



DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE LANGUAGE BARRIER SCALE FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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Abstract

This study aims to develop a scale that examines the communication difficulties that migrant and refugee students face in the primary school period, the initial stages of their involvement in the educational process. As a result of a questionnaire administered to 271 primary school teachers via the simple random sampling method, the reliability of the measurement method was found to be .96. As a result of explanatory factor analysis, it was seen that 39 items constituted a four-factor structure (Deprivation, Labeling, Exclusion, and Acceptance). Data were then compiled by administering the scale to 112 teachers again for confirmatory factor analysis. According to the findings, the goodness of fit values were at good levels and the factor structure was validated. “Language-related difficulties” and “language barrier” were found to be two different phenomena. In order to understand the language barrier as a phenomenon that gives continuity to language-related difficulties, it is necessary to develop a perspective that puts students’ school experiences at the center and evaluates them within the context of their own unique conditions. In this context, a perspective that questions the performance-based climate of schools is also needed.

Keywords: Language barrier, primary school students, immigrant students, refugee students, exclusion.

INTRODUCTION

Bourdieu and Passeron (2014) observed that culturally disadvantaged segments of society are never exposed to their disadvantages quite as much as when they are somehow relegated precisely because of their disadvantages. Here, Bourdieu and Passeron (2014) constructed the concept of “disadvantage” as a situation that is established or strengthened through relationships at school, beyond being situations that students carry to school themselves. In other words, they understood “deprivation” as a phenomenon that develops into a barrier as a result of relationships at school. Thus, a dynamic process emerges rather than a structural one. As a result, the following question arises: Under what conditions do language differences, which have been identified as the biggest problems experienced by immigrant children in almost all relevant studies, become barriers for those students? Taking these points into account, this study was undertaken to develop a scale that will allow us to evaluate the “language barrier” phenomenon, which refers to the language-related difficulties experienced by primary school students at school, not only as functional difficulties but also as situations of “relegation,” as will be discussed in detail below. In this study, any form of relationship with the potential to reduce the contact of students who do not have the language capital required by the school was evaluated as building a language barrier. Practices of relegation, which serve as obstacles for the communication of disadvantaged students, were considered as conditions supporting language barriers.

Considering the research conducted to date on immigrant and refugee students, it can be said that the key obstacles to students’ access to school and their ability to “hold on to” educational processes are



language-related difficulties (Cülha & Demirtaş, 2020; Koşar & Aslan, 2020; Sözer & Işiker, 2021; Biçer & Özaltun, 2020; Göçer et al., 2020; Işık et al., 2021; Türnüklü et al., 2021; Sarier, 2020; Emin, 2019; First, 1988; Gülüm & Akçalı, 2017; Istanbul Bilgi University Child Studies Unit, 2015; Kaştan, 2015; Kaysılı et al., 2019; Levent & Çayak, 2017; OECD, 2015a, 2015b; Özer et al., 2017; Taşkın & Erdemli, 2018; Tosun et al., 2018; UNICEF, 2012). Despite this consensus, the question of what role the school plays in students' difficulties is often overlooked. In OECD reports (2015a, 2015b), it has been emphasized that, while the culture and education that students acquired before migrating have profound impacts on the students' achievements at school, the performance of immigrant students is even more strongly affected by the characteristics of the school system in the host country. According to such reports, students with a history of migration achieve different levels of success in different countries even if they are all individually equal in terms of their socioeconomic levels. Even within the same educational system, it is known that the academic achievements of immigrant children vary depending on the characteristics of the school (Ereş, 2015; OECD, 2015b). These different achievement levels of students with language-related difficulties in school indicate that the language barrier is generally experienced within the educational system of the host country and according to the characteristics of the specific school in particular. At this point, it is necessary to take into consideration not only the past experiences and knowledge of students who experienced these barriers but also variables such as the curriculum, program implementation, leadership, school climate, evaluation practices, staff competence, cooperation with families (Brisk et al., 2015), and opportunities and limitations in access to resources (Faltis & Ramírez-Marín, 2015).

The conceptualization of “cumulative disadvantages” can provide a perspective for understanding the multicomponent nature of the language barrier. The developers of this concept, Mohanty et al. (2009), depicted the language barrier in the form of a vicious cycle. They argued that cumulative disadvantages bring social and educational neglect for the students, contributing to their weaknesses in a vicious cycle, and those students are “stigmatized as weak and inadequate, justifying further exclusion” (p.281-287). In the research of Kaysılı et al. (2019), this situation was described as creating “reasonable ground for exclusion” (p.116). In a study by Cross (2009), language-based disadvantages were seen to have a fertile character. According to him, students without strong linguistic capital and those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds in terms of socioeconomic level form an intersectional set. Social exclusion and neglect make the language deprivation of these students more permanent at school and even worsen the barrier in some cases. Thus, a situation arises where language-related difficulties are both a cause and a consequence of exclusion. In other words, the reproduction of students' social disadvantage through distinction is experienced (Kaysılı et al., 2019).

