of ‘supportive and non-threatening cooperative learning’ (p.295). Regarding this, the overly meticulous marking of the L2 proficiency issues in my research suggested that L2 proficiency had not been the source of the learning issues. Rather, it was the anxiety evoked by the attitudes towards the children’s L2 acquisition processes.
The children in my study made mistakes not because of gaps in their knowledge (as the case often is with the monolingual or highly proficient balanced bilingual/multicompetent L2 users), but because they tried to reach far beyond their knowledge of the language, which they were immersed in. For instance, producing the whole story when they were not able to communicate or write in sentences yet (Yulia). This, following Walters (2007), made them ‘vulnerable as successful learners’ decreasing their ‘opportunities for developing their language’ (p.100). In addition, in Yulia’s case a perceived lack of ‘progress’ in the L2 was an issue communicated by the staff (EAL TA) six months after her arrival into the UK (section 5.2.1), early assessment of which (L2 progress) had detrimental effects on Yulia’s socioemotional well-being and learning. This supported the findings of the study of Polish immigrant pupils in Scotland, where teachers disregarded any other skills or languages in their assessment of immigrant pupils (Moskal, 2016).

Teaching assessment approaches in my study were overly meticulous in the very early stage of immersion, which resulted in anxiety but also in dishonesty from Katerina (8.3.2) and Yulia (5.2.5), who chose to cheat when their marks were at stake (further discussed in 11.2.5 in relation to L2 issues and as an aspect of duplicitous social behaviour in 11.5.1.2). Yulia was not reassured that she was not supposed to already know the advanced vocabulary in her spelling tests, and she started to cheat so she would at least receive a higher mark than ‘zero’. The implication of this in my study was that the children should not have been expected to acquire the L2 in such short periods of time (e.g. six months, in Yulia’s case) and their L2 level should not have been marked with focus on the ‘form’.

11.2.4 L1 presence in learning

A further key finding pertains to the presence of L1 in learning. Differing/contrasting L1 use and presence emerged across cases. There were two especially critical contrasting findings in my study. Firstly, L1 was banned at all times in the L2 schools (Katerina – 8.2.1), and secondly, L1 was allowed in L2 literacy lessons as an instrument of learning, for example: writing in L1 in English books was routinely organised by the teacher, more often for newly arrived pupils – such as Rita in her first year (as seen from section 6.2.3) – and as an aid in Yulia’s case (section 5.2.4) in the first four months after arrival. Russian-speaking pupils received minimal L1 support in Makarova and Terekhova’s (2017) study in a Canadian context. In my study, Russian-speaking pupils received almost no L1 support. Safford and Costley (2008) identified that teachers ignored the multilingual resources of 16- to 18-year-old EAL pupils in the UK (also, similarly, in Sneddon’s (2007) work). The data in my study in primary level supported these findings in most cases where the Russian language was not used in learning in class (except for Rita). Dakin (2017) found that the use of L1s in schools were ‘neither encouraged nor discouraged but relied on the attitudes of individual teachers to promote and value it’ (p.432). The data in my study were
generally consistent with this in relation to individual teachers’ decisions about languages, except for one case (Katerina). Rutter (2003) recommended that teachers praised pupils’ bilingualism so that pupils ‘feel that their teachers are genuinely interested in their languages’ (p.119). The data in my research illustrated that the praise did not go any further than that (except for Rita). L1s were not present/incorporated in learning, specifically in class in my observations.

Referring to Garcia (2011), Dakin (2017) found that one teacher incorporated the L1s in learning through dynamic bilingualism (Garcia, 2009b), which included, e.g. learning words in the L1s. Similarly, in Rita’s case, as she was prompted to accommodate her L1 in learning, the use of L1 was deemed an advantage by the class teacher and other members of staff (Conteh, 2003; Garcia, 2009a; Van Der Wildt et al., 2017). Promotion of L1 support was suggested in the literature (e.g. Rubin and Bhavnagri, 2001; Conteh, 2003). However, in Rita’s case the incorporation, rather than the passive promotion, of L1 into learning increased its value, even though it was used as an auxiliary to English. This, Rita revealed, helped her to adjust to learning. Rita’s teacher used the L1 in learning as part of the curriculum, which could be interpreted as seeing her as a multicompetent pupil (Cook, 2002, 2016; Cook and Wei, 2016; Wei, 2016). Her L1 was seen by the teachers as a valuable resource (Baker, 2006, p.391) for her literacy development, when she could use it in her English books in writing. However, this resource was employed only as a way of transition to English, and a temporary bridge in her L2 learning. In other cases, the use of the L1 in learning was minimised and seen as the way of improving the L2 rather than as an important facet of cognitive development and well-being. Bourne (2007) called this ‘a deficit model of bilingualism’, which was merged with an urge for ‘English as a second language support’ (p.137). The attitudes towards and place of L1 in learning for the children were deemed as a subordinate (if it had any place at all) concern in my study. The implication of these is that the incorporation of both languages (Chalmers et al., 2019), whether through bilingual pedagogy (Conteh and Riasat, 2014), dynamic bilingualism or through using translanguaging pedagogies (Garcia, 2009b; Rowe, 2018), for example, seeing pupils as multicompetent learners (Cook and Wei, 2016) in learning could have been a way of clearly minimising the pupils’ issues.

My study’s findings generally supported and highlighted the problematic nature of bilingualism in England (e.g. Genesee, 2002; McEachron and Bhatti, 2005; Bourne, 2007; Butcher et al. 2007; Murakami, 2008; Cooke and Simpson, 2012; Simpson and Whiteside, 2012; Drury, 2013; Bligh and Drury, 2015; Simpson, 2015). It maintained the ‘language as a problem’ orientation (Ruiz, 1984) with a deficit view of pupils’ previous linguistic resources (Wielgosz and Molyneux, 2015). Evidently, L1 in Katerina’s case (she was denied the right to the L1 throughout her learning) was seen as a problem (Slembrouck et al., 2018), or a hurdle, causing her low achievement. This
supported Ramaut and Sierens’ (2011) discussion of how L1 was banned in a Belgium context. When banning of the L1 was enforced, its crucial nature in allowing access to the curriculum (Liu et al., 2017) became apparent. The L1’s status in Katerina’s case revealed, in Li’s (2010) words, the ‘inconvenient truth’ (p.133), which could be described, following Liu et al. (2017), as not drawing sufficiently upon ‘a strong professional knowledge base’ in dealing with the EAL pupils (p.391). Similarly to Strobbe et al.’s (2017) findings in a Belgian context, Katerina had experienced what was called a monolingual or fractional attitude towards her bilingualism as opposed to a holistic attitude: that is, seeing pupils as having a ‘unique linguistic profile’ (Baker and Wright, 2017, p.9). Katerina’s teacher seemed to have acknowledged the possibility of different language competencies in her two languages. It appeared, as explored by Conteh et al. (2007) and Baker (2006), that teachers had paradoxical attitudes towards L1, explicitly celebrating cultural diversity and yet harbouring implicit monolingualist beliefs, thus leading to the prohibition of L1 in school.

The outcomes of overlooking the L1’s significance were evident in the data in my study. Katerina spent more than three years in the L2 school, whereas Rita spent a year and a half in the L2 school. Rita progressed well in all subjects, as her teacher reported. Katerina had severe well-being and success issues (as evident in 8.2.2). While research shows contradictory findings on the advantages of bilingualism (e.g. for a review – Bialystok, 2011; Baker and Wright, 2017), it shows clearly the cognitive (intellectual, working memory) and academic disadvantages in cases of late immersion (Hansen et al., 2016), an absence of formal bilingual education (but only the use of L1 at home) (Lauchlan et al., 2013), or ‘low proficiency’ bilingualism (Kempert et al., 2011). Conteh (2003) said that the use of the stronger language in learning aided children’s confidence, social maturity, and intellectual (cognitive) development, as bilingual learners have ‘greater cognitive capacity and fuller knowledge and awareness about language than being monolingual’ (p.120). In relation to my data, the teacher pointed out the cognitive and maturity issues, without realising that they might have originated from the school’s L1 ban rather than from Katerina’s own innate characteristics which were suggested to have been external to the school. (I discuss this as part of academic expectations in more detail in 11.2.1.) There was no physical, speech or other impairment found in the psychological assessment of Katerina, which proves that her L2 learning issues (‘educational language’) were sociocultural, conditioned by her experiences. The schools, as was evident, caused achievement issues or perceived achievement issues by ignoring the home languages (Baker, 2006; Pulinx et al., 2017; Chalmers et al., 2019). The extent of the L1 ban, which put Katerina in a disadvantaged position, was ultimately harmful for her, resulting in ineffective teaching (Chen, 2009). Katerina was deeply unhappy about the inability to use L1 (as she persistently highlighted in the interviews). Vygotsky (1962, p.110) maintained that a ‘success
in learning a foreign language is contingent on a certain degree of maturity in the native language’ (p.191). Considering this, forbidding the L1 clearly affected Katerina’s success in the L2 in my study. Liu et al. (2017) identified that the explicit use of L1 for new arrivals who were new to English was an aspect of productive pedagogy in multilingual classrooms. While supporting this, the data in my research showed the need to access L1 in the classroom and school, not only for very recent arrivals who were new to English, but also highlighting L1 access as an undeniable right of the child, violation of which was followed by well-being, cognitive, and achievement issues (Katerina’s case). Chen (2009) concluded in relation to the well-being and achievement of Chinese EAL pupils, that a positive attitude towards the L1s and cultures of pupils which protected an untroubled learning, was fundamental to halt ‘the cycle of failure and low self-esteem’ (p.58). For the participants in my study, failure and self-esteem issues were not simply improved by positive attitudes towards the L1 (as they were positive in Yulia’s case and did not prevent the socioemotional well-being issues), but with the right of access to the L1 as an aid and a keystone in learning the L2 (or as an additional tool in learning using the L2). It has been found in the literature (Chen, 2009) that linguistic and socioemotional safety for EAL pupils played a significant role in their achievement. Linguistic safety included feeling an ‘important learner’ as a bilingual in class (Gregory, 1994, p.153). In relation to Katerina’s case, linguistic safety might have been behind her educational language development problems. The implications of this are that teachers should promote the linguistic safety of migrant pupils with sustainable learning support and should have a clearer grasp of ‘emergent bilingualism’.

The hindrances in the employment of ‘multilingual home language pedagogies’ were identified previously as stemming from the lack of knowledge of the ways and reasons for the employment of L1 activities rather than from teachers’ rejection to do so (Bailey and Marsden, 2017, p.301). In relation to my study, while it was not entirely clear what lay behind the teachers’ decisions regarding the L1, multilingual home language pedagogy was non-existent in the classrooms except for Rita’s class. Perhaps this is rooted in the UK educational policy which does not propose any guidance for EAL immigrant children (Butcher et al., 2007; Conteh, 2012), allowing ‘full freedom to the schools to implement the necessary measures’ as regards EAL pupils (British Council, 2014, no pagination; DfE, 2019). Sood and Mistry (2011) emphasised that, ‘the needs of EAL pupils can best be met if there is whole institutional understanding, awareness, and cultural sensitivity in partnership with different stakeholders’ (p.213). Regarding my study, a whole institutional awareness would have been particularly relevant considering the isolated strategies of each individual teacher.
All in all, echoing Li’s (2010) study of adolescent immigrant students in a Canadian context in its appeal for a more-than-superficial acknowledgement of ethnic and linguistic diversity in the classrooms, the data in my study revealed the need for establishing the right for the L1 to be present and used as a resource for pupils as especially important in the first year since arrival (as seen from Rita’s case). After the first year since arrival, pupils should have been given an unconditional right to access and rely upon their L1, the denial of which can lead to well-being and cognitive deprivation.

11.2.5 L2 learning and mathematics
In this section, I discuss the significance of the findings focusing on the L2 learning experiences. The pupils’ L2 issues in my research originated from the paradoxical nature of being immersed in the L2 school environment (Cummins, 2018). The pupils were expected to learn the foreign (for them) language exactly as they would do a native language appearing again (as they did with the L1) in ‘a prelinguistic stage in the development of thought’ in the L2 (Kozulin, 1990, p.153). However, the pupils themselves predominantly learned the L2 as a foreign language (due to their age) (Johnson and Newport, 1989; Vygotsky, 1991; Fabbro, 2002). In this context the children in my study were not taught English grammar explicitly (which was part of the immersion in the L2 schools’ peculiarities) (Leung and Scarino, 2016) and had gaps in this area which could not be mended by prolonged immersion (Baker and Wright, 2017).

Effectively set up learning, Vygotsky (1978) said, results in cognitive development and engenders different developmental processes impossible beyond learning (p.90). He cautioned that ‘it is not a matter of constructing deliberately hopeless situations for the child, which would only lead to fruitless and unsystematic expenditure of the child’s efforts’ (Vygotsky, 1997, p.175). In relation to my study, the L2 issues of Katerina and Yulia denoted the failure of setting up effectively organised opportunities for learning which generated the subsequent developmental processes because of the ‘inadequate instructional support (e.g. in submersion programs)” (Cummins, 2000, p.37), e.g. exemplified through spelling tests with no chance for preparation or the termination of differentiated tasks in Yulia’s case (section 5.2.4). As a result, pupils stopped attempting to solve the tasks, and tried to avoid the activities. (I discuss avoidance in 11.5.1.4.) Significantly, in Katerina’s case ‘the educational language’ was a problem and reported (by the teachers and school’s psychologist after the diagnostic assessment) to have caused her achievement issues (as seen in 8.2.2). The ‘educational language’ in her case related to literacy only, and not to the oral academic register proficiency (Cummins, 2000). Notwithstanding that the L2 academic proficiency was prematurely judged as Katerina arrived in the UK three years prior to the start of the project (Cummins, 2000); testing, rather than observations, was done by the school’s
psychologist in Katerina’s case to determine her ‘educational language’ problems (section 8.2.2). Hence, the class-learning-related causes of Katerina’s achievement issues were excluded from the assessment (Figueroa, 2002): teaching and learning environment quality were taken for granted. Baker and Wright (2017) referred to such determinants of in-class learning as a culturally unwelcoming, de-motivating environment, affecting child-teacher relationship issues and other ‘standard of education’ relevant aspects (p.339). Bligh and Drury (2015) found that ‘increasing numbers of bilingual learners are being [erroneously] referred to speech and language therapists and subsequently being diagnosed with speech and language disorders’ (p.262). Similarly, in my study the school intended to put Katerina on the ‘disabled educational list’, seeing her as a ‘failed native speaker[s]’ (Cook, 2002, p.19).

In two cases pupils (Rita – 6.2.5, Ivan – 9.2.2) felt that they were not challenged enough cognitively in learning (things were ‘too easy’, ‘not new’ in mathematics) as the children were given mathematics assignments based on their L2 level. Ivan’s increased confidence (9.4.1) also seemed to have been linked with it. This supported findings in Moskal (2016) and Safford and Costley’s (2008) studies in which students reported that they lacked cognitive demands in their initial learning. Vygotsky (1978) said that ‘the developmental process lags behind the learning process’ (p.90). This was not the case in my study when the learning process was at times behind the developmental process (when children were given cognitively undemanding tasks), on the one hand, and the learning process was also way ahead of the developmental process, on the other, when children felt left out in lessons due to the inaccessible language of instruction. This was especially vivid when Yulia was asked to write spelling tests with unknown words, which she was terrified of (5.2.5). In this case Yulia felt that she was expected to write scientific concepts in the L2 which were way beyond her potential level of cognitive (linguistic in this case) development (ZPD). The most traumatic for her was self-marking these tests, many of which she naturally got zero in, until she started to cheat. The implication of this is that teachers should not decrease the difficulty of pupils’ strongest (or disproportionately increase the weakest) subjects because of their perceived L2 level, i.e. pupils should be given assignments based on their ZPD, rather than the zone of actual development (current L2 level).