The passive state of this cumulative cycle of disadvantages is seen when schools fail to recognize the difficulties that students experience and provide the necessary support. Block et al. (2014) described additional disadvantages and absenteeism for refugee students, who are less likely to realize their potential if schools do not make special effort on their behalf. It is known that immigrant students face more restrictions in terms of access to quality education (OECD, 2015b). According to First (1988), placing these students in low-achievement groups and labeling them accordingly are acts of “retention” (p. 208), as it is well known that students learn better if they are encouraged or receive additional support. Therefore, in order to develop a sound understanding of the reasons for the low achievement of immigrant students in school compared to the average achievement in the host country, it is necessary to take into account the fact that these students generally receive education in schools of the host country in which disadvantaged groups of students are commonly found (OECD, 2015b). In research conducted by Hilt (2017) regarding immigrant students living in Norway, it was found that students who spoke a different language were admitted to schools with special symbolic meaning, not being included in mainstream education and student groups. The lower a student is in the school hierarchy, the more barriers he or she faces. Thus, schools exclude students who do not meet their expectations linguistically, culturally, and academically. This situation also makes it difficult for students to position themselves at higher academic levels (Hilt, 2017). This attitude toward immigrant students can be read as an intervention that strengthens their possibility of failure. Garcia and Markos (2015) suggested that the



evaluation of data on bilingual students in the United States should not only be performed on the basis of comparisons; there is also a need for analyses that take into account the complexity of their situations instead of considering preconceived results. According to some studies, the language-related difficulties experienced by students are key factors in exclusion processes at school (Paget et al., 2018). Students are under the influence of a domino effect created by the school's exclusion practices (Hilt, 2017). Marginalization within the host country's educational system (Johns, 2001), separation from other students within the school, prejudice and discrimination (IOM, 2019), exposure to hatred and prejudice or violence, the reluctance of the school administration to cooperate with parents or encourage their participation (First, 1988; Özer et al., 2017), and fixation on certain statuses (Hilt, 2017) are among the mechanisms of schools' exclusion practices.

This progression, wherein the development of language-related difficulties is understood as constructing a barrier for students, can also be followed through the course of changes in students' achievement. Walt (2015) stated that these students are faced with a phenomenon of recurrent failure in the new conditions that they face; although they may have been successful in their home countries, they suffer from a loss of motivation after being placed in low-achieving schools and classes in the country to which they have migrated (p.360). According to Grubb (1974), the ongoing negative attitudes in such classrooms do not allow students to internalize the lessons, even though they have knowledge and skills, and ultimately prevent them from enjoying the results of their efforts. The multiple exclusions that immigrant students are exposed to in their host countries thus pave the way for them to lose the high academic levels and expectations they had in their home countries (Hilt, 2017). It is possible that the state of loss that they experience in the early years of their education will leave a lasting mark on their future educational lives (Paget et al., 2018).

Restrictions on access and exclusion practices make the language barrier a factor in the "school dropout" phenomenon, as well. Walt (2015) described this phenomenon as being accompanied by repetitive failures due to language barriers (p.360). In the study conducted by Ergün and Demir (2017), who interviewed students who had dropped out of school for various reasons, it was seen that all of those students experienced language-related difficulties in school and were simultaneously exposed to forms of exclusion. Therefore, in that study, the experiences of the students were described as "school push-out" phenomenon.

Arias (2015) argued that the way in which educators look at immigrant children and their families as problems rather than focusing on the shortcomings faced by different segments of society transforms the educational system into a mechanism that erects additional barriers (pp.285-291). The criticisms presented by Ricento (2015) support that viewpoint. He criticized any form of analysis that ignores the needs of students and the extent to which those needs are met in the educational system. Similarly, he criticized any approaches that tend to blame minority students, whether directly or indirectly (pp. 467-468). It is a common finding of not only Arias (2015) and Ricento (2015) but also of many other studies that teachers and administrators regard students who have language-related difficulties in school as problems (Baltacı et al., 2019; Coşkun & Emin, 2016; Istanbul Bilgi University Child Studies Unit, 2015; Ergün & Demir, 2017; First, 1988; Grubb, 1974; Gözübüyük Tamer, 2017; Hilt, 2017; Kaysılı et al., 2019; McBrien, 2015; Mohanty et al., 2009; Özer et al., 2017; Paget et al., 2018; Sakız, 2016; Tosun et al., 2018; Taylor & Sidhu, 2012; Uzun & Bütün, 2016). Sakız (2016) found that the underlying reason for the exclusion practices that impact refugee students with language-related difficulties in school is concern about deterioration of the established order in the school. Yaylacı et al. (2017) concluded that schools hosting refugee students act with the idea that they are doing those students a favor rather than the idea that education is a right of those students, and this view lays the groundwork for the exclusion of the students. Grubb's (1974) expression of the "frustrating and humiliating language barrier" (p.89) is better understood when all these components are considered together. In light of the relevant studies and considering schools as a "sociological and psychological context" in which learning takes place (Pysarchyk & Yamshynska, 2015, p.75), it can be said that students face unique situations due to language-related difficulties complicated by skill deprivation.



Based on this review of the literature, the following problem areas are seen: When students do not have the language capital demanded by their schools, they are faced with a loss of status or relegation in school. Thus, these students' language-related situations of "deprivation" are reproduced in school, combined with experiences of "labeling" and "exclusion," and evolve into a reaction of "acceptance" that drives them out of education. Considering these problem areas, this study aims to develop a scale to measure the structural mechanisms that transform language-related difficulties into language barriers for primary school students.

METHOD

This section presents the design of the research, participants, data collection method, and data analysis.

Research Method

This study utilizes quantitative methods with the aim of developing a scale to measure the various language barrier problems that migrant and refugee children face after being forced to leave their home countries for various reasons, continue their elementary education in Turkey, and receive that education in a language other than their mother tongue.

Target Population of the Study Group

The target population of this study, conducted in Turkey, consisted of primary school teachers in Mardin and Diyarbakır. According to statistics published by the Ministry of National Education (Turkish acronym: MEB) for the educational year of 2019-2020, a total of 4.246 teachers worked at the primary school level in Mardin and 8.345 teachers in Diyarbakır (MEB National Education Statistics Report 2019-2020). According to these data, the target population of the study thus comprised 12.591 observation units. Considering the methodological recommendations of Bartlett et al. (2001), it was decided to distribute approximately 500 questionnaires to randomly selected teachers after obtaining the necessary permissions, considering that a sample size of 292 individuals (with 95% confidence level) would be sufficient for the target population of 12.591. However, because of the closure of schools due to the COVID-19 pandemic, some of the questionnaires were delivered by hand, some had to be delivered to teachers via online platforms, and about 300 questionnaires were completed. As a result of the examination of these obtained questionnaires, incomplete questionnaires were removed from the analysis and a total number of 271 units was reached for explanatory factor analysis (EFA).

After EFA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied to test the validity of the obtained factor structure. For CFA, the opinions of 112 people were collected with an online form. These test results are presented in the next section of this study. Data regarding the demographic information of the participants are given in the Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic information of the participants

Demographic Information		f	%
Place of Employment	Diyarbakır	81	29.9
	Mardin	190	70.1
Grade	First grade	16	6.0
	Second grade	80	30.1
	Third grade	44	16.5
	Fourth grade	57	21.4
Gender	Male	144	53.7
	Female	124	46.3
Years of Experience	1 year or less	20	7.4
	2 to 5 years	63	23.2
	6 to 10 years	32	11.8
	11 to 15 years	67	24.7
	16 to 20 years	27	10.0
	21 years or more	56	20.7

**Table 1** (Continued). Demographic information of the participants

Demographic Information		f	%
Age	24 years or younger	10	3.8
	25 to 30 years	97	37.2
	31 to 35 years	56	21.5
	36 to 45 years	74	28.4
	46 years or older	24	9.2

As seen in Table 1, 70.1% of the participants were teachers working in Mardin and 29.9% worked Diyarbakır. While 53.7% of the participants were male, 46.3% were female. Almost 60% of the teachers were under the age of 35.

Development Process

A questionnaire form was used as a data collection tool in this scale development study. Demographic information about the participants was collected in the first part of the questionnaire and the second part included statements from the Language Barrier Scale. Demographic information was provided as descriptive data, expressions for the Language Barrier Scale were evaluated with a five-point Likert-type scale as follows: 1=never; 2=rarely; 3=sometimes; 4=frequently; 5=always.

While determining the expressions related to the concept of language barriers, books, theses, and articles addressing similar subjects in the literature were first examined and efforts were made to produce a conceptual framework addressing how being educated in a different language creates difficulties for primary school students. In the first stage, a pool of 80 items was created. The opinions of two expert pedagogues and two academics from the Department of Primary School Education were obtained and a draft of 45 items was established. That draft form was forwarded to approximately 20 teachers; they were asked to examine it in terms of language, expression, and understandability and provide their opinions and criticisms, if any. As a result of their feedback, some expressions were revised and the form was finalized and sent to about 50 teachers for a pilot study. Reliability testing was conducted with Cronbach's alpha test for the questionnaires that were returned, and it was decided to continue administering that questionnaire based on an examination of the total correlations related to the items.