In an outlier case, Ivan, his high L2 progress/achievement was potentially caused by his long exposure to L2 (over five years). However, Ivan himself reported that his ‘excellent’ (as he said) L2 level was not due to his time in the UK but was due to his practical mental/physical input (hard work, attentiveness), creativity which links with emotional impact (doing things in school in an interesting way, which impacts on his enjoyment), and increased (for his level) cognitive or presentational demands (9.2.3). While these summarise the causes of Ivan’s perceived
A significant finding regarding the L2 literacy issues pertained to Katerina, as her time spent in the UK (in comparison with other pupils) was not proportionate to her L2 literacy development. Katerina did not progress in her L2 literacy during the study (8.2.3). The roots of this in Katerina’s case can be found, among other things, in the view of literacy in the school, which was functional, i.e. focusing on correct answers, rather than a shared critical experience while being an active reader (transmission classrooms), for example (Baker, 2006, p.327), or as a part of pupils’ sociocultural practices (Gee, 2015). Following NLS, which see literacies as sociocultural practices (Shun and Lam, 2009), L2 literacy practice in my study was ‘autonomous’, i.e. seeing literacy as a precise and impartial skill (Street, 1984). Taking a social approach, i.e. seeing it as socially and culturally embedded, formed by social institutions (‘ideological’ model), enables the linking of literacy ‘performance to social and economic difference’ (Street, 1998, p.22). Pertaining to my study, it was evident that for Katerina writing was arduous and frightening, stemming from the L2 school environment (socially embedded). Vygotsky’s theory posited that, ‘Literacy in its different forms not only supports logicomathematical thinking but also provides tools for students’ imagination and emotional development’ (Kozulin et al., 2003, p.5). Relating this to my study, Katerina’s literacy issues then further catalysed the behavioural and emotional issues.

The significant finding regarding the experiences in mathematics was that it was the strongest subject across four cases (Alisa – 7.2.3, Rita – 6.2.5, Ivan – 9.2.2, Yulia – 5.2.1). This supported Areepattamannil and Freeman (2008), who found that immigrant pupils outperformed non-immigrants in mathematics in a Canadian context. Mathematics required a considerable L2 vocabulary base and literacy demands, also referred to as mathematical LL (Thompson et al., 2008). For the pupils in my study this primarily involved the area of mathematical L2 learning literacy. Supporting Janzen (2008), difficulties appeared in my study when mathematics involved literacy, i.e. mathematical L2 learning literacy, which was a hindrance for pupils in three cases (Alisa, Rita, Yulia) from showing their full potential in mathematics. What was peculiar was that pupils across cases were considered by the teachers as having strong(er) mathematics: however, this was acknowledged in comparison with other subjects (especially, English), and mathematics achievement might not have been salient if pupils had studied in their L1 (or could have accessed it).

Overall, the experiences/issues of Russian-speaking pupils (the first research question) in relation to the studies illustrated that the education in L2 schools was not inclusive for all children in my
research. Rather, seeing children as problems instead of seeing the ‘education system as a problem’, ‘not equipped to handle diversity’, lacking training equipment, and creating ‘inaccessible environments excluding children from school’ (UNESCO, 2005, p.27). I will now move to addressing the second research question, which is concerned with the expressions of personality development lines in the context of the experiences/issues.

11.3 Personality development in the context of experiences

This section is dedicated to the second research question, namely: how do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues? In my study personality development is seen, following McAdams (2015a; 2015b; 2015c), as a combination of three lines, as discussed previously, consisting of a certain kind of a motivated agent, a certain kind of a social actor, and a certain kind of an author, which together make up the social actor, the motivated agent, and the autobiographical author (which begins to evolve in adolescence) lines, respectively. Following McAdams (2015a; 2015b; 2015c), the sub-questions of the second research question are:

a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

Following the research questions, the section comprises two parts. The first part (11.4) will discuss and interpret the significance of the findings in relation to the motivated agent line of personality development (research question 2a), which comprises pupils’ emergent motivations in the context of their experiences/issues in the L2 schools. The second part (11.5) will discuss the findings in relation to the social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues in the L2 schools (research question 2b).

11.4 The motivated agent line of personality development

The pupils, as motivated agents with their unique motivational agenda, try to understand ‘what they want (and value)’ (McAdams, 2015a, p.193) in the context of the new (for them) L2 schools. As I communicated in Chapter 3, the data pertinent to the motivated agent line (research question 2a) are discussed generally following the lens of the L2 motivational self system theory (Dörnyei, 2009) as a narrower conceptual theory, inclusive of its further development (Henry, 2017; Mensel and Deconinck, 2017). I will further discuss the findings regarding the motivational agenda of pupils in the following sequence: the L2 learning experiences and possible self-guides in the L2 school. The L2 learning experiences component corresponds to intrinsic reasons in learning (Dörnyei, 2009). I will elaborate on this component discussing cross-curricular motivations
(learning using L2 motivations) (11.4.1), the English lessons and mathematical literacy (learning L2 motivations) (11.4.2), and the avoidance of L2 motivations (11.4.3). This is done with the consideration that pupils in my study expressed motivations in relation to L2 learning experiences regarding cross-curricular, non-language-learning directed (not purposefully learning L2 and less academic learning, e.g. art, PE) experiences, which may be contrasted with the learning motivations in L2 lessons (purposefully directed at learning English and involving literacy).

**11.4.1 Cross-curricular motivations: learning using L2**

In L2 schools pupils expressed a general interest in going to and being in school due to the increased number of pleasurable activities and recreational events (motivation for joy: recreation, easiness, fun). In learning, in lessons specifically, pupils showed low learning motivation expressed in engagement/participation and interest (observed and reported), especially in literacy-based academic subjects or academic tasks (except for Ivan) (as seen from the evidence in Katerina – 8.3.1, Alisa – 7.3.1, Rita – 6.3.1, 6.3.2, Yulia – 5.2.2). Schmidt and Rotgans (2017) found that interest is not a cause of learning, but a consequence of learning, i.e. previously learned knowledge increases interest in learning, rather than the initial interest of pupils making them learn. In this view of the motivation of pupils as interest, my findings are consistent with this argument, as L2 learners in my study did not express interest in lessons with a more academic L2 literacy emphasis. This, following Schmidt and Rotgans (2017), was caused by their ‘lack’ of full learning or knowledge gain (and, therefore, no sense of academic achievement). This means that rather than focusing on pupils’ interest levels, at times attributing it to ‘naturally’ low motivation (as in Katerina, Yulia’s cases), teachers’ focus on the learning experience of knowledge gain (or academic/cognitive depth as in Ivan’s case) may be more important.

While not being engaged in ongoing activity in academic subjects or their components, i.e. English, mathematical literacy (discussed in 11.4.2), in observations and interviews, pupils persistently focused on academic achievement in the form of rewards and test results. Academic approach motivation was identified as the achievement of success (Łodygowska et al., 2017), also a part of a tendency for competence (McAdams, 2015a) which was consistent with the findings in my study. This was a prominent motivation in academic subjects as across all cases in my study achievement in the form of rewards, points or test results was prioritised by children. The data showed that pupils in my study genuinely aimed at rewards and achievement (except for Yulia (5.3.4) who was forced by her mother, as she revealed) as their inherently intrinsic motivations (source of pleasure and joy), i.e. motivations ‘deriving from affective rewards such as enjoyment and satisfaction’ (Ushioda, 2014a) which may include ‘interest or sense of challenge’ (pp.35-36).
as part of their need for success. This is also consonant with the OECD (2018) report, which stated that immigrant pupils expressed higher achievement motivations.

Because there are no explicit marks in schools (except for ClassDojo points and test results), the achievement of success (Łodygowska et al., 2017) or an inherent ‘need for success’ in learning (Lamb, 2001, p.86) also included approval/acknowledgment or praise, and accomplishment motivations. Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that extrinsic motivation included introjections or approval from others. Robins (2012) emphasized the children’s need for feeling ‘useful, appreciated and important’ (p.92). Need for approval in my study was even more salient in some cases (e.g. Rita’s fundamental ‘need to be [to feel] smart’, section 6.3.5) than academic achievement motivation in the form of test results and rewards. Although apparently originating extrinsically, approval contributed to children’s own sense of value and self-worth, which (approval/acknowledgement motivation), in my study, was intrinsically derived. Rather than marks or rewards Alisa (7.3.3) and Katerina’s (8.3.2) mothers stated that the girls valued approval and praise, which caused an increase in their learning motivation, making them work harder. Additionally, motivation for communication, or social affiliation in an L2 school, was also a vivid motivation in learning, at times overpowering motivation for achievement in lessons, provided it would not jeopardise the work standard and achievement (Ivan, 9.4.3). Pupils expressed a motivation for the development of relationships with peers, which corresponds to Rodkin et al.’s (2013) social developmental goals.

11.4.2 The L2 and mathematical literacy motivations: learning L2

In L2 lessons and mathematical L2 literacy, participants in my study expressed strikingly contrasting motivations in the form of engagement in comparison with the context of some other subjects (e.g. PE, art). The data revealed how L2 literacy experiences/issues impacted on L2 motivations: a persistent lack of L2 motivation was expressed by pupils (Katerina – 8.3.4, Alisa – 7.3.4, Rita – 6.3.7, 6.3.8, and Yulia – 5.3.3). Inter alia, this highlights the vivid importance of accounting for the context of learning motivations in concurrency with the person-in-context view on motivation (Ushioda, 2009; 2011). Significantly, pupils expressed their motivations regarding L2 both holistically (towards a language) and as a combination of components (as part of L2 learning in class). Holistically, they expressed enjoyment of L2 as a language but not enjoyment of learning L2 in lessons. Regarding the combination of components, children delineated their motivation to learn L2: high L2 motivation in speaking outside of class (Rita, Yulia) but low in L2 learning in class (Rita, Katerina, Yulia, especially in terms of speaking in class – Alisa, Yulia, Rita); and separation of L2 learning in general from L2 literacy (Katerina, Alisa) with high L2 literacy motivation (Alisa). While illustrating children’s different perceptions of L2 motivational
components in the context of immersion, the components bring to the surface pupils’ issues in L2 learning and thus, their overall learning experience.

An atypical but significant finding was that Ivan started to write and self-assemble books in L2, i.e. using L2 in creative or divergent tasks (Baker, 2006). This pleasure of creation (production of own piece of finished work), which appeared as an internally sourced pleasure of accomplishment, became a significant motivation in L2 learning for Ivan. Liu et al. (2018) discussed how digital storytelling advocated autonomy and creativity and increased LL motivation at primary level in Taiwan. Consistently with this, Ivan reported (section 9.3.4) that writing L2 books raised his motivation in L2 learning. However, Liu et al. (2018) found that creative story-telling increased extrinsic goal orientation rather than intrinsic. This contradicts the findings in my study, as Ivan’s mother said that the very writing of books in L2 initiated by Ivan was what catalysed the improvement of his L2, after a long L2 ‘stagnation’ in his initial immersion (as seen from 9.2.1). Thus, using creativity for pleasure or simply experiencing a pleasure of creation may be an internal catalyst for L2 motivation.

Motivation in mathematics was generally higher than motivation in L2 lessons (Rita, Ivan). Katerina was an exception in this case, showing a lack of engagement in both L2 and mathematics with a prevailing fear of mathematics. This showed how mathematical LL experiences (Thompson et al., 2008) (discussed in 11.2.5) had a subordinate impact on pupils’ motivations in mathematics lessons, compared to L2 lessons (L2 literacy). It is possible here that when L2 literacy was not the all-encompassing aim of learning (but a tool of learning content in mathematics alongside numbers), pupils had higher motivations to learn.

11.4.3 Avoidance of L2 experiences
The data showed avoidance of L2-related experiences (even if avoidance meant losing a possibility to achieve academic success) in all cases with the exception of Ivan (section 10.3.1). This finding was unexpected because primary level pupils are universally considered to be ‘inherently’ interested in learning at this age, being curious and engaged (Robins, 2012; Taylor, 2013b). Explored in personality psychology early on in life (Tobin and Graziano, 2006, p.272) avoidance, as a prevention type goal (Higgins, 1987), was most often expressed in increasing distress. Rather than avoidance of L2 experiences, or a sign of distress, avoidance was perceived by teachers as disinterest towards academic success (or possible success), i.e. distractions in learning and the absence of attempts to understand. For instance, Rita was described as somebody who could easily disregard that she was good at something; Alisa was described as somebody who did not care about rewards; Yulia was described as somebody who was not bothered about achievement, could have tried harder (by the EAL TA) and who did not care about rewards (by
her mother). Persistently, pupils revealed their focus on academic rewards, contrasting with parental and teachers’ views. For these pupils what was perceived as indifference about their achievement or marks, or distraction because of a lack of focus was their avoidance of inner personal language-based failure embodied in the avoidance of L2 experiences. The reasons behind this avoidance were to prevent undesired situations conditioned by L2 factors (rather than only avoidance of academic failure) as the children revealed themselves: public use of L2 (Rita, Yulia), being in class (Katerina), and avoidance of speaking per se in most cases in class (but not at home) (Alisa). Avoidance of L2 experiences may be further interpreted as, to some extent, an objection to the monolingual environment trying to point out their own need for being valued as (emergent) bilingual/multicompetent persons.

11.4.4 Possible self-guides of Russian-speaking migrant pupils

This section discusses the significance of my findings in relation to the literature regarding possible self-guides in an L2 school as part of the motivational agenda of Russian-speaking migrant pupils.

11.4.4.1 Ideal self and ideal L2 self

Pupils in my study have expressed diverse, at times seemingly superficial and practical but also surprisingly profound, ideal selves in their L2 school (based on the evidence summarised in 10.3.4, reported by pupils in 5.3.5, 6.3.6, 7.3.6, 8.3.5, and 9.3.7). This contradicts the findings in previous studies stating that middle childhood level children do not have clear ideal selves (e.g. Zentner and Renaud, 2007; Lamb, 2012; Chambers, 2018). Ideal selves are socially constructed cognitive images unique to every person that originate from that person’s desires, values, dreams, goals, and meanings (Lamb, 2012). Consistent with the L2 motivational self-system theory (Dörnyei, 2009) and the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), in my study pupils’ ideal selves were directed at something that they generally felt they lacked in the present. For example, Yulia wanted to have more friends because of her loneliness in her L2 school, and Ivan said that he did not have any dreams about L2 because, he says, ‘I already know how to talk’. Pupils’ ideal selves were also embodied in imagined pleasurable future events that they would take part in or would have specific positive attributes. For example, Alisa, Yulia, and Rita imagined having recreational time (joyful events, food, drinks). Rita, Ivan, and Yulia also expressed their ideal self in achievement (passing tests and studying well). Although some ideal selves may be interpreted as ‘fantasy’ (Lamb, 2012, p.1015), the majority of ideal self-guides expressed by pupils were self-concordantly selected, linked with real experiences, and associated with ‘becoming oneself’ (Sheldon, 2014, p.349). In Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2009) terms, pupils illustrated anticipated
plausibility, which comprises the student’s personal understanding of ‘what is possible for the self’ (p.19).

Ideal L2 selves (future dreams and hopes about L2 proficiency or related to L2) were expressed by pupils at perceived low L2 proficiency stages and with issues in L2 achievement (Katerina and Yulia). However, their ideal L2 selves were of a more immediate nature rather than involving long-term future goals, and they were unstable. Katerina expressed no ideal L2 self in later months of the study. Rita expressed a more future-oriented ideal L2 self (to teach L2 or to be an interpreter), and Yulia imagined living in an L2 country (once). Ivan expressed a clear and stable ideal self in an L2 country, repeatedly expressing his vision of his future professions, one of which was to become a writer in L2. However, Ivan did not express any short-term or near-future-related ideal self in learning, L2 (or generally) except for passing exams. Stating that the time of emergence of an ideal self as not clear, Lamb (2012) found that young adolescents do show signs of ‘visions of future success’; however, ‘younger adolescents’ ideal selves are less realistic than older adolescents’” (p.1015). Somewhat aligned but also contrasting with Lamb’s (2012) study in this sense, primary migrant pupils in my study had clear, stable, and realistic images of future success, which they clearly communicated. However, a difference was in the more detailed, temporal nature of future images: more distant versus more immediate goals and dreams.

A significant finding was that those pupils who had immediate (short-term and unstable) situation-specific visions of future success (e.g. wish for ‘good langwig’ related to L2 proficiency – ideal L2 self) also expressed the needs for self-worth, i.e. ‘sense of worth or personal value’ (Covington, 1984, p.4), fairness, and voice (freedom of expression) (ideal self) (Katerina, Alisa, Yulia). However, those pupils with more distant, clearer future visions (Ivan, Rita) about their life and learning (including visions related to academic achievement or language, i.e. ideal L2 selves), did not express any ideal self for self-worth, fairness or voice. Alisa expressed an ideal self in L2 schools related to having a voice and a need for self-worth, expressing a dream to be valued (important) and competent (to know everything) in school in general. Yulia also repeatedly expressed an ideal self related to self-worth (‘being a good pupil and have good L2’, i.e. she felt a ‘bad’ pupil because of her low L2 proficiency and achievement, rather than, for example, feeling as an emergent bilingual/multicompetent pupil). Katerina imagined having a voice in school through misbehaviour (being rebellious in class with her strict teacher) directed at a fair attitude from her teachers (discussed in 11.5.1.2 and 11.5.2.3). The data suggest that this need for fairness, reported as an ideal self, is a precondition for voice (freedom of expression), which appears as a need in situations lacking fairness in learning. This echoes the concept of being himself/herself in Ushioda’s study (2011) and Taylor’s (2010) findings of freedom of being ‘themselves’ which
lead to higher achievement. As Taylor (2010) explained it, ‘it is quite clear that the fully functioning person needs absolute freedom in order to enjoy this experiential living’ (p.58).

The ideal L2 self was mostly related to L2 proficiency, corresponding to the need for competence in L2. In the literature the ideal L2 self (integrative motivation) in a migration context was reported to be a necessity rather than a ‘desire to learn target language’ (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009, p.22). Consistent with this, ideal L2 selves in my study can be generally described as such a necessity for pupils since the ideal L2 self did not occur if L2 competency was perceived to be achieved (Ivan). However, rather than a necessity for L2 competency, the fluctuations of ideal L2 selves (as seen from the summative table in 10.3.4) and integration of ideal L2 selves into ideal selves and vice versa – need to be important, to be good (ideal selves for self-worth) and have L2 proficiency (ideal L2 selves) – revealed a more in-depth relationship within learning motivation and the context of an L2 school. It is only when ideal L2 selves were explored and analysed in context in relation to broader ideal selves that the underlying permeating issues for pupils and their causes were identified in learning, particularly related to their essential well-being needs (self-worth, fairness, and voice). In other words, if I analyse pupils’ reports of their broader ideal selves, I see the emergent essential issues and an absence of a more distant future vision only among those pupils who also reported ideal L2 selves related to L2 proficiency. This suggests that it is imperative to explore pupils’ ideal L2 selves with an exploration of their broader ideal selves to understand the causes of their reports. Applying Dörnyei’s (2009) theory in an English context, Chambers (2018) found a lack of depth in the answers of FLL primary level pupils. The data in my study showed quite the opposite: often clear and varied future selves, though only when they were contextualised and explored alongside broader ideal selves. The causes of this might lie in the fact that my study did not use the same instrument of research design (for a critique of the instrument, see Taylor, 2010) which was used in Dörnyei’s (2009) study and replicated in Chamber’s (2018) study. Another reason might lie in the specifics of pupils’ migration/EAL status, which potentially makes their vision of the future more acute and, therefore, more developed.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) found that students with ‘academically focused desired future selves spent more time doing homework and were less disruptive and more engaged in classroom activities’ (p.22). The data in my study suggest that this causality is more complex: engagement in lessons, homework time, and being disruptive were not directly linked with the academically focused selves. In addition, those pupils who had more distant academically focused desired future selves (Rita and Ivan) focused on academic rewards in lessons; however, those pupils who did not express distant academically focused future selves (but more immediate ones) also focused
on academic rewards in lessons, while also revealing the underlying well-being issues. Thence, the distinction can be made between immediate and unstable versus clearer and more distant academically focused future selves of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the L2 school.

Analysing these pupils’ future possible selves as long-term versus short-term goals (seeing dreams as goals) based on Ushioda’s (1998; 2001; 2014a, 2014b) L2 learning timeline (temporal perspective), children reported both short-term and immediate goals; however, children with no well-being issues reported long-term goals in LL and beyond. In this respect, the data support Ushioda’s temporal dimension but also show how a more distant future vision (long-term goals) is especially significant, not only for learning L2 but also as an indicator of well-being issues, or can be used as a way of understanding pupils’ well-being issues in an L2 learning environment. Yang and Noels (2013) found that more motivated students have better psychological adjustment levels. My data support this suggestion in that pupils with clearer future vision including their academic future vision had fewer overt (observed) and covert (reported) issues in relation to well-being. This leads to a further inference that the development of a more distant and clear vision for their future might help migrant pupils to prevent or address their present needs and concerns.

11.4.4.2 Ideal Multilingual/Bilingual self
Another significant variation of future possible selves in my study was the ideal bi/multilingual self. Rita expressed stronger L1 motivation than for L2 (she imagined travelling to an L1 country). Katerina imagined ways of speaking L1 in her L2 school (the imaginary horse that flies to school and speaks Russian, section 8.2.1). Additionally, higher and clearer L3 (FLL in school, such as Spanish or French) motivations were expressed compared with L2 (Alisa – 7.3.4, Rita – 6.3.9). Interestingly, Ivan had low L1 motivation if compared with L2 (as seen in 9.3.5); at the same time, however, he also considered himself a multilingual person already (expressed in 9.2.1).

Henry (2017) argued for a multilingual view of L2 motivation as a multilingual L2 motivational self system, which includes a multilingual ideal self, defined ‘as an emergent property of interactions between the ideal selves of the different languages known and/or being learned’ (p.555). Concurrently, Alisa, Rita and Katerina included an ideal L2 self, which was directed at learning two or more languages (10.3.4) and can be subsequently interpreted as an ideal bi/multilingual self.

11.4.4.3 Parental ‘desire in language’
Children’s ought-to/feared selves embodied parental ‘desire in language’ as parents’ own ideal multilingual or bilingual selves, i.e. in all cases the most salient ought-to/feared selves in learning were constructed by parents, which impacted on L2, L1, and mathematics learning (as seen from the summary in 10.3.4). In two cases, parental aspirations dominated and led to anxiety and
stress (Ivan, Yulia). In Yulia’s case, as she revealed, her increased achievement focus was caused by parental influence. Mensel and Deconinck (2017) investigated parental motivations for their children’s multilingual identity in Belgium conceptualising parental images of their children’s multilingual identity options through Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system and Kramsch’s (2006) construct of LL motivation of ‘desire in language’. In the expressions of the motivational agenda of the pupils in my study, parental aspirations for their multilingual (Ivan) or L2 monolingual (Yulia, Alisa, Katerina) futures could be interpreted as parental ‘desire in language’, as strong parental ideal multilingual/bilingual or even monolingual (L2) selves whose domineering nature at times put children in distress, threatening their well-being (Ivan, Yulia). This, in Mensel and Deconinck’s (2017) terms, transforms parental ‘desire in language’ into ‘vicarious’ motivations (projected to children). The parental ‘desire in language’ in my study stretched beyond language to other areas of learning for their children but was inherently linked with language/s. It can be further interpreted as part of the other ideal self as opposed to the own ideal self-guides in Lanvers’ (2016) self discrepancy model for language learners. In Ivan’s case his mother viewed the need for him to improve his L2, insisting that his L2 was an additional language; conversely, Ivan saw himself as a multilingual person with an excellent L2 level. Ivan’s mother’s ‘desire in language’ was directed at Ivan’s bilingual development (going to L1 and L2 schools) in relation to academic achievement. Ivan himself did not express an ideal L2 self, whereas his mother expressed this for him. This was similar in Yulia’s case as well, and indirectly evident in Katerina’s case (e.g. Katerina had an L2 tutor to improve her L2 as seen in 8.1 and 8.2.3), and in Alisa’s case (e.g. Alisa reported that her mother tries to develop her L2 at home rather than L1 as seen in 7.3.5). Parental aspirations for their children are best explained as the ‘desire in language’ because parents imagined how they could experience vicarious fulfilment through their children’s bilingual/monolingual ideal selves. The source of parental ‘desire in language’ motivations are not devoid of, but rather reflect, the effect of the wider monolingualising ideology and political rhetoric of English hegemony (e.g. Roberts et al., 2007; Simpson and Whiteside, 2012; Harvey, 2017).

11.5 The social actor line of personality development
This section addresses the second research sub-question (2b): How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues? Following McAdams (2015a), Russian-speaking migrant pupils are seen as social actors in everyday social life who perform their actions in their personalised way, i.e. social actors ‘make it [performance] fit their own unique nature and lived experience’ (p.43). Goffman (1959) referred to such a unique nature as a personal ‘front’ (p.32), which comprises various cues denoting the actor’s stance. McAdams (2015a) calls such cues ‘the rudiments of personality’ or
its dispositions (p.44). The dispositions are the ‘unique and recognisable style of social display and deportment’ including emotional presentation (McAdams, 2015a, p.44). I will then focus on discussing pupils’ observed and reported social behaviour and emotions that are characteristic of this behaviour, and their relationships with other social actors in an L2 school. The section is structured accordingly, following the social behaviour (including emotions) (11.5.1), and social relationships in an L2 school (11.5.2) theme, as presented in the cross-case analysis chapter.

11.5.1 Social behaviour of Russian-speaking migrant pupils

The first aspect of the social behaviour of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the L2 schools as part of social actor line of personality development is related to submissiveness and quietness in learning.

11.5.1.1 Submissiveness and quietness/reticence in learning

Most pupils expressed submissiveness and reticence in learning in class (Yulia, Rita, Alisa, Ivan – secretive about his feelings, Katerina – in relation to being quiet when she had questions). In a learning context submissiveness and inhibited behaviour may be interpreted as a ‘silence’ or ‘non-verbal’ period (Krashen, 1985; Conteh and Brock, 2006; Drury, 2013; Bligh and Drury, 2015), which for very early bilingual children is characterised not only by ‘silence’ but also by explicit refusal to speak, and avoidance of communication with other pupils and teachers (Siraj-Blatchford and Clarke, 2000, p.49). Safford and Costley (2008) found that apart from silence it was a period of a ‘survival reaction to an indifferent or even hostile atmosphere’ (p.140), which coincides with the behavioural inhibition system (BIS) as a response to ‘a vaguely defined, ambiguous, strange, and/or unpredictable’ environment (McAdams, 2015a, p.67). The data in my study (sections: 5.4.1, 6.4.2, 7.4.1, 8.2.4, 9.4.2) support these findings with an additional specification: even pupils who were not very recent arrivals in England and already spoke English (e.g. when were asked by the teacher), also showed the signs of submissiveness and reticence, which appeared as an adopted pattern of behaviour stretching beyond the ‘silent’ period, and possibly resulting from it. Safford and Costley (2008) further said that silence for the students in their study was ‘their only choice reflecting their lack of options about how to interact in the school context in English’ (p.140). The data in my study showed how pupils had some options for interactions in L2, i.e. they still could speak in English (even the most recent arrival Yulia could ask simple questions and give answers), but they chose either not to use L2 or to do it quietly and privately, exhibiting how quietness in lessons was their conscious decision. Even after pupils started to understand the learning material in class, they (Rita, Yulia, Alisa) expressed, in Safford and Costley’s (2008) terms, ‘a reluctance to engage in questioning in class’ (p.142). Alongside this, a significant feature in my study was that while being overtly submissive and reticent, surprisingly, outside of class...
and school pupils expressed vividly contrasting behaviour which emphasises that the contrasting in-class behaviour was learned. Monzó and Rueda (2009) identified silence as a strategic tool for masking a low L2 proficiency level (to pass for fluent English speakers) among Latino immigrant children in the US. In my study, the data did not support this link, which, potentially, remained indirect.

The children’s quietness and submissiveness can also be discussed in the ways they were perceived. ‘In some classroom contexts,’ Safford and Costley (2008) claim, ‘such silences may be viewed as a sign of learning; in others it may reflect disengagement, disaffection or disinterest’ (p.140). In relation to this, in Rita’s case quietness was seen as part of obedience and diligence. Yamat et al. (2013) found that silence among Malaysian children was perceived positively by the teachers as pertaining to LL process. In my study, however, the quietness/reticence and shyness of pupils was seen by teachers as a mostly positive aspect of their ‘natural’ character, rather than attributed to the learning environment or part of their LL process. Yulia was seen as a self-contained pupil who liked solitude and was not interested in achievement. Rita was described as a quiet, obedient, and introspective person. Ivan always spoke quietly in school, which was seen as a ‘diplomatic quality’ by his teacher and his mother. While being deemed as a positive feature in most cases in lessons, in Alisa’s case silence was seen as an alert sign. The teacher expressed a concern about Alisa’s emotional safety due to her overly submissive behaviour, quietness, and shyness. Although teachers did mention or hinted at the possibility of L2 being a hindrance in their learning, the quietness/reticence of pupils was not always seen as an issue disguising negative emotions (anxiety and fear) as a learned response to the issues from the L2 learning environment and L2 social relationships. Rather than a complex phenomenon with underlying challenges for the pupils, in most cases the issues of quietness and submissiveness were seen superficially: positively in lessons (appraised as diligence and obedience), negatively as a sign of disinterest (Yulia) or too much submissiveness and shyness (Alisa) predominantly attributed to internalised factors (‘natural’ character) in all cases. Consistent with Bligh and Drury’s (2015) view, who state that the silent period is ‘fractional, complex, and agentive’ (p.272), for the participants in my study the silent period cannot be described as a mere ‘silence’ or ‘rejection to talk’ while learning the L2. Rather, it was a complex situation-determined (in-class) learned social behaviour, part of children’s personality development (or following Granger’s (2004) view, intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects of children’s identity formation), in its essence stemming from the environmental uncertainty and other underlying challenges, erroneously attributed to personal factors across cases.
11.5.1.2 Duplicity and dominance in learning

In two cases, pupils also expressed duplicitous/manipulative behaviour in learning (Katerina – also dominance – 8.4.1, Yulia – 5.2.5). Pupils felt duplicitous with their teacher in Taylor’s (2010) study due to a lack of personal attitude, care, bond, or interest in pupils as individuals but also from fear of punishment from their teacher (p.200). The data in my study support this in Katerina’s case which was exemplified by her relationships with her teachers (discussed in 11.5.2.3). Taylor (2010) also found that duplicity was a transient behaviour, leading to either submissiveness (strong imposed self) or rebelliousness (strong ideal self). Somewhat concordant with this, for Yulia and Katerina duplicity (just as submissiveness) resembled more of a transient but deliberate adjustment/defence strategy in order to overcome learning and communicative challenges (e.g. when Yulia cheated in her spelling tests). Taylor (2010) discovered that being rebellious did not necessarily mean disruptive or aggressive behaviour; rather, it involved opposing authority, e.g. rejecting ‘to observe the teacher’s rules which are not personally relevant to them’ or ‘resist[ing] peer pressure (peer-imposed self) in order to pursue their own learning goals’ (p.96). This was significant in Katerina’s case, as she seemed to try to oppose the teacher’s authority, unfair attitude, and detrimental school rules (banning the L1). Although ineffective and self-sabotaging in that it undermined her learning, being rebellious (or duplicitous) in Katerina’s case also sought to draw attention to her issues. Reminiscent of Cekaite’s (2007) behaviour L2 interactional competence periods in a Swedish classroom context, dominant behaviour in my study can also be seen as part of ‘a noisy and loud child’, which is preceded by periods of communication development identified as ‘a silent child’ (which can also be seen as submissiveness discussed in 11.5.1.1) followed by ‘a skilful student’ period (p.45). These hint that, in my study, being rebellious, but not duplicitous or submissive (as the latter remained in cases of prolonged immersion), was potentially a period of becoming a ‘skilful student’, rather than an alarming issue. However, considering that Katerina has been in the UK for more than three years and was still rebellious, such an alternative interpretation of rebelliousness might be inconclusive.