Analysis of Data

For the analysis of data, a mixed-methods model of scale development and validation analysis were applied. This method supports exploratory instrument design and embraces validation phases. It consists of five steps (Creswell et al., 2011):

- 1- Qualitatively investigating the scale construct, which is also a qualitative validation process for collecting evidence of content validity;
- 2- Converting qualitative findings to scale items, which is an integration strategy in mixed-methods research;
- 3- Conducting mixing validation to review the items' content-based validity;
- 4- Administering the test items and collecting responses;
- 5- Conducting quantitative validation to analyze properties of the items and examine the evidence of construct validity.

SPSS 23 and LISREL 8.5 were used for data analysis. The level of significance for statistical tests was accepted as .05.

RESULTS

Reliability and Validity Tests

Cronbach's alpha test was applied to evaluate the reliability of the measurement method for the questionnaires obtained from a total of 271 primary school teachers. As a result of the analysis, the reliability of the measurement method was found to be high at a level of .961. For the item-total correlations examined for validity, the coefficients took values between .346 and .690. Cristobal et al.



(2007) stated that a value of .3 or higher would be sufficient for item-total correlations. Accordingly, it can be said that reliability and validity were ensured in this study.

Explanatory Factor Analysis

EFA was conducted for the construct validity of the items selected for the Language Barrier Scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy test and Bartlett’s sphericity test were applied to test the adequacy of the sample size and whether the data fulfilled the sphericity condition, respectively, before moving on to EFA. The KMO and Bartlett test results are given in Table 2.

Table 2. KMO and Bartlett test results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.932
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. chi-square	7925.116
	df	741
	Sig.	.000

As seen in Table 2, the KMO test statistic was found to be .932. Kaiser (1974) stated that a value of .6 or above is sufficient for confirming the sample size. As a result of Bartlett’s test, which is used to examine the possibility of high correlations (or sphericity) between at least some of the variables in a correlation matrix, it was found that the assumption of sphericity was achieved with 95% reliability ($p \leq .05$).

Based on the models and rotations tried in the examination of the factor structure, it was decided to use principal component analysis and the varimax rotation method, providing the optimum solution for the existing data. It was seen that there were four factors with eigenvalues greater than “1” and the scree plot of the eigenvalues is given in Figure 1.

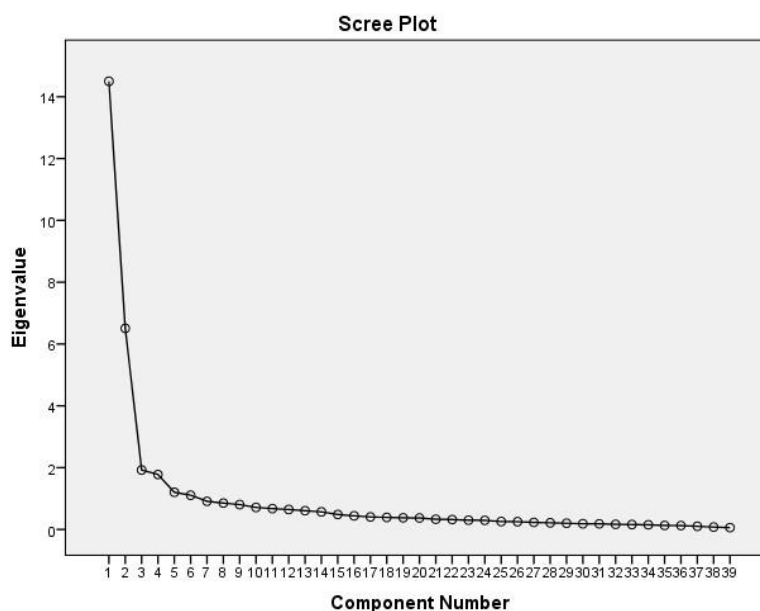


Figure 1. Eigenvalue scree plot for EFA

It is clearly seen that the graph becomes flatter after the fourth eigenvalue. According to this graph, it can be said that the four-factor structure is valid.

Total explained variance and eigenvalues are given in Table 3.



Table 3. Total explained variance and eigenvalues

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14.50	37.180	37.180	14.500	37.180	37.180	7.208	18.483	18.483
2	6.506	16.683	53.862	6.506	16.683	53.862	6.407	16.428	34.911
3	1.923	4.930	58.792	1.923	4.930	58.792	5.701	14.617	49.528
4	1.778	4.560	63.351	1.778	4.560	63.351	5.391	13.824	63.351
5	1.203	3.085	66.437						
6	1.108	2.840	69.277						
7	.911	2.336	71.613						
8	.853	2.187	73.800						
9	.806	2.066	75.865						
10	.713	1.829	77.694						
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮						
39	.059	.152	100						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

It was seen that 63.35% of the variance was explained for the four-factor structure. According to Table 3, one factor explains 37.18%, two factors explain 53.86%, and three factors explain 58.79% of all variance.

Factor loads were also calculated for the four-factor structure. The factor scores of each variable were then examined and it was decided to exclude six items that did not meet the criterion of the factor score being above .3 (Jöreskog, 1969). The factor structure with factor loads is given in Table 4.

Table 4. Item-factor scores

Factor	Item No.	Item	Factor Score
Labeling	Q24	Teachers feel uncomfortable when students speak a “foreign” language	.512
	Q25	Teachers may judge students who have challenges communicating in Turkish	.677
	Q26	Teachers show tolerance to students who have difficulties communicating in Turkish	.810
	Q27	Teachers may more easily blame students who have Turkish communication difficulties when students encounter problems	.829
	Q28	Teachers may humiliate students who have Turkish communication difficulties in front of their friends	.842
	Q29	Teachers expose students to verbal abuse	.839
	Q30	Teachers tend to give low grades to students who have difficulty in Turkish communication	.808
	Q42	The school administration may not be willing to get in touch with the parents of students who have a Turkish language barrier	.616
Deprivation	Q1	Turkish communication difficulty is an effective factor for students’ school success	.444
	Q2	Students find it difficult to focus on the lesson	.757
	Q3	Students have difficulty understanding what is said in class	.853
	Q4	Students have difficulty understanding textbooks	.852
	Q5	Students misunderstand assignments	.795
	Q6	Students have difficulty understanding exam questions	.868
	Q7	Students have difficulty expressing themselves while answering exam questions	.861
	Q8	Students are not able to complete their answers to questions on exams	.735
	Q9	Students find it difficult to express themselves verbally	.697

**Table 4** (Continued). Item-factor scores

Factor	Item No.	Item	Factor Score
Acceptance	s10	Students have self-confidence problems	.506
	s11	Students are not willing to participate in the course	.608
	s12	Students are not willing to participate in activities	.605
	s13	Students are concerned about being ridiculed among their friends while speaking	.576
	s14	Students avoid presentations in class	.624
	s15	Turkish communication difficulty is an effective factor for student absenteeism	.629
	s16	Students tend to drop out of school	.610
	s17	Turkish communication difficulties negatively affect students' creativity	.508
	s18	The social relations of students are affected by Turkish language barriers	.599
	s19	Difficulty in Turkish communication affects student-teacher relations	.695
	s20	Students have a lack of trust in teachers	.584
	s21	Students have difficulty communicating with teachers	.700
	s22	One of the reasons why students are afraid of teachers is Turkish communication difficulty	.686
	s23	One of the reasons why students avoid communicating with teachers is difficulty in Turkish communication	.698
Exclusion	s32	Students may be discriminated against by their peers	.668
	s33	Students may be more exposed to peer bullying	.695
	s35	Students may be excluded from games by their friends	.836
	s36	Students may be excluded from social activities by their friends	.837
	s38	Students may be excluded from student clubs by their friends	.722
	s40	Students may be excluded by other parents of students	.725
	s41	Students' parents may be excluded by other parents	.713
	s43	Parents of students who have difficulties in Turkish communication cannot take an active role in school-family collaboration	.559

According to Table 4, the items are distributed among the four factors of Labeling, Deprivation, Acceptance, and Exclusion. When the findings were examined, it was seen that these four factors could explain 63.3% of the total variance. This rate is sufficient for EFA (Jöreskog, 1969). When the factor loadings were examined, it was seen that they ranged between .444 and .868. Consequently, this factor structure provided the necessary conditions for factor loadings.

According to the findings of related research, students who have language-related difficulties in school lack the opportunities that their peers have in both in-class and out-of-class practices such as reading/writing/listening, comprehending, expressing oneself, communicating, following lessons, actively participating in class, participating in classroom activities, being understood correctly, completing exams on time, and enjoying access to resources (Aydın & Kaya, 2017; Baltacı et al., 2019; Emin, 2019; Ergün, 2014; Gözübüyük Tamer, 2017; Gülüm & Akçalı, 2017; Kaysılı et al., 2019; Mohanty et al., 2009; Tosun et al., 2018). Considering those points while developing this scale, the concept of “deprivation” was preferred to express the dimension related to the performance difficulties experienced by students who do not have the language skills required by the school in comparison to their peers who know the required language.