11.5.1.3 Learning and L2-related increased sensitivity and stress

There was compelling evidence in the data that L2 and L1 issues directly affected socioemotional well-being (Yulia – 5.4.2, 5.4.3, Rita – 6.4.3, Katerina – 8.2.1, 8.2.3, Alisa – 7.4.2). This generally supported previous studies in that immigration was found to be the cause, which put children at risk of psychological traumas and well-being issues, including emotional and behavioural issues (Leavey et al., 2004; Sonderegger and Barrett, 2004; Safford and Costley, 2008 – in relation to silence; Sales et al. 2008; Chen, 2009; Oznobishin and Kurman, 2009; Li, 2010; Daglar et al., 2011; Ryu, 2013). Most of the pupils in my study expressed increased sensitivity (Yulia, Katerina,
Rita, Alisa). Chen et al. (2013) found that shyness and sensitivity were positive or negative depending on the context: it was negatively linked with school issues and depression among urban migrant children, and positively in relation to adjustment (leadership, competence, and achievement) among rural migrant children. Somewhat concordant, the data in my study showed that sensitivity denoted the underlying issues of anxiety and sadness (Rita, Alisa, Yulia, Katerina) and fear (Katerina, Yulia, Rita) in learning. Importantly, the sensitivity and anxiety of pupils in my study remained camouflaged from teachers with overt submissiveness (except for Katerina – who disguised it by overt rebelliousness and duplicitousness) or avoidance (interpreted earlier in 11.4.3), becoming apparent in class only in rare occurrences (e.g. Rita started to cry because of her test result which strongly surprised her teacher; Yulia started to raise her voice in a lesson when she did not finish her task). Leavey et al. (2004) suggested in their study of the prevalence of mental and health problems among immigrant pupils in a London school that language was ‘an important variable associated with distress’ (p.191). My study showed that the L2 learning environment or the L1-L2 conditions (Katerina) appeared as the key determinants of well-being issues.

11.5.2 Social relationships of Russian-speaking migrant pupils
This section discusses the findings regarding the expressions of the social actor line through the relationships with other social actors, i.e. focusing on communication with peers and between children and teachers in L2 schools.

11.5.2.1 Relationships with peers
Pupils expressed two types of communication with peers: a lack of communication and friendships (Yulia, Alisa, Rita), and a distinct value and priority of communication (Ivan) – generally showing vulnerability about social ties (all cases) (10.4.4). Consistent with Sime and Fox (2015a) and Jørgensen’s (2017a) studies, the general complexity of friendship after migration was identified in relation to friendships’ composition, dynamics, and results. Boda and Néray (2015) found that ‘minority students are likely to send friendship nominations towards their perceived minority classmates if these also declare themselves as minorities’ (p.57). The data in my study support this finding in Rita’s case, who had friends from a language minority group. Sime and Fox (2015a) identified that ‘making friends with children of other nationalities was a difficult aspect of life postmigration for most children’ (p.386). The findings in my study support this general difficulty of forming friendships; however, they were exactly the opposite in relation to the ‘nationalities’ aspect for Rita, Yulia, and Alisa: pupils had multilingual friends (other migrant pupils); and had few and, therefore, problematic networks with English-speaking pupils, except for two cases, when they were pupils with SEN. The data in Rita’s case also contradict the
findings that linguistic minority pupils have challenges making friends who do not belong to their language group (McGovern et al., 2011). The EAL group in Rita’s case had children with different L1s, and there were no English-speaking friends. Boda and Néray (2015) further said that the ‘majority [of] students tend to dislike peers whom they perceive as minorities, regardless of these peers’ self-declared ethnicity’ (p.57). This can possibly explain the EAL friendship group in Rita’s case, with a further inference that being a language minority pupil created deficit feelings based on implicit attitudes towards language minority pupils and made such pupils ‘cluster’ together. Alternatively, it may be that these pupils felt that there was a language barrier between them (EAL group and non-EAL pupils) in forming friendship groups. However, the EAL friendship group had different languages within it and could also potentially have had misunderstandings based on language but it did not stop them from making friends. Therefore, the barrier in friendships’ formation was not caused by the language being a barrier, but by attitudes towards having minority languages or languages other than English. Interestingly, Rita said that she was perceived as not smart in all subjects based on her L2 level by both pupils and teachers in her first year (as shown in 6.2.5). It can be said then that pupils had misconceptions about Rita based on her L2 and therefore made unspoken decisions about not choosing to be friends with her.

In the cases of Alisa and Yulia, the significant finding was that the girls, while generally reporting having issues with finding friends, formed friendships with the pupils with SEN (Cathy and Sophie). This may be generally seen as having a supportive function of friendships which, alongside family, for the migrant pupils has been recognised in the literature (in terms of a sense of inclusion – Mantovani and Martini, 2008; Safford and Costley, 2008; Devine, 2009; Wong et al., 2009; Fang et al., 2016). However, surprisingly, for the teachers Alisa’s friendship was a concern, but Yulia’s friendship was seen positively and so was supported by the teachers. Following Sime and Fox (2015a), ‘shared attributes [e.g. gender, ethnicity, religion] function as ‘the glue’ of children’s friendships’ (p.379), it was clear that in my study the girls were friends based on the aspects which were uniting them. What united these girls may be also generally categorised in Devine’s (2009) terms of friendships mediated by ability. Significantly in my study, these aspects were the foundation that created a space for non-judgmental communication allowing for the substitution of verbal with non-verbal communication and vice versa, and acceptance of minimal responsiveness: Cathy accepted that Alisa spoke very quietly; and Yulia accepted that Sophie never spoke back but was always responsive in her actions. This allowed for comfort and advocacy when Cathy became Alisa’s support; Yulia supported her friend by calming her down. This friendship in my study was beneficial for both the Russian-speaking migrant pupils and for the pupils with SEN as a lack of common language in these two cases was not a
barrier but a plane of exploration of how to effectively form friendships. Alisa and Yulia exemplified the ways pupils independently managed their, but also their friends’, perceived ‘difference’ and isolation by creating friendships. Their ‘difference’ and isolation, which was a disturbing finding in itself, also revealed that they were (mostly covertly) not accepted by other children in their L2 schools. Their friendships, therefore, while being positive, showed how Yulia and Alisa along with their friends with SEN subtly and implicitly lacked being valued by other pupils and were not included in their social network (Fortuin et al., 2014).

The friendship patterns can also be discussed based on the length of stay in the UK. Cvajner (2011) explored the socialisation patterns of migrant children in an Italian high school (16-18 years old) context and found that the heterogeneity of social relations was impacted by the length of stay in Italy. My study showed that the increase in heterogeneity was one feature. While having varied social relations (e.g. friends who were not other EAL pupils), another feature was that for the pupil who spent more time in the UK (Ivan) friendships stood out because they were highly valued and prioritised by the pupil, revealing his vulnerability about friendships, whereas those pupils who spent less time in the UK expressed communication with peers as a troubling issue (Rita, Alisa, Yulia). Jørgensen (2017a) found that friends were formed based on a common activity, being in one class, and by a ‘snowball effect’ (p.574). The data in my study were consistent with this in Ivan’s case. However, in Rita, Yulia, and Alisa’s cases pupils’ friendships were based on learning or language uniting ‘difference’ and isolation (with EAL pupils or pupils with SEN), which made pupils organise common activities together in their free time rather than only being in class, for example. This suggests that the time spent in the UK reduces the difficulty involved in forming friendships but also decreases the specificity/selectivity of the formation of social interactions.

11.5.2.2 Bullying

In this section I will discuss the instances of peer problems in my study generally focusing on the forms of bullying, the reasons behind it, and pupils’ responses to it. Bullying in the L2 school was identified in four out of five cases (Yulia – 5.4.6, Alisa – 7.4.3, Katerina – 8.4.4, Rita – 6.4.2). This is consistent with the previous research conducted on ethnic pupils’ bullying in Britain in relation to its prevalence (Elliott, 2002; Smith, 2014). The forms of and the reasons behind bullying in my study varied. In Albdour et al.’s (2016) study participants reported being bullied due to their ethnic affiliation; in my study, pupils were bullied for their grammar mistakes in speech (Rita), character or personal attitude (Katerina, Yulia), or for being friends with a girl with SEN (Alisa). Drawing on Cowie and Jennifer (2008) the forms of bullying in my study can be categorised as follows: psychological (indirect verbal/social exclusion, direct verbal – Yulia,
Alisa); and direct physical/material (Katerina). Alisa revealed that she was bullied (socially excluded) in break times together with her friend with SEN, which may be explained as disability-based bullying of Cathy which extended to Alisa, as her friend. In Yulia and Katerina’s cases the reasons behind bullying were unclear and resembled character or personal attitude. Jansen et al. (2016) said that the minority immigrant pupils can be bullied due to cultural, physical reasons but also due to not being ‘part of the ‘in’-group consisting of ethnic majority children’ (p.272). Regarding all the participants in my study, not being part of the ‘majority’ group could have induced the bullying instances, which were then reinforced by the language competency or other migration-related aspects. Thus, the development of awareness of linguistic peculiarities of pupils learning the L2 among all pupils can contribute to the preventative strategies in dealing with bullying in relation to migrant pupils. Although bullying might have been caused by reasons other than migration or language, in my study they were obvious in making pupils an ‘easy target’.

An additional facet in my study of the bullying of migrant pupils was their reactions to bullying. In my research pupils ignored bullying and were quiet about the issues, revealing them in the interviews (except for Katerina). This is characterised as an avoidance strategy in Sellman’s (2011) work. Arab American adolescent pupils who were bullied revealed stress issues: ‘feeling sad, angry, helpless, and hurt’ as well as having issues regarding ‘control over their lives and self-confidence’ (Albdour et al., 2016, p.1567). This was an issue across cases (except for Ivan) in my study in relation to sadness. The negative relations with peers created vulnerability about further communication, in Yulia’s case. Both Alisa and Yulia reported cases of social isolation and passive aggression, which made Alisa upset and made Yulia more sensitive, stressed, and scared in learning. These highlight that the underlying challenge of addressing the bullying is that it remains unresolved as migrant pupils simply avoid sharing it or do not have the linguistic resources to report their concerns, which, however, could be inferred from children’s overt quietness and sadness.

11.5.2.3 Relationships with teachers as a form of bullying

In this section, I will discuss the atypical yet significant finding regarding the relationships with the teachers. Katerina’s case revealed (sections 8.4.2, 8.4.3) the stressful, alarming relationships with her teachers in which she felt defenceless and vulnerable (which she reported in nearly all her interviews). In her first year Rita also reported upsetting instances with her class teacher (6.2.1). Jones (2015) found that ‘an adaptive, flexible approach’ (pp.157-158) was essential for teachers in establishing positive relations. In Katerina’s case, teachers employed a more convenient authoritative style, diminishing the voice of the child. Due and Riggs (2016) found that migrant and refugee children in Australia reported to have positive relationships with their
teachers, which contributed to their safety and enjoyment of school. The data in my study showed how conversely negative relationships were reported in Katerina’s case, which were significantly stigmatising and unconventional. The damaging effects of a lack of interest from the teacher, lack of trust, and authoritarian discipline are discussed in the literature in relation to low attainment of EAL pupils (e.g. Conteh, 2003; Fumoto et al., 2007). In my study, the data showed how the negative relationships took place in an English school, which had detrimental effects beyond Katerina’s low attainment. The main issue was not just the fact of such relationships but that they were not seen as abnormal/worrying for the class teacher and the TA themselves. Increased familiarity in communication with Katerina made her communicate and stand up for herself with the adults taking an ‘adult’ role (responding in the same fashion as the TA talked to her). This essentialising relationship was exhibited in that the teachers labelled her a ‘rebellious’, ‘bad’ pupil despite her attempts at being ‘good’ in class. Jarkovská et al. (2015) found that the ‘difficulties around a new migrant child’s arrival are conceived of as an individualized matter stemming from the child’s character rather than from the social issues such a child may be facing’ (p.639). Congruently, teachers in my study seemed to see her being a difficult child by her own choice rather than that she might have been looking for a fair attitude or trying to communicate some underlying issues. The teachers’ self-reflectivity would be beneficial in ameliorating their relations with Katerina in developing what Velasquez et al. (2013) called ‘caring pedagogies’, which would possibly help to initiate cooperation and further trust. The well-acknowledged centrality of the teacher’s role in pupils’ development and well-being (Jones, 2015; Fang et al., 2016) proves that in my study this restricting and almost demonising relationship denied Katerina’s ability to develop as a person, let alone succeed in learning. Reynolds (2008) described inclusive relations between teachers and migrant pupils in which teacher and pupils ‘have a harmonious relationship free of discrimination and tensions’ (p.19). The communication patterns between Katerina, her teacher, and the TA illustrate that through the power imbalance the relationships were nothing but a form of bullying on her teachers’ part including personal forms of exclusion (expressing open criticism of Katerina for her character, and so, her being), which created further tensions. These relationships essentially reflected the shortcomings of the teacher training, rather than the teachers as persons, which does not provide any guidance for building relationships with migrant pupils.

11.6 A unity of experiences and personality development

Although discussed separately (in sections 11.2, 11.4, and 11.5), pupils’ experiences and expressions of personality development in the context of the experiences manifested what was, following Vygotsky (2004), a dialectical process of ‘revolution’ (antithesis) towards ‘a search for a new equilibrium’ (synthesis) (p.35). Personality development is part of the experiential being
of pupils, just as everyday experiences, to some extent, are a reflection of, and guide for personality development. This unity (synthesis) highlights the manifold outcomes of the immersion in the L2 school, at times traumatising in their intensity and deeply transforming, an immersion which was ineffective and exclusive in some cases, causing well-being issues, leaving gaps in L2 literacy, and thus overall learning, particularly when the right to L1 was denied.