It is understood that situations of “deprivation” cause additional disadvantages for both the language and the speakers of that language in what becomes a vicious cycle, being included in the schools in a different way and with a different symbolic meaning than mainstream students (Hilt, 2017), being placed in groups with low achievement (First, 1988), being seen as a temporary or extraneous member or an unessential element of the school (Özer et al., 2017; Sakız, 2016), and experiencing exclusion by



administrators, teachers, students, and parents of students (Baltacı et al., 2019; Coşkun & Emin, 2016; Emin, 2019; Hilt, 2017; Mohanty et al., 2009; Uzun & Bütün, 2016; Yaylacı et al., 2017). On the other hand, studies have also revealed that students who lack the language skills necessary for school have negative experiences including, exposure to prejudice (Baltacı et al., 2019; Emin, 2019; First, 1988; IOM, 2019; Özer et al., 2017), labeling (Ergün & Demir, 2017), marginalization (Arias, 2015; Coşkun & Emin, 2016; Kaysılı et al., 2019; Özer et al., 2017), discrimination (Emin, 2019; Ergün & Demir, 2017; IOM, 2019, Özer et al., 2017), isolation (Faltis & Ramírez-Marín, 2015), bullying (Coşkun & Emin, 2016; Tomozawa & Majima, 2015), material or symbolic violence (First, 1988; Paia et al., 2015), insults (Emin, 2019; Ergün & Demir, 2017), humiliation (Emin, 2019), hatred (First, 1988), being ignored (Aydın & Kaya, 2017; Cross, 2009; Uzun & Bütün, 2016), being seen as a source of trouble or a burden and a waste of time (Emin, 2019), being seen as a potential criminal (Kaysılı et al., 2019; Sakız, 2016), being under pressure (Mohanty et al., 2009), being ridiculed (Emin, 2019), and being labeled as weak or unsuccessful and inadequate (First, 1988; Hilt, 2017; Mohanty et al., 2009). In addition to those experiences, these students do not receive support for school attendance (Emin, 2019; Ergün & Demir, 2017), and teachers are reluctant to allocate time to these students (Emin, 2019; Özer et al., 2017) and behave more intolerantly towards them (Uzun & Bütün, 2016). These experiences that contribute to the maintenance of deprivation shape the Labeling and Exclusion dimensions of the present study.

The dimension of Acceptance was included in the scale to reflect situations such as lack of self-confidence, low motivation, withdrawal from communication, absenteeism, and dropping out of school, which are described in the literature regarding students with language barriers. For this dimension, the idea that the aforementioned feelings and behavioral patterns are not independent of the experiences of the students in school was determinant. Suárez-Orozco and Suárez-Orozco (2001) argued that students who are exposed to discrimination in school will continue to experience continuing effects of segregation in areas such as self-perception, social relations, motivation, and success. Arias (2015), on the other hand, drew attention to the link among lack of self-esteem, alienation, and disadvantages due to language deficiencies (p.287). Hilt (2017) determined that students who experience challenges regarding language are marginalized for this reason and thus have difficulties in positioning themselves at higher academic levels, which supports the general hypothesis. Studies have also pointed out the importance of considering situations such as loss of motivation, failure, unwillingness to attend school, absenteeism, and dropping out of school in relation to experiences in school for students without language capital (Block et al., 2014; Coşkun & Emin, 2016; Istanbul Bilgi University Child Studies Unit, 2015; Emin, 2019; Ereş, 2015; Özer et al., 2017; Taştan & Çelik, 2017; Tomozawa & Majima, 2015; Uzun & Bütün, 2016; Walt, 2015). Ergün and Demir (2017) preferred the concept of “school push-out” while considering the same ideas in their study to describe the conditions that cause students to drop out of school. Furthermore, students who do not have sufficient language backgrounds as required by the school face challenges triggering behaviors such as hesitating to develop communication (Cross, 2009; Gözübüyük Tamer, 2017; Kaysılı et al., 2019; Uzun & Bütün, 2016) or abstaining from school activities (Emin, 2019; Tosun et al., 2018). These challenges are not only caused by the lack of language skills; they can be read as states of feeling or behavior that develop with the effect of the labeling and exclusion experiences to which these students are exposed for the same reason. According to this analytical framework, it was thought that the word “acceptance” would be most appropriate to describe the situations that these students experience.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To test the validity of the factor structure that was formed after EFA, CFA was applied and the results are given in Figure 2 and Table 5.

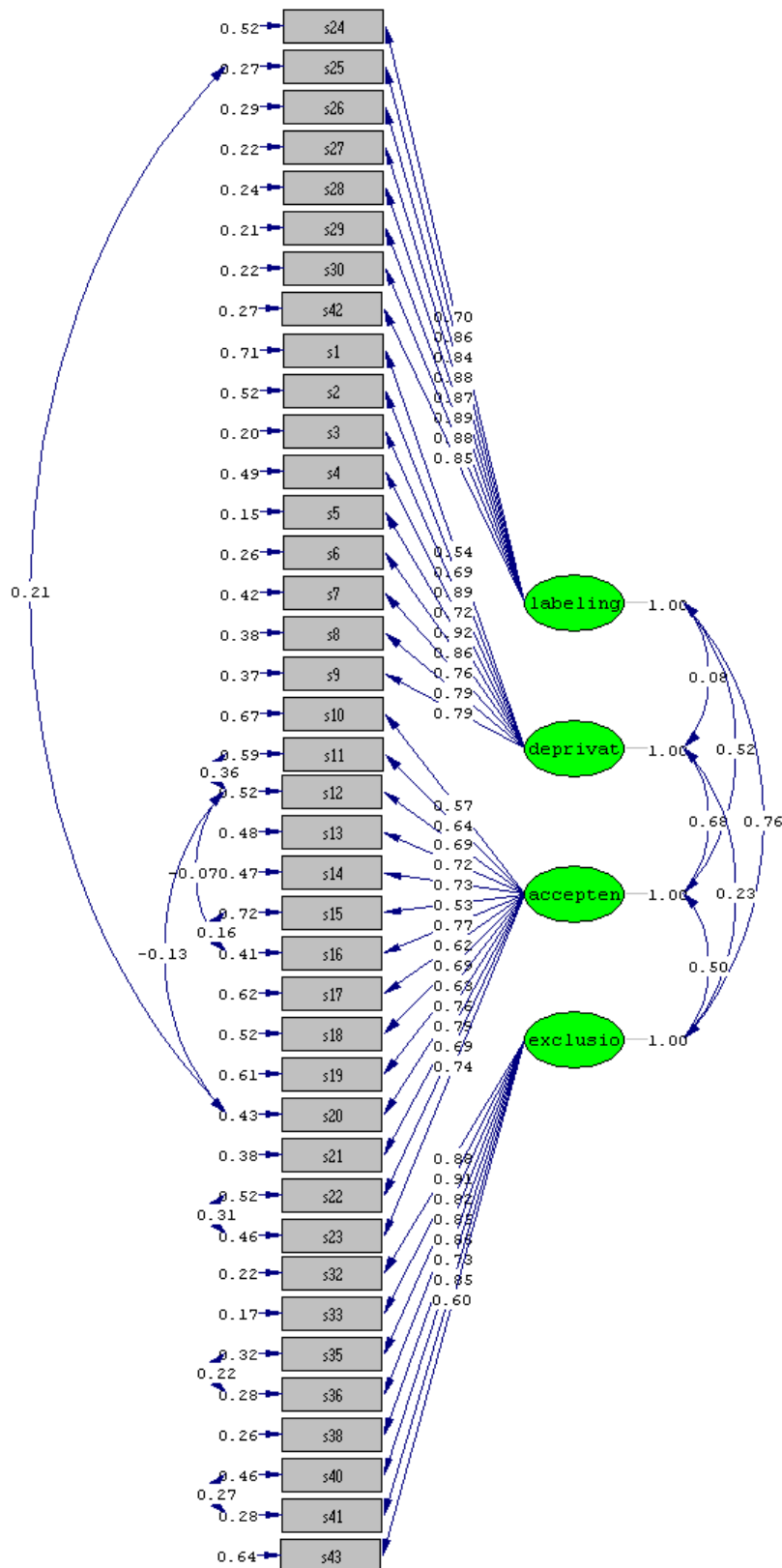


Figure 2. Confirmatory factor analysis path diagram

**Table 5.** Goodness of fit values for CFA

Fit Indexes	Statistics	Acceptable Fit Values	Good Fit Values
RMSEA	.092	.05 ≤ RMSEA ≤ .10	0 ≤ RMSEA ≤ .05
χ^2/df	1.942	$2 \leq \chi^2/s.d. \leq 5$	$0 \leq \chi^2/s.d. < 2$
SRMR	.086	.05 ≤ SRMR ≤ .10	0 ≤ SRMR ≤ .05
NFI	.99	.90 ≤ GFI ≤ .95	.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1.00
GFI	.96	.90 ≤ GFI ≤ .95	.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1.00
AGFI	.96	.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ .90	.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1.00
PGFI	.85	.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ .90	.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1.00
CFI	.99	.90 ≤ CFI ≤ .95	.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00

Degrees of Freedom = 688

 $\chi^2 = 1336.56$

P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < .05) = .00

RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, **NFI:** Normed Fit Index, **GFI:** Goodness of Fit Index, **AGFI:** Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, **CFI:** Comparative Fit Index

When the indices were evaluated, the following criteria were taken into account: $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$, good fit; $2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5$, acceptable fit; $.90 \leq CFI \leq .95$, acceptable fit; $.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$, good fit; $.05 \leq SRMR \leq .10$, acceptable fit; $0 \leq SRMR \leq .05$, good fit; $.05 \leq RMSEA \leq .08$, acceptable fit; $0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$, good fit; $.90 \leq GFI \leq .95$ acceptable fit, $.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$, good fit; $.85 \leq AGFI \leq .90$, acceptable fit; and $.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$, good fit. While evaluating the standardized factor loads, the criterion of values being equal to or higher than .30 was taken into consideration. When the factor loads and goodness of fit values given in the figures were examined, it was observed that the full fit and goodness of fit of the factor loads reflected good fit values.