Having discussed the significance of my findings regarding the literature answering the research questions, I move on to the final chapter, which summarises the thesis findings, communicates the contribution of the thesis (informed by the findings), the implications for EAL professional and policymakers, future research directions, and the limitations of this thesis.
Chapter 12 Conclusion

12.1 Summary of the findings

This concluding chapter summarises the thesis findings (12.1), followed by an articulation of the contribution (12.2), implications of the findings for EAL professionals and policymakers (12.3), future directions for research (12.4), and the limitations of the study (12.5). Finally, I include the autobiographical reflection in the final word (12.6).

The aim of this thesis was to explore the experiences/issues of Russian-speaking migrant pupils and their personality development in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2. Much of the existing research has been conducted in the UK focusing on the experiences of linguistic minority immigrant groups other than Russian-speakers. At the same time, the focus of studies in the field of EAL or migration overlooked personality development, which remains underexplored in relation to migration, L2 studies (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015), and middle childhood, particularly accounting for context (Hart et al., 2003; Donnellan et al., 2006). Primarily in this thesis, I have addressed the gaps of experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in the UK as well as the paucity of research and paradoxical views in the personality development field by exploring the personality development of middle childhood migrant pupils in the context of L2 schools.

The research questions in this research were as below:

1. What experiences/issues do Russian-speaking migrant pupils face in English state-funded primary schools at Key Stage 2?
2. How do Russian-speaking migrant pupils express their personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   a) How do they express their motivated agent line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?
   b) How do they express their social actor line of personality development in the context of their experiences/issues?

The main findings were:

- The attitudes towards pupils’ L2 learning and status, rather than the actual L2 level, were the key determinant of the learning experiences of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in my study. Overtly, the L2 proficiency was the leading factor impacting on achievement of Russian-speaking migrant pupils.
- Low academic expectations and generalising (cross-curricular) attribution of academic achievement by teachers were based on the L2 proficiency of pupils, but not directly attributed to their L2 or migration status, and explained as being rooted in the natural
abilities of pupils. Teachers’ expectations were concurrent with their explanations of pupils’ successes or failures: improvement in L2 and progress/achievement in other subjects was explained by some teachers as derived from factors external to children (e.g. schools’ support), while low achievement/progress were explained as caused by internal factors (natural intelligence and ability), rather than a misunderstanding of the nature of bilingualism, and issues with EAL support and provision.

- High L2 progress/achievement was potentially caused by long exposure to L2 (over five years in one case). However, the child (Ivan) himself reported that the causes of L2 success were not due to long exposure but due to: (1) his practical mental/physical input (hard work, attentiveness), (2) creativity for pleasure or experiencing a pleasure of creation, which was associated with emotional impact (doing things in school in an interesting way), and (3) increased (for his perceived level) cognitive or presentational demands.

- EAL provision and support practices across cases were characterised by isolation (teachers implementing individually developed and, therefore, contrasting pedagogies), minimisation (support was either provided by SEN or other non-EAL specialists, or limited to half a year of partial withdrawal lessons) linked with the above, inadequacy (i.e. punishment for misunderstanding, incorrectly conflating misunderstanding and misbehaviour) as a source of exclusion, and an uncommon but highly efficacious IT (information technology) implementation (the use of Google Translate in one case).

- Formative assessment of EAL pupils, in concurrence with EAL provision, was characterised by isolation (an absence of a common approach), paucity of unambiguous feedback, and inadequacy (a lack of consideration of emergent bilingualism/multi-competence, i.e. excessive ‘form-focused’ marking at low L2 proficiency stage). This caused children’s anxiety, duplicitousness, and a lack of motivation. Summative assessment was conducted without a differentiation between migrant and non-migrant children. A case of diagnostic psychological assessment of EAL issues was based on tests excluding contextual, learning-related causes. Thus, the quality of the teaching and learning environment was taken for granted.

- Teachers reduced the cognitive depth of pupils’ strongest subjects based on pupils’ L2 levels, signifying that the L2 level was considered equal with cognitive abilities. Paradoxically, teachers also increased (or did not decrease) L2 learning demands of the weakest subject (L2). Thus, in some cases, pupils were either given the assignments based on their zone of actual development, rather than their ZPD, or pupils were given the
assignments beyond their ZPD. The implications of these were avoidant behaviour and duplicitousness in learning.

- L1 and emergent bilingualism, were covertly or overtly (in one case) perceived as a problem rather than an asset, causing achievement issues, bringing implicit beliefs about L1 to the surface, and contrasting with the explicit intentions of ‘celebration of diversity’. A ban of L1 revealed a fractional attitude towards bilingualism causing success (including L2 literacy development) and well-being issues in L2 schooling. L1 was used in learning as a tool (one case); however, this was only a temporary bridge towards learning the L2, i.e. ‘a deficit model of bilingualism’ (Bourne, 2007, p.137).

- Mathematics was the strongest subject, though there were difficulties in the mathematical L2 literacy component.

- The lack of a knowledge gain, rather than a lack of interest, resulted in low learning engagement in academic subjects.

- The motivational agenda of Russian-speaking migrant pupils in L2 schools represents the following components: 1. cross-curricular motivations (learning using L2) and English lessons and mathematical literacy motivations (Learning L2); and 2. possible self-guides: ideal self, ideal L2 self, ideal multilingual/bilingual self, parental ‘desire in language’ as their vicarious multilingual self.

- Mathematics motivation was generally higher than motivation in L2 lessons.

- While having low engagement in L2 in lessons generally, pupils delineated L2 learning motivation seeing it in a holistic (enjoying the L2 as a language, but not ‘learning the L2’ in school) and atomistic way (separation of L2 learning in general from L2 literacy with high L2 literacy motivation – in two cases). The motivational components signified the areas of pupils’ issues in L2 learning.

- Academic achievement was intrinsically rooted (a source of pleasure and joy) and took different forms: approval/acknowledgment, rewards, praise, test results, and a sense of personal accomplishment of a task. Approval was salient in contributing to pupils’ sense of self-worth and sense of value.

- Those pupils who had immediate (short-term and unstable) situation-specific visions of future success (e.g. a wish for ‘good langwig’, related to L2 proficiency – ideal L2 self) also expressed the need for self-worth, fairness and voice/freedom of expression (ideal self). However, those pupils with more distant, clearer future visions about their life and learning (including those related to academic achievement or language, i.e. ideal L2 selves), did not express any ideal self in terms of self-worth, fairness or voice.
Enacting the ‘child as a project’ standpoint, Russian-speaking mothers’ ‘desire in language’ (their own ideal multilingual or L2 monolingual selves) were transferred onto the children, embodying children’s ought-to/feared selves.

Migrant pupils expressed predominantly submissive and quiet/reticent behaviour which was not the ‘silent period’ itself but was a learned, overt social act.

Duplicitous and dominant social behaviours were identified among some pupils, which resembled submissiveness in some respects: they appeared to be deliberate adjustment/defence strategies in order to overcome learning and communicative challenges, and the uncertainty of the L2 environment.

Socioemotional well-being issues remained covert in class, masked with overt submissiveness (or rebelliousness) and avoidance of L2 experiences as a prevention of the undesired situations conditioned by L2 factors.

Friendships were vulnerable in relation to conflict or non-conflictual daily interactions. Overall, friendship formations were complex and in three cases were based on a uniting feature, difference or deficit (formed with SEN and EAL pupils in class). The time of stay in the UK denoted the significantly changing patterns in friendships but did not eliminate the deeply-felt vulnerability involved in forming and retaining friendships.

Bullying issues were present across cases. In one case, the relationships with the teachers were a form of bullying, perceived as a ‘norm’ by the teaching staff and lacking self-reflexivity, empathy, and ‘caring pedagogies’. This situation was caused by the shortcomings in their teacher training, which lacks appropriate guidance about understanding and communication with migrant pupils.

12.2 Contributions of the study
This thesis has made practical (pedagogical), theoretical, and methodological contributions. Practically, in relation to EAL or migration studies in England, I have addressed the gap, as I articulate in Chapter 1, in the research of Russian-speaking migrant pupils’ experiences in the context of English (and the UK) state-funded primary schools (see section 12.1 of the summary of key findings). Based on the findings discussed in Chapter 11, I provide policy recommendations for EAL professionals and policymakers, which are summarised in section 12.3.

Theoretically unknown in previous research, I have explored the personality development of EAL or migrant pupils in the context of primary L2 schools using McAdams’ personality development theory. I have thereby addressed a gap (communicated by Hart et al., 2003; Donnellan et al., 2006; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015) in the personality development of migrant children in relation to
educational L2 contexts, seeing personality development as a sociocultural dynamic process accounting for context, uniting middle childhood children, migration, education, and L2 studies. I have furthered the theoretical discussion in the area of personality development of primary level migrant pupils as a combination of the motivational agenda and social behaviour and relationships, illustrating that the relationship between experiences and personality development is a synthesis inasmuch as the boundaries between the two, and within the two, are diffused and indirect, revealing the transformative impact of experiences post-migration.

Another theoretical contribution pertains to the motivated agent line of personality development, to discuss which I employed Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 motivational self system with its further developments as a way of interpreting the motivations of migrant primary level pupils. The theory has not been used in English, or any other, migration context previously (as shown in Chapter 3, section 3.4). In contrast with previous studies which state that children do not have a clear concept of an ideal self until late adolescence (e.g. Lamb, 2012; Chambers, 2018), I demonstrated a surprising richness of possible self-guides, between the self-guides (ideal and ought) but also within the self-guides (ideal and ideal bi/multilingual). Future vision expressions were either immediate/short-term and unstable or more distant, clear, and stable. Significantly, the ideal selves appeared to be signalling context-related underlying issues reflected in the wishes and needs for self-worth, fairness, and voice (freedom of expression). Thus, more distant future visions (long-term goals) can potentially be used as a means of understanding and preventing migrant pupils’ well-being issues in an L2 learning environment.

Related to the social actor line of personality development, I contribute to the ‘silent period’ theoretical development and discussion by showing that migrant pupils’ submissive and quiet/reticent behaviour was not the ‘silent period’ itself but was a learned, overt social act. Submissiveness was characterised by the following essential features: it happened only in class, was perceived as a ‘natural character’ of all pupils affected, was perceived superficially and differently (either positively or negatively) by the teachers, and was not necessarily negative in relation to learning outcomes. Importantly, among the participants in my study submissiveness and quietness in learning did not completely disappear when the L2 proficiency increased. This thesis also contributes by furthering the understanding of friendship patterns of primary level migrant pupils in an English context. The social relationships of migrant pupils were sensitive in both forming friendships and addressing conflict. Examples of positive unusual friendships were identified with SEN or other EAL pupils in classes, which were based on a uniting factor.

Methodologically, as I communicated in Chapter 4 section 4.8.4.1, this study has made a contribution of a unique development and application of a creative technique (‘the interview-
through-game’) as part of the interviews with children, which may be extended and adapted to other research contexts (both internationally and linguistically) and other age groups of pupils. The ‘interview-through-game’ technique is an informative approach to research with linguistic minority children with the potential to incorporate a diverse number of games, while using different interview questions, revealing their disguised and, at times, traumatic experiences. In order to explore migrant children’s motivations (overlapping with experiences), I have also developed the drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’, which has not been previously used in the research into the motivations of migrant primary pupils. These contribute to the discussion and development of the creative techniques in research with linguistic minority immigrant children immersed in an L2 school environment.

12.3 The implications for EAL professionals and policymakers

Based on the findings, the implications for national and local policymakers and EAL professionals are the following:

1. Teachers and staff should be made aware of and not form preconceptions of migrant pupils’ intelligence, achievement/academic levels, and progress across subjects based on their L2 level.

2. Teachers should not decrease the cognitive content of pupils’ strongest subjects (e.g. mathematics) because their L2 level is perceived as low.

3. Children should not be expected to acquire the L2 in a short period (such as a year or a half a year).

4. Assessment should be conducted with a consideration of children’s emergent bilingualism. Formative literacy assessment in early L2 stages should not be performed with a focus on the ‘form’. Summative assessment, and the child’s progress based on it, should be done considering the developing L2 level of a pupil. It is important for children’s well-being and linguistic safety that test results and their interpretations should be made clear to migrant pupils/their parents.

5. Teachers of migrant primary pupils should aim to increase pupils’ knowledge gain (what pupils have learned) rather than focus on their interest in learning.

6. The ‘silent period’ should not be taken for granted as an aspect of LL or ‘natural’ character, as it may be a sign of submissiveness as an adopted pattern of behaviour and may signify underlying issues in learning (e.g. social isolation, anxiety, avoidance of L2 experiences, bullying).
7. Bilingualism/multi-competence should be seen as pupils’ unique profile, the development of which is essential for their well-being. There should be an awareness of what emergent bilingualism entails for the teachers as well as for other (non-migrant) pupils (as opposed to seeing pupils as ‘incomplete’ monolinguals). Such awareness will also contribute to the preventative strategies in dealing with bullying in relation to migrant pupils.

8. L1 should not be considered as a mere ‘bridge’ to learning the L2, or a problem, or a hurdle causing low achievement, but as a fundamental tool for a child’s socioemotional well-being, self-worth, and cognitive development.

9. The L1 should be incorporated in learning as a resource for pupils, especially in the first year of arrival (e.g. through using Google Translate as an aid in their learning and allowing sufficient autonomy in using it, i.e. being able to stop when a child feels able to do so). After the first year of arrival, the L1 should be given an unconditional right to be accessed and relied upon (e.g. through having a bilingual dictionary on a pupil’s desk).

10. To prevent the strategies of each school and teacher dealing with EAL pupils from becoming isolated, the whole institutional awareness about migrant pupils’ potential issues needs to be developed and communicated on a national level. There should be greater recognition of the socioemotional challenges facing these pupils and an understanding that such challenges are currently, to some extent, invisible to practitioners.

11. Schools should provide a defined level of support for newly arrived EAL pupils, which could include an induction programme with regular contacts between the schools and parents, more systematic homework, and a clearer/more transparent curriculum content communicated to parents. Learning support should be aimed at promoting the linguistic safety of pupils.

12. Children’s overt misbehaviour may denote their confusion, fear, or misunderstanding of the instructions in the L2. Teachers should ascertain that a migrant child clearly understands a task or instructions before implementing any pedagogical measures. Teachers should critically assess the cases of ‘disruptive’ behaviour of migrant pupils, avoiding ‘labelling’ pupils as having ‘bad’, unconventional, or ‘rebellious’ characters.

12.4 Future research
The findings in this thesis may be of interest to future researchers in the EAL field on Russian-speaking migrant groups of other ages and in other types of schools, as well as extending research to migrant speakers of languages other than Russian in the context of L2 immersion. The recommendations for policymakers and EAL professionals are applicable to any other L2-
immersed, recently arrived migrant primary children in the UK. New avenues of potential research may include case studies of the experiences of Russian-speaking migrants across countries (a comparative case study) or a comparison of cases of other speakers across countries. The views on education held by Russian-speaking families can be further explored, e.g. delving into the residual communistic attitudes among Russian-speaking migrant families in other countries. Additionally, Russian-speaking children’s experiences in the independent sector in the UK as well as experiences of Russian-speaking children from EU countries may be foci of investigations.

Regarding the EAL context, the findings also suggest opportunities for future research in the strategies schools use to allocate the funding for EAL children’s support. The government should commission research to explore how effectively schools are spending money allocated to them based on EAL pupils and share best practice with the sector. These may explicate a justification of a limited provision for EAL pupils established in this study. More research is needed to explore the ways migrant children’s future visions (e.g. through an activity of the drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’) allow practitioners to identify and prevent their well-being issues in the present. Further studies are needed to untangle and deepen L2 literacy experiences and mathematical L2 learning literacy of immigrant children. A potential focus for the former is an account of Street’s (1984) ‘autonomous’ and ‘ideological’ literacies among EAL migrant pupils. The latter requires an exploration of the salience and the nature of mathematical L2 literacy and the reasons behind migrant pupils’ high achievement in mathematics. Future work needs to explore the ways L1 can be incorporated in the learning of migrant pupils in L2 immersion environment of English schools. Methodologically, developing the use of board games as part of the interviews (e.g. with children of secondary level) is a potential direction of future studies in the area of creative techniques in research.

12.5 Limitations
While aiming to ensure the rigorousness and systematicity of this study (detailed in 4.10), there are limitations relating to the data sample and data collection. I should emphasise that my study has been concerned with a qualitative investigation of experiences/issues and personality development of five Russian-speaking migrant pupils, their parents, and teachers based on their own reports, supported with participant observations, including photographs. It was, thus, a feature of this research to explore subjective realities, trying to provide an in-depth understanding of the essence and causes of the research problem. As an implication of idiographic approach of exploring experiences/issues and personality development, the generalisations are limited in this study (Cohen et al., 2007; Maltby et al., 2010; Creswell and Poth, 2018). The results, however,
can be generalised theoretically (analytic generalisations) (Yin, 2014) pertaining to the experiences and personality development of other migrant groups in England and other educational systems, which offer L2 immersion for recently arrived migrant pupils.

Due to the practical constraints of the research design, observations were conducted over seven months, with an average of 24.8 days spent with each participant. The results are limited to this time-frame and limited to expressions of experiences and personality development. By employing a triangulation of the data collection methods, member-checking of the analysis of the findings, and a multi-method design of the study, I have, nevertheless, attempted to address this limitation. I have also tried to move beyond the ‘present time’ constraints by exploring retrospective (memories) and prospective (future vision) experiences and personality development expressions. The study’s data are also restrained by the number of interviews conducted with adult participants: the second interviews with two teachers were not conducted due to one teacher’s permanent departure from school, and another teacher not responding to my invitations for the second interview. Member-checking has not been conducted with these teachers. It was also not conducted with another teacher and a parent (as explained in 4.10.3) due to the school’s condition of having only one meeting with these participants.

12.6 Final word

Conducting this research has been an invaluable experience for me. At times challenging and uncertain, this journey has been engaging and stimulating enabling me to explore and, I believe, to reflect the voices of children navigating the often difficult but captivating experiences of childhood migration. During this project I have greatly advanced my understanding of the nature of research in the field of language education, in which I hope to delve further as I continue my path as a researcher. I have learned about the nuances and richness of an in-depth qualitative investigation, as well as creative techniques and their efficacy in research with children. Informed by my research, conference presentations (see Appendix E), which I plan to write up as publications, developed my skills in communicating the findings to academic and non-academic audiences. The training about the ethical issues in the research with vulnerable participants and their families in a sensitive environment helped to shape and critically examine my own professional values and highlighted the importance of a professional but amiable approach during the project. The research process and findings have made me deeply aware of the significance of the L2 immersion context, language(s) in that context – particularly attitudes to language(s) – and the transformative nature of personality development in migrant children’s lives, which should not be underestimated or overlooked.
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## Appendix A Data collection and analysis: supporting documents

### A.1 Participant observations’ schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCTOBER</th>
<th>NOVEMBER</th>
<th>DECEMBER</th>
<th>JANUARY</th>
<th>FEBRUARY</th>
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<td>25</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**

- **Katerina** Yellow highlight refers to participant observations and interviews  School A
- **Yulia** Green highlight refers to participant observations and interviews  School B
- **Rita** Purple highlight marks participant observations, interviews. The aim was to distribute the time for observations between the three participants equally.  School C
- **Alisa**
- **Ivan** Turquoise highlight refers to supervision meetings in Leeds. Crossed (e.g. 25) dates refer to school holidays or weekends.
## A.2 Interview guide for parents: first interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guiding theoretical concepts</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Expressing thanks, explaining the general interviews aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiences a child has</td>
<td>Could we please talk about when you moved to the UK, how do you like it here, where did you come from? What was surprising/interesting/unexpected in England? How old is their child? What language do they speak at home?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How do you and [child’s name] find their new school? What issues do you have? Does he/she get along with classmates? Do they have many friends? What about relationship with the teacher? Do they try to teach their child English? How? Is there a provision in the school to teach Russian-speakers? What do you think can be improved/changed in the school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How would you describe their experience in the new L2 school environment? How do you feel about [child’s name] going to a new L2 school environment school? Do you have any concerns about their learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LL Motivation</td>
<td>Could we please talk about motivation of [child’s name] to learn English? What do you think their interest depends upon?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning experiences</td>
<td>Could we please tell me about their attitudes to learn English? Does [child’s name] like learning it? Why? Is [child’s name] interested/engaged to learn English? Please tell me about their English teacher. Do you think teacher encourages them a lot?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being himself/herself</td>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ushioda, 2011)</td>
<td>Is [child’s name] motivated to achieve good marks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being active (Social dimension)</td>
<td>Ideal L2 self/ possible future self</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do you think [child’s name] has plans about his/her English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self/ feared self</td>
<td>Do they understand and happily do their ‘responsibilities’ (homework)? What is [child’s name] past experience in learning? Did [child’s name] like it in the past?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy, independence</td>
<td>Do they do homework with enthusiasm? How do they make decisions? How do they organise themselves?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Does [child’s name] feel a part of the group?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence and confidence</td>
<td>Does he or she express confidence in learning? Is he or she satisfied with his/her work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour, social roles of a child</td>
<td>Can you please tell me about their behaviour in the school and at home? What is their behaviour like? Is there any difference in their behaviour in your home country and in the UK? Yes, no? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending</td>
<td>Can you tell me about a memorable experience of your child learning English or in England? Is there anything you would improve in the way EAL children learn in the UK?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.3 Interview guide for teachers: first interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guiding theoretical concepts</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Expressing thanks Explaining the general interviews aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues/concerns/ experiences a child has</td>
<td>I would like to start with your memories of [child’s name] when you started teaching this class. Do you remember anything about him or her when you just started teaching him? Can we please talk about learning experiences of [child’s name]? How is he or she doing in different subjects? How is he or she getting on with the learning tasks? Do you remember any examples of this? Can we talk about the whole year of teaching? Have there been any processes of change that you possibly noticed? Do you remember any examples of this? What is his strongest/weakest side? Do you remember any examples of this? What do you think about the issues [child’s name] has? (if he has any). How would you describe his experience in the new L2 school environment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LL Motivation</td>
<td>Can we talk now about Language Learning motivation of [child’s name]? Is [child’s name] motivated? What do you think motivates [child’s name]? Is [child’s name] interested/engaged to learn English? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental support, peer influence, Being himself/herself (Ushioda, 2011)</td>
<td>How do parents participate in his or her learning? Does he or she have friends in class? How is he or she getting on with his classmates?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Is [child’s name] motivated to achieve?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self/ possible future self</td>
<td>Do you think [child’s name] has future goals/plans about their English? Would you say [child’s name] has a future goal or he is afraid of failure?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self/ feared self</td>
<td>Does [child’s name] understand and happily do their ‘responsibilities’ (e.g. homework)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Autonomy, independence        | Does he/she do tasks with enthusiasm?  
|                               | How does he/she make decisions?  
|                               | How does he/she organise himself? |
| Relatedness                   | Does [child’s name] feel in a group? Do you remember any examples of this? |
| Competence and confidence      | Does [child’s name] express confidence in learning? Do you remember any examples of this?  
|                               | Is he or she satisfied with his or her work? Do you remember any examples of this? |
| Behaviour, social roles of a child | Can you please tell me about their behaviour in the school? |
| Ending                        | Could you please rate their learning experience?  
|                               | He or she is an EAL pupil. In your opinion, what does it mean to be an EAL pupil? |

A.4 Interview guide for parents and teachers: second interview

During the second interview with adult participants, I asked the following:

1. Has anything changed in relation to:
   - Experiences?
   - Motivations?
   - Social behaviour, friendships?
2. How would you describe [child’s name] experiences now?
3. How would you describe [child’s name] motivations now?
4. How would you describe [child’s name] behaviour now?

A.5 Interview guide for all children: overview

Appendix shows interview questions in accordance with each creative technique. Monthly questions were approximately the same for all children depending on the technique.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Creative elicitation technique</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ‘Interview-through-game’        | Do you like school?  
| (questions are written on the cards, which are part of the game; asked not in order) | What is your favourite part of the lessons or activities today?  
|                               | Do you like school work?  
|                               | Is it important to study well in school?  
|                               | Do you feel you can complete many exercises easily?  
|                               | Do you like difficult tasks?  
|                               | Keep trying if hard or not? Or do something else?  
|                               | Do you answer/ask questions/ talk to your classmates often in lesson?  
|                               | Does it happen that the teacher allows you to choose activities by yourself?  
|                               | Do you like learning English? Why?  
|                               | What do you usually do in the English lesson?  
|                               | Describe your mood in English lessons |
Is it important to learn English?  
What is the best thing about learning English?  
The thing you don’t like the most?  
Do you think you need English? Why?  
Do you feel you are good at English? Why?  
Does anyone tell you to learn English?  
What is your dream?

| Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ | Task explanation: Could you please draw your hopes and dreams in school, or in general, linked with English, or not, or just what you would like to have or happen?  
What did you draw?  
What does it mean? |
|---|---|
| Concentric circles | Task explanation: In the middle you draw yourself, and then in every circle you draw people who you have in your life, who you talk to, close people, in school, friends. In this circle – closer to you, you talk to them a lot. Here, further from you, you don’t talk to them as much.  
Who do you have in your life?  
Who do you communicate with?  
Who is the closest to you?  
Why did you choose this letter? |
| ‘Today I’ exercise | Task explanation: Please fill in this exercise.  
How is your mood?  
What did you do yesterday/today?  
Could you please explain?  
Can you give me an example of this? |

A.6 Monthly interview questions

Only main questions during the interviews are included as follows. Each table has the number and a date of the interview alongside the creative technique(s) employed at that interview.

A.6.1 Katerina

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Main questions (asked in Russian) and the creative technique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>20 Oct 2016</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ technique-based interview (see Appendix B.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. | 3 Nov 2016    | Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique.  
We will talk about your dreams today. Do you have dreams? Do you dream about anything linked with the school? Do you dream anything about English? What did you draw? What does it mean? |
| 3. | 15 Nov 2016   | Concentric circles technique.  
Who are the people in your life? Who do you talk to? Why did you choose this letter?  
Why did you choose this letter? |
| 4. | 12 Dec 2016   | Concentric circles technique  
Who are the people in your life? Who else is in your life? Who do you talk to? |
| 5. | 13 Dec 2016   | Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique  
‘Today I’ exercise  
Do you have dreams? Do you dream about anything linked with the school? Do you dream anything about English? What did you draw? What does it mean? |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 Jan 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
<td>(I don’t explain the task anymore, as Katerina remembers and starts to draw) Who are you friends with the most? Who do you talk to the most? Why did you choose this letter? Asks also to do a drawing technique, so I give her Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique. What is it that you want, what is this dream about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Jan 2017</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Feb 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
<td>Do you love school? (Katerina suggests additional questions herself) Who do you like in school? Do you have a brother or sister? Do you love school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 Feb 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter? ‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 Feb 2017</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
<td>What are your dreams? Why? ‘Today I’ exercise What is your mood? Why did you choose this? Tell me more about it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Mar 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Mar 2017</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
<td>What are your dreams? Why did you draw this? ‘Interview-through-game’ Do you like school? Do you like to study English? Does it happen that your teacher allows you to do what you want in lessons? Is it important for you to study well in school? Do you have a dream linked with English? Do you feel that you can do many tasks easily? Describe your mood in English lessons. Does anyone tell you to learn English? What is your favourite part of the task? Do you like difficult tasks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 May 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter? What did you do today in school? ‘Interview-through-game’ Is it important to study well in school? Describe your mood in English lessons? Is it important to learn English? Do you like school? Does anyone tell you to learn English?</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Main questions (asked in Russian) and the creative technique</td>
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<tr>
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<td>18 Oct 2016</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ technique (see Appendix B.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>19 Oct 2016</td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Please tell me what have you done this month? What was peculiar that you remember in school?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>21 Nov 2016</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>What is it? What does it mean?</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>23 Nov 2016</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>How are you doing? How are things in school?</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>5 Dec 2016</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
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<td>What are your dreams? Why did you draw this?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>7 Dec 2016</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>How are you? What have you been doing during holidays?</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
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<td></td>
<td>What did you do yesterday? Could you tell me what it means?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>5 Jan 2017</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
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<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
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<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>6 Jan 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’</td>
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<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>6 Feb 2017</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Why did you choose this? What does it mean?</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘Today I’ exercise</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Why did you choose this? What does it mean?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Main Questions (asked in Russian) and the creative technique</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>3/10</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ (see Appendix B.1)</td>
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<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>A.6.4 Alisa</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2 Nov 2016</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ (see Appendix B.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>10 Nov 2016</td>
<td>Today I’ exercise experiences and motivations</td>
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<td>16 Nov 2016</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>1 Dec 2016</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique</td>
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<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
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<td>23 Jan 2017</td>
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<td>What did you do yesterday? Could you please explain? Example?</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who do you communicate with? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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### A.6.5 Ivan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
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<th>Main questions (asked in Russian) and the creative technique</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2 Nov 2016</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ (see Appendix B.1)</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>8 Nov 2016</td>
<td>Today I’ exercise experiences and motivations</td>
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<tr>
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<td>What did you do yesterday? Could you tell me what it means?</td>
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<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
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<td>Who do you have in your life? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>30 Nov 2016</td>
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<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
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<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique</td>
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<tr>
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<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
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<tr>
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<td>21 Mar 2017</td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>28 Mar 2017</td>
<td>Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’ technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What did you draw? What does it mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Who do you have in your life? Who do you communicate with? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>16 May 2017</td>
<td>Concentric circles technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Who do you have in your life? Who do you communicate with? Who is the closest to you? Why did you choose this letter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Interview-through-game’ – Questions from the cards (Appendix A.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A.7  Coding and presentation

A.7.1  Coding system for data storage and anonymisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keys</th>
<th>Meta-data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of the case</td>
<td>(1,2,3,4,5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source (person)</td>
<td>C – child, P – parent, T – teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source (object)</td>
<td>O – observation, I – interview, P – images, C – creative technique, PT – tests’ copies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>161011 – the 11th of October, 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E.g. C3O171110 – Case 3, Observations, the 10th of November, 2017
C1PT-20 – Case 1, tests’ copies.

A.7.2  Transcription conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The tone, pitch, speed, volume, emotion of speech (if peculiar)</th>
<th>[loud; quietly] (with commentary)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emphases</td>
<td>Capital letters (with commentary [emphasis])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pauses</td>
<td>short […], long [… … … ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omitted speech within citations</td>
<td>(…)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-verbal actions</td>
<td>(with commentary)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paralinguistic utterance</td>
<td>With commentary (e.g. noises a child makes),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomprehensible</td>
<td>[incomp]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer/researcher</td>
<td>L:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewees</td>
<td>M: (mother of a child); F: (father of a child); T: (teacher of a child); A: (Alisa), Y: (Yulia), K: (Katerina), I: (Ivan), R: (Rita)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### A.7.3 NVivo thematic tree nodes screenshot (Yulia’s case)

#### Nodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Created On</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social behaviour and relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sits quietly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is it a need for approval or support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL friendships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her English is... Ok.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading aloud problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.7.4 Data coding examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Examples from the data</th>
<th>Predicted theoretical concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s expectations</td>
<td>Experiences</td>
<td>‘I expect that this year I hope to see her really really take off, and I think she is capable of that. So, I think maybe she is sort of been like this for a little while and I think expect her going like that.’</td>
<td>Rosenthal (or Pygmalion) effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Ought-to self as created by parents’</td>
<td>Motivations</td>
<td>‘Я подчеркивала важность того, чтобы она знала Английский’ ‘I emphasised to her the importance of learning English’</td>
<td>Motivated agent line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Sits quietly’ ‘Quiet, doing’</td>
<td>Social Behaviour and Relationships</td>
<td>‘She sits at the table with four other pupils and she is quiet’ ‘She does not start conversations by herself.’</td>
<td>Social actor line</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nothing or trying to distract herself. ‘Alisa is quiet when she speaks in English, but her mum says, she is not quiet at home, she does not speak quietly.’

A.7.5 An example of manual re-drafting of the case report (Rita’s case)
Appendix B Creative techniques

B.1 ‘The Interview-through-game’
B.1.1 An example of adjusted ‘interview-through-game’
Questions are written on the green cards (to the left)

B.2 ‘Today I…’ exercise (English and Russian)
B.3 Concentric circles with statement ranking

A – Harmonious, B – Rebellious, C – Duplicitous, D – Submissive (statements are based on Taylor, 2010)
B.4 Drawing ‘My hopes and dreams’
Appendix C Ethics

C.1 Advertisement to recruit participants

**PARTICIPANTS WANTED**

For **A STUDY OF RUSSIAN-SPEAKING PUPILS’ EXPERIENCES IN UK PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

Russian-speaking children 7-11 years old, their parents and teachers are invited to participate in the PhD research project.

I am a PhD student and an English Language Teacher who is conducting a study to explore experiences of Russian-speaking children in UK schools.

**The aim of the study** is to explore Russian-speaking pupils’ experiences, motivation and personality development in a foreign language school environment.

**The study will include:** longitudinal observations in the schools and interviews with children, parents and teachers.

**Who supports the research?** School of Education, University of Leeds.

**Why is it important?** The study is informed by the increasing number of Russian-speaking pupils in the UK. It is hoped the study will improve an understanding of the issues Russian-speaking pupils have in UK schools.

**Is it anonymous?** All personal participants’ information will be anonymous, abiding by the ethical standards of research in the UK.

The study is conducted by a qualified teacher of English for speakers of other languages. Free tutorials of English are possible as a bonus for the participants of the study.

If you would like to take part in the research project, or for more information, please contact

Elena Gundarina
edog@leeds.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr James Simpson
j.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
Office 2.23
+(44)07469939799

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Приглашаются
РУССКОЯЗЫЧНЫЕ ДЕТИ И ИХ РОДЕЛИ
принять участие в исследовании:

ОПЫТ И ВПЕЧАТЛЕНИЯ ОБУЧЕНИЯ
РУССКОЯЗЫЧНЫХ ДЕТЕЙ В АНГЛИЙСКИХ
ШКОЛАХ

Участники: русскоязычные дети от 7 до 11 лет и их родители,
которые недавно (до 5-ти лет назад) приехали в Англию

На базе факультета образования университета Лидс проводится
исследование о русскоязычных детях в английских школах.

Цель исследования: изучение опыта, вопросов и впечатлений
русскоязычных детей, их развитие личности, и мотивации в иностранной
среде.

Проект включает в себя: наблюдения уроков и проведение интервью с
детьми, родителями и учителями.

Почему это важно? Количество русскоязычных детей в английских школах
заметно увеличилось за последние 8 лет. Проект надеется углубить
понимание вопросов русскоязычных детей в английских школах, и,
возможно, помочь детям, их родителям и учителям улучшить обучение и
опыт пребывания в английских школах.

Это анонимно? Да, анонимность личных данных всех участников
гарантируется.

Исследование проводится английским филологом, дипломированным
преподавателем. Возможны бесплатные уроки английского языка для детей
участников исследования.

Сайт: www.russianspeakingchildresearch.co.uk

Елена Тыльмерина
edog@leeds.ac.uk

Руководитель: Dr James Simpson
j.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk
C.2 **E-mail template to invite schools**

Dear … [school leader’s name],

I am a PhD researcher focusing on Russian-speaking pupils in UK primary schools. The aim of my research is to explore how the experience of being a Russian-speaking migrant child relates to his/her personality development and language learning motivation. My research is funded by the University of Leeds. In my study I will use interviews and observations of lessons. The study’s information will be fully anonymised.

Having had consultations with the Department for Education they have indicated that your school has more than three Russian-speaking pupils. I am contacting you to ask if it would be possible to meet to discuss the opportunity of conducting the study in your school with some Russian-speaking pupils (6-11 years old) in the next academic year?

As a fluent Russian, Ukrainian and English speaker and a trained English teacher for speakers of other languages I can offer voluntary work during this time with Russian-speaking pupils (such as helping them with their English, one-to-one tutoring, interpreting or helping in lessons) or anything that can be of use to your school.

I ought to add that the study will last from October, 2016 until April, 2017 with regular visits to the school. I plan to conduct interviews with the Russian-speaking children (for 30-40 minutes monthly), their class teacher (2 interviews in total, about 90 minutes each) their parents (2 interviews in total, about 90 minutes each), and conduct observations of lessons. I am really hoping for your support as the vital work of schools is essential to the project.

For further information about the research, please see:

http://www.russianspeakingchildresearch.co.uk/

Looking forward to hearing back from you,

Best Regards,

Olena

Olena Gundarina

University of Leeds

School of Education

Woodhouse Lane

Leeds LS2 9JT

e-mail: edog@leeds.ac.uk

Supervised by:

Dr James Simpson

University of Leeds

School of Education

Woodhouse Lane

Leeds LS2 9JT

ej.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

W: http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/people/academic/simpson

Dr Louise Harvey

L.T.Harvey@leeds.ac.uk
### Information Sheet

**Dear child**,

Please read this information sheet about my research project and decide whether you wish to take part.

**I am a researcher doing a project about Russian-speaking children’s lives in UK schools.**

- Every year more and more pupils who speak Russian come to UK schools.
- Some of them speak little English. So I want to find out about their experiences and feelings while studying in the UK. The study will last for about 1 school year.
- You are chosen as a possible participant because you speak Russian language at home and you have recently arrived to the UK.
- I plan to invite 3 more pupils who speak Russian to take part in my project, as well as parents and teachers.
- You are free to decide to take part or not. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign an agreement to take part paper. You can still stop taking part at any time. You do not have to say why.

**What will happen?** I will be present in your lessons and I will also interview you several times. I will also interview your parents and teachers.

**Everything you say in the interviews will be anonymous (nameless) – only the researcher will be able to guess that you were the person who had an interview.**

I will also use a recorder to record the interviews. The recordings will be used for this research and for future research.

**What does your participation mean to the study?** If you take part you can help us to understand experiences of pupils just like you who speak Russian and study in UK schools.

Context information: Elena Guskarnina e-mail: elog@leeds.ac.uk

Please ask questions if there is anything that is not clear or if you want to find out more about my project.

20 February 2016

---

### Информационный лист

**Уважаемый,…………………,**

**Пожалуйста, прочитайте этот информационный лист о моем исследовательском проекте и решите, хотите ли вы принять участие.**

**Я исследователь, который изучает жизнь русскоязычных детей в школах Великобритании.**

- С каждым годом все больше и больше учеников, которые говорят по-русски, посещают школы Великобритании.
- Некоторые из них немного говорят по-английски. Пожалуйста, я хочу узнать о вашем времени, воспоминаниях и чувствах во время учебы в Великобритании. Исследование будет длиться в течение одного-двух месяцев.
- Тебе выбрали в качестве возможного участника, потому что ты только что приехал в Великобританию.
- Я понимаю, что присутствие русской семьи может быть полезным, чтобы помочь тебе в русском языке, а также в адаптации к жизни.
- На каждом этапе у тебя будет возможность задать вопросы. Если ты решил принять участие, тебе будет предложено написать заметки о своих чувствах. Ты сможете принять участие в любое время. Ты не обязан говорить ничего.

**Что произойдет?** Я буду присутствовать в твоих занятиях в школе, и я также подпишу тебе по-русски, чтобы ты мог понять, что происходит. Я буду делать заметки о том, что ты говоришь, и ты сможешь прочитать их. Использование записи поможет лучше понять, что происходит.

**Все, что ты скажешь в интервью, будет анонимно (именами) – только исследователь сможет определить, что ты говорил, а не что именно.**

Я также буду использовать записи для создания отчетов. Записи будут использоваться для других исследований и более широких исследований.

**Что значит участие?** В этом исследовании участвуют другие, которые говорят по-русски, и ты можешь быть одним из них. Если ты хочешь участвовать, ты можешь поговорить со своей семьей или учителями. Ты можешь сказать, что ты хочешь помочь.

Контактная информация: Елена Гускарнина, электронная почта: elog@leeds.ac.uk

Пожалуйста, задай вопросы, если у тебя есть вопросы, или если ты хочешь узнать больше о моем проекте.

20 февраля 2016
C.4 Information sheet for adults

School of Education

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Information Sheet

Research project: Experiences of Russian-speaking pupils in UK schools
Researcher: Olena Gundarina, University of Leeds, United Kingdom
Email contact: oeg@leeds.ac.uk

You are being invited to take part in a PhD research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The increasing number of Russian-speaking pupils in UK schools has informed the importance of this project. The aim of this project is to find out how Russian-speaking pupils respond to the new second language environment of the UK schools, Russian-speaking pupils' experiences (including educational and psychological (motivation and personality development) issues) and their implications in a language learning process.

The project will last for up to 8 months and will include observations and interviews. The interviews with the school members and parents will be repeated at the beginning of the project and towards the end.

You have been chosen as a potential participant as you as you have been identified as the person who teaches, or interacts with and/or observes the Russian-speaking pupils in UK school environment. I am planning to invite five more school members to participate in the project, six Russian-speaking migrant children, as well as their parents.

The research will involve observations during approximately 8 months and the two interviews. The interviews will take place in the school, will last from one and a half to two hours with open-ended questions format focusing on Russian-speaking pupil/s, seeking to explore their issues, experiences, motivation, and personality related questions. No information from the interviews will be shared with anyone in the school or outside. The interpretations of the interviews will be agreed upon with the participants.

All the information that I collect about you during the course of the research will be anonymized. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications. The recordings, data gathered from you will be used for this project and for future projects in an anonymized form.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time during the fieldwork. You do not have to give a reason. Once the fieldwork has been completed it will not be possible for the data to be withdrawn.
Since the research is conducted by a qualified English language teacher for speakers of other languages, free English language tutorials or workshops are possible as a bonus for participants of the study (upon participants’ wish).

It is hoped that this research will help Russian-speaking pupils, their teachers and parents, as well as, possibly other non-English native pupils in the UK to get an insight of how pupils are responding to a new second language environment, getting insight into their experiences, issues, feelings, personality development and motivation.

The results of the research will be published in accordance to the PhD thesis requirements and possibly as subsequent publications, the participants will not be identified in any report or publication.

The research is funded by the University of Leeds, School of Education.

The participant will be given a copy of the information sheet.

February 2016

Contact for further information:

Olena Gudarina
University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
E-mail: edog@leeds.ac.uk

Supervisor:
Dr James Simpson
University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
J.C.Simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

Dr Louise Harvey
L.T.Harvey@leeds.ac.uk

Thank you for giving your time for this research
Информационный листок об исследовании

Исследовательский проект: Опыт в погружении русскоговорящих детей в английский язык

Исследователь: Елена Гударина, Университет Лидс, Великобритания
Имейл: edog@leeds.ac.uk

Вас приглашают принять участие в исследовании. Прежде чем вы примите решение, нам важно, чтобы вы поняли, почему мы проводим это исследование и что оно будет включать. Пожалуйста, внимательно прочитайте следующую информацию и обсудите с кем-то еще, если вы хотите. Пожалуйста, задавайте вопросы, если Вы хотите узнать больше информации. Получайте, и примите решение, участвовать или нет.

Важность исследования заключается в увеличивающемся количестве русско-говорящих учеников в английских школах. Целью данного проекта является выяснить, как русскоязычные ученики адаптируются к новому языковой среде школы Великобритании, опыт русскоязычных учеников (в том числе педагогические и психологические (развитие мотивации и личности) вопросы) и их последствия в процессе изучения языка.

Проект будет длиться около 8 месяцев и будет включать в себя наблюдения уроков и интервью. Интервью с сотрудниками школ и родителями будут проведены два раза за этот период.

Вы были выбраны в качестве потенциального участника, так как вы имеете близкое отношение к русскоязычным детям в школьной среде Великобритании. Я планирую пригласить еще двух сотрудников школы, шесть русскоязычных детей, а также их родителей, принять участие в проекте.

Исследование будет включать в себя наблюдения уроков в течение одного учебного года и два интервью. Интервью будет проходить в школе (или где вам будет удобнее), будет длиться от полутора до двух часов с форматом открытых вопросов и будет записано на диктофон, с целью исследовать проблемы, опыт, мотивацию, и личностные вопросы, связанные с пребыванием русскоязычных детей в английских школах, и их развитие личности. Никакая информация из интервью не будет передана кому-либо в школе или за ее пределами. Интерпретации интервью будут согласованы с участниками.

Вся информация, которую я собираю в ходе исследования, будет анонимна. Вы не сможете быть определены в любых докладах или публикациях. Записи, данные, собраные от вас, будут использоваться для этого проекта и для будущих проектов в анонимной форме.

Вы можете решить, принимать участие или нет. Если вы решили принять участие, вам будет предоставлен этот информационный листок, конец которого вы сможете оставить себе (и попросить подписать форму согласия), и вы можете прекратить участвовать в исследовании в любое время.
время проведения проекта. Вам не нужно объяснять, почему вы прекращаете участие. После того, как работа по исследованию завершена, не будет возможным относить данные с интервью.

Так как исследование проводится квалифицированным профессорам английского языка как иностранного, бессрочные уроки английского языка возможны в качестве бонуса для участников исследования (по желанию участников).

Мы надеемся, что это исследование поможет русскоязычным учащимся, их учителям и родителям, а также, возможно, другим участникам с Английским языком как иностранным, чтобы получить представление о том, как ученики реагируют на новую языковую среду, оценить представление об их опыте, проблемах, чувствах, развитии личности и мотивации.

Результаты исследования будут опубликованы в соответствии с требованиями диссертации и, возможно, в последующих публикациях, участники не будут определены в любом докладе или публикации.

Исследование финансируется Университетом Лидса, школой Образования.

Участнику будет выдана копия информационного листа.

Февраль 2016

Контакт для получения дополнительной информации:

Olena Gundarina/Елена Гундарина
University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
Мобильный телефон: 07469939799
e-mail/нееем: edog@leeds.ac.uk

Supervisors/Научные руководители:
Dr James Simpson
University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
j.e.b.simson@education.leeds.ac.uk

Dr Louise Harvey
L.T.Harvey@leeds.ac.uk

Спасибо за участие!
C.5  Informed consent for children

DEAR PARTICIPANT

Part A

PLEASE READ THIS AGREEING TO TAKE PART IN THE RESEARCH SHEET, TICK THE BOXES IF YOU AGREE

Russian-speaking pupils’ experiences in UK

Agreeing to take part

1. I understand what the project is about.
   I can ask any questions about it.

2. I take part in the research of my own free choice.
   I can stop taking part at any time if I change my mind.
   If I don’t want to answer I can leave any question without an answer.

3. My name will not appear on the research materials.
   Nobody else will guess that they were my responses.
   I allow for the researcher and her supervisors to use my anonymous (nameless) responses.

4. The information I give can be used in future research.

5. I agree to take part in this project

Please write your name please write today’s date Please sign

Researcher’s name Date Researcher’s Signature

THANK YOU!
To be signed and dated in presence of the participant
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part B</th>
<th>To be completed by the parent/guardian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have read and understood the accompanying letter and information leaflet and give permission for the child (named above) to be included.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship to child</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contact for further information:

Olena Gundarina  
University of Leeds  
School of Education  
Woodhouse Lane  
Leeds LS2 9JT  
074699939799  
e-mail: edog@leeds.ac.uk

Thank you for giving your time for this research

Supervisor:  
Dr James Simpson  
University of Leeds  
School of Education  
Woodhouse Lane  
Leeds LS2 9JT  
j.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

Dr Louise Harvey  
L.T.Harvey@leeds.ac.uk
ДОРОГОЙ УЧАСТНИК

Пожалуйста, прочитайте это,
приглашение принять участие,
в исследовании. Отметьте
галочкой, если ты согласен:

Опыт русскоязычных детей в английских школах

Согласие на участие

1. Я понимаю, о чем этот проект.
   Я могу спросить вопросы об этом проекте.

2. Я принимаю участие по собственному желанию.
   Я могу прекратить принимать участие в любое время, если я передумаю.
   Если я не хочу отвечать на какой-то вопрос, я могу не отвечать.

3. Мое имя не появится на материалах
   исследования/проекта.
   Никто не догадается, что это были мои ответы.
   Я разрешаю исследователю и его руководителям
   использовать мои анонимные (без имени) ответы.

4. Информация, которую я рассказал, может быть
   использована в будущих исследованиях.

5. Я согласен участвовать в исследовании.

Пожалуйста, напишите ваше имя

Подпись:

Имя исследователя

Дата

Подпись исследователя

Спасибо!

Подписать в присутствии участника.
Часть В
Для заполнения родителями/родителем или опекуном

Я прочел/ла и понял/ла информационный листок исследования и даю разрешение на участие моего ребенка (имя ребенка) в исследовании.

Имя ____________________________

Кем Вы приходитесь ребенку ____________________________

Подпись ____________________________

Контактная информация:

Olena Gudarina/Елена Гударина
University of Leeds/Университет Лидс
School of Education/ Факультет Образования
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
Мобильный телефон: 07469939799
e-mail: oedlog@leeds.ac.uk

Спасибо за участие в исследовании!

Supervisor/Научный Руководитель:
Dr James Simpson
University of Leeds
School of Education
Woodhouse Lane
Leeds LS2 9JT
j.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

Dr Louise Harvey
L.T.Harvey@leeds.ac.uk
C.6 Informed consent for parents

School of Education

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Participant Consent Form

Research project title: Experiences of Russian-speaking pupils in UK schools

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the research project information sheet, dated February 2016, and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project, and that I have received contact information for the project.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences during the fieldwork. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. The interpretations of the data of the interviews will be agreed upon with me. Once the fieldwork has been completed it will not be possible for the data to be withdrawn. The researcher’s contact details are: 07469939799 (mobile) or edog@leeds.ac.uk

3. I understand that my responses and the responses of my child will be anonymous. I give permission for the researcher and her supervisors to have access to my, and my child’s, anonymised responses, and to directly quote me. I understand that my name or the name of my child will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

4. I agree for the data collected from me and my child to be used in future research in an anonymized form.

5. I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the lead researcher should my contact details change.

Name of participant __________________________ Date __________________________ Signature __________________________

Name of researcher taking consent __________________________ Date __________________________ Signature __________________________

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant

Thank you!
Согласие на участие в исследовании

Информация исследователя: ОПЫТ И ВПЕЧАТЛЕНИЯ ОБУЧЕНИЯ РУССКОЗЫЧНЫХ ДЕТЕЙ В АНГЛИЙСКИХ ШКОЛАХ

1. Я подтверждаю, что я прочитал/а и понял/а информационный листок исследования, датированный: Февраль 2016, и у меня есть возможность спросить вопросы об исследовании, и я получил/а контактную информацию о проекте.

2. Я понимаю, что мое участие является добровольным и я могу отклониться в любое время без объяснения причины и без каких-либо негативных последствий во время проведения исследования. К тому же, если я хочу отвечать на какой-либо вопрос, я могу оставить вопрос без ответа. Интерпретации интервью будут согласованы со мной. Как только исследование будет окончено, я не смогу забрать отозвать мои ответы и отказаться от участия. Контактная информация исследователя: 0746939799 (моб.) или edog@leeds.ac.uk

3. Я понимаю, что мои ответы и ответы моего ребенка будут анонимные. Я даю разрешение исследователю и его научным руководителям доступ к моим анонимным ответам и анонимным ответам моего ребенка, и цитировать мою анонимную прямую речь. Я понимаю, что мои имя и имя моего ребенка не будет привязано к материалам исследования, и моя личность не сможет быть определена в докладе или докладах, которые будут результатами исследования.

4. Я даю разрешение на то, чтобы информация, которую я и мой ребенок предоставим, будет использована в будущем исследовании в анонимной форме.

5. Я даю согласие на принятие участия в этом исследовании, и сообщу исследователю, если мои контактные данные изменяются.

__________________________  __________________________
Имя Участника                 Дата Подпись

__________________________  __________________________
Имя исследователя, принимающего эту форму  Дата Подпись

Подпись или присутствие участника  Спасибо!
C.7 Informed consent for teachers

School of Education

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Participant Consent Form

Research project title: Experiences of Russian-speaking pupils in UK schools

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the research project information sheet, dated February 2016, and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about this project, and that I have received contact information for the project.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences during the fieldwork. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. The interpretations of the interviews will be agreed upon with me. Once the fieldwork has been completed it will not be possible for the data to be withdrawn. The researcher’s contact details are: 07469939799 (mobile) or edog@leeds.ac.uk

3. I understand that my responses will be anonymous. I give permission for the researcher and her supervisors to have access to my anonymised responses, and to directly quote me. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

4. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research in an anonymized form.

5. I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the lead researcher should my contact details change.

Name of participant ___________________________ Date __________________ Signature __________________

Name of researcher taking consent ___________________________ Date __________________ Signature __________________

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant! Thank you!
C.8 Ethical approval

Olga Gundarina
School of Education
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT

ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee
University of Leeds

22 May 2010

Dear Olga

Title of study: Experiences of Russian-speaking pupils in UK primary schools

Ethics reference: AREA 15-089

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Advertisement in Russian language (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 A template and to use in the broadsheet of children with Russian-speaking parents (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Advertisement to recruit participants in English (2).gpp</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Advertisement in Russian (2).gpp</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 New version of the document on Russian-speaking parents (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Information Sheet to be translated into Russian (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Modified consent form for parents (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Interview guide for children, parents and teachers (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Modified consent form for school members (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 New, ethical review format (Olga Gundarina) (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Information Sheet for children with Russian as a first language (2).pptx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 15-089 Fieldwork, Assessment Plan, medium risk, risk, final protocol, nov. 15 (2).docx</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29/02/15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Committee members made the following comments about your application:

- A very nice application and you have clearly thought through all the issues. With regard to your questions about the DBS, if the schools are content with it, then the existing certificate is adequate.

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval, including changes to recruitment methodology. All changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at [http://cis.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAmendment](http://cis.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAmendment)
Appendix D The Pilot study

D.1 Piloted interview guides

D.1.1 Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Expressing thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explaining the general interviews aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues/ concerns/ experiences</td>
<td>I would like to start with your memories of [child’s name] when you started teaching this class. Do you remember anything about him or her when you just started teaching him?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can we please talk about the learning experiences of [child’s name]?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How is he doing in different subjects? How is he getting on with the learning tasks? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can we talk about the whole year of teaching [child’s name]? Have there been any processes of change that you possibly noticed? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is his strongest/weakest side? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What do you think about the issues [child’s name] has? (if he has any). How would you describe his experience in the new L2 school environment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LL Motivation</td>
<td>Can we talk now about LL motivation of [child's name]?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is he or she motivated? Do you think [child’s name] likes learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What do you think motivates him or her?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is he interested/engaged to learn English? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental support, peer influence, Being himself/herself (Ushioda, 2011) Being active (Social dimension)</td>
<td>How do parents participate in his or her learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does he have friends in class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How is [child’s name] getting on with his or her classmates?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Is he or she motivated to achieve?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self/ possible future self</td>
<td>Do you think [child’s name] has future goals/plans about their English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you say [child’s name] has a future goal or he or she is afraid of failure?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self / feared self</td>
<td>Does he or she understand and happily do his or her ‘responsibilities’ (e.g. homework)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy, independence</td>
<td>Does he or she do tasks with enthusiasm?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does he or she make decisions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does he or she organise himself?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Does [child’s name] feel in a group? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence and confidence</td>
<td>Does he or she express confidence in learning? Do you remember any examples of this? Is he or she satisfied with his or her work? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality development:</td>
<td>Could you please describe their character? Why? Do you remember any examples of this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traits, behaviour, social roles of a child</td>
<td>Could you please describe [child’s name] with adjectives? (Prompts with the list of adjectives – Which box do you think describe them the most?) – discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can you please tell me about their behaviour in the school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending</td>
<td>Could you please rate their learning experience? [Child’s name] is an EAL. In your opinion, what does it mean to be an EAL pupil?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### D.1.2 Children

The interview questions are approximate and compiled to guide the interview for the researcher following the themes and the type of the interview.

<p>| Beginning: explaining the general interviews aims, ice-breaking, expressing thanks |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Approximate questions</th>
<th>Elicitation activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language motivation – interest</td>
<td>likes, dislikes, interests</td>
<td>Please tell me about studying English. Do you like learning English? Why? How long have you been learning English? What do you like about English and England?</td>
<td>Preceded by: Table, drawing (‘my hopes and dreams’) ‘Today I…’ exercise sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning experiences Being himself/herself (Ushioda, 2011) Being active (Social dimension)</td>
<td>(attitude to learn English, perceived atmosphere in lessons) Involvement in group work, communication in class)</td>
<td>What is your favourite part of the lessons or activities? How do you feel in English lessons? What do you usually do in the English lesson?</td>
<td>Memory book/diary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic motivation</td>
<td>Learning motivation in general, achievement</td>
<td>Do you like school work? Do you like difficult tasks? Do you keep trying if hard or not? Or do something else? Is it important to study well in school? Do you like school?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self/possible future self</td>
<td>Dreams, goals, plans</td>
<td>Do you imagine yourself speaking English? Do you think of the future?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self /feared self</td>
<td>Have to, must, ‘they tell me’</td>
<td>Do you think you need English? Why? Is it important for you to learn English? Do you have to study it? Does anyone tell you to learn English? Is it bad not to learn English?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy, independence</td>
<td>Freedom in lesson? Free will/choice, ability to make decisions, personal choice, self-management, participation in tasks.</td>
<td>Does it happen that the teacher allows you to choose activities by yourself? Do you answer/ask questions/ talk to your classmates often in lesson? Do you work in groups or individually?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Belonging in a group</td>
<td>Do you have many friends/classmates similar to you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence and confidence</td>
<td>(Doing well?) (Feeling you can do well?)</td>
<td>Do you feel you are good at English? Why? Do you feel you can complete many exercises easily?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overview</td>
<td>General experience of learning? Like?</td>
<td>What is the best thing about learning English? What is the thing you don’t like the most?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language learner’s personality development

<p>| Child will be asked to explain the answers in the game, drawing or exercise | Behaviour | Why did you decide that? Could you please explain? | Preceded by: 1. The concentric circles exercise with adjectives checklist, statement ranking and |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discussion of the ranking.</th>
<th>2. filling in the table</th>
<th>3. memory book/diary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Issues, experiences, views in the new L2 school environment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Child will be asked to explain the answers in the game, drawing or exercise</th>
<th>Learning experiences</th>
<th>Why do you think? Why did you? Could you please explain? What did you mean?</th>
<th>Preceded by: 1. Moving game (school life) 2. Draw your English lesson/or draw your day Draw 3. memory book/diary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**D.1.3 Parents**

Themes to address at the interview with examples of questions and prompts. The interview questions are approximate and compiled to guide the interview following the themes of the interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Expressing thanks, explaining the general interviews aims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues/concerns/ experiences a child has</th>
<th>Could we please talk about when you moved to the UK, how you like it here, where did you come from? How do you like English accent/s? What is/was surprising/interesting/unexpected in England? How old is your child? What language do you speak at home?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| | How do you and [child’s name] find their new school? What issues do you have? Does he/she get along with classmates? Do they have many friends? What about relationship with the teacher? Do they try to teach their child English? How? Is there a provision in the school to teach Russian-speakers? What do you think can be improved/changed in the school? |
| | How would you describe their experience in the new L2 school environment? How do you feel about [child’s name] going to a new L2 school environment school? Do you have any concerns about their learning? |

<p>| LL Motivation | Could we please talk about motivation of [child’s name] to learn English? What do you think their interest depends upon? |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning experiences</th>
<th>Could we please tell me about [child’s name] attitudes to learn English? Does [child’s name] like learning it? Why? Are they interested/engaged to learn English? Please tell me about their English teacher. Do you think the teacher encourages them a lot?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being himself/herself (Ushioda, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being active (Social dimension)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Is he or she motivated to achieve good marks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self/ possible future self</td>
<td>Do you think [child’s name] have plans about his or her English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self / feared self</td>
<td>Do they understand and happily do their ‘responsibilities’ (homework)? What is their past experience of schooling? Did they like it in the past?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy, independence</td>
<td>Do they do homework with enthusiasm? How do they make decisions? How do they organise themselves?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Feeling in a group?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence and confidence</td>
<td>Does he or she express confidence in learning? Is he or she satisfied with his/her work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality development: Traits, behaviour, social roles of a child</td>
<td>Can you please tell me about [child’s name] behaviour in the school and at home? What is their behaviour like? Is there any difference in their behaviour in your home country and in the UK? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality development: Traits, behaviour, social roles of a child</td>
<td>Could you please describe them with adjectives? (Prompts with the list of adjectives – Which box do you think describe them the most?) – discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending</td>
<td>Can you tell me about a memorable experience of your child learning English or in England? Is there anything you would improve in the way EAL children learn in the UK?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D.2  Piloted and rejected creative techniques

D.2.1 ‘My hopes and dreams in learning English’

Мои мечты в обучении английскому
My hopes and dreams in Learning English

D.2.2 Table ‘My future’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My life</th>
<th>In 1 year’s time</th>
<th>In 10 years’ time</th>
<th>In 30 years’ time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THINK it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maybe it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I expect it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Favor...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I hope it will...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probably...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THINK it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maybe it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I expect it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Favor...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I hope it will...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probably...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job, Housing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THINK it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maybe it...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>I expect it...</td>
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<td>Favor...</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I hope it will...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probably...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D.2.3 Drawing ‘Learning English’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draw what you like in studying in England</th>
<th>Learning English</th>
<th>Draw what you don’t like in studying in England</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Draw your English lesson</td>
<td></td>
<td>Draw your teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Piloted result:

D.2.4 Diary/memory book

Piloted result:
D.3  Piloted and adjusted creative technique

D.3.1  Piloted concentric circles with statements

A – Harmonious, B – Rebellious, C – Duplicitous, D – Submissive (statements are based on Taylor, 2010)

D.3.2  Adjusted statements
Appendix E Conferences and outputs