In order to test the reliability of the scale in its current form, Cronbach's alpha test was applied. When the results were examined, it was seen that the reliability values calculated for the new factors were all over 90%. The results of Cronbach's alpha test are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Results of Cronbach's alpha test for the determined factors

Factor	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Labeling	8	.915
Deprivation	9	.934
Acceptance	14	.932
Exclusion	8	.914
Whole Scale	39	.955

As seen in Table 6, the reliability of the whole scale is 95.5%. For all dimensions of the scale, reliabilities are also above 90%. These results show that the reliability levels of the scale and its dimensions are high.

For the item-total correlations, the t-test results for differences between each item's means of the upper 27% and lower 27% group statistics are given in Table 7.

Table 7. Item-total correlation t-test results for differences between each item's means of upper 27% and lower 27% group

Item No.	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	t-Value	Cronbach's Alpha If Item Deleted
s1	.346	5.236*	.954
s2	.538	8.410*	.953
s3	.564	8.339*	.953
s4	.486	7.4230*	.953
s5	.524	8.106*	.953

**Table 7** (Continued). Item-total correlation t-test results for differences between each item's means of upper 27% and lower 27% group

Item No.	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	t-Value	Cronbach's Alpha If Item Deleted
s6	.584	8.868*	.953
s7	.521	6.936*	.953
s8	.614	10.390*	.953
s9	.584	9.149*	.953
s10	.592	10.454*	.953
s11	.634	12.380*	.953
s12	.637	13.317*	.953
s13	.648	12.648*	.952
s14	.613	10.982*	.953
s15	.549	11.084*	.953
s16	.667	13.451*	.952
s17	.531	11.893*	.953
s18	.664	13.515*	.952
s19	.558	11.040*	.953
s20	.627	11.466*	.953
s21	.658	13.891*	.952
s22	.645	13.946*	.952
s23	.690	14.079*	.952
s24	.422	6.804*	.954
s25	.576	9.296*	.953
s26	.517	7.887*	.953
s27	.590	8.646*	.953
s28	.523	6.994*	.953
s29	.543	6.557*	.953
s30	.579	8.819*	.953
s32	.632	11.437*	.953
s33	.660	14.77*	.952
s35	.632	11.819*	.953
s36	.615	11.372*	.953
s38	.584	9.215*	.953
s40	.591	9.598*	.953
s41	.579	9.244*	.953
s42	.569	9.257*	.953
s43	.446	7.826*	.954

The corrected item-total correlations of the scale were between .346 and .690 considering the differences of t-values (df=111) calculated for the upper 27% and lower 27% group statistics. The total points specified for items ranged from 5.236 ($p < .05$) to 13.946 ($p < .05$).

After determining the factor structure, the total score for the scale, consisting of 39 items, was obtained and quartiles were calculated in order to determine the intensity of the language barrier problems experienced by students. Because the data did not conform to normal distribution, the quartile scores were calculated by taking medians from central tendency measures, as given in Table 8.

Table 8. Quartiles

Median		118
Quartile	25	100
	50	118
	75	131.62
N	112	

The median of the sample consisting of 112 people was calculated as 118 and the arithmetic mean as 115.27. For the 39-item scale, the lowest score could be obtained as 39 and the highest as 195. Considering the dimensions, the score for Labeling can be 8 at lowest and 40 at highest, while for Withdrawal it can 9 at lowest and 45 at highest. The score for Acceptance can be calculated as 14 at



lowest and 70 at highest, while for Exclusion it can be calculated as 8 at lowest and 45 at highest. In this case, 25% of the Language Barrier Scale total scores of the participants were distributed within a range of 100 points, with 50% being below 118 and 75% below 131.62 points. The number of participants in each group was calculated for the relevant quartiles as given in Table 9.

Table 9. Number of participants per group determined for perception of language barriers

Language Barrier Perception Level	f	%
Low Perception of Language Barriers	31	27.7
Moderate Perception of Language Barriers	27	24.1
High Perception of Language Barriers	28	25.0
Very High Perception of Language Barriers	26	23.2
N	112	100

According to Table 9, 31 participants with a total score of 100 or below had low levels, 27 participants with scores between 102 and 118 points had moderate levels, 28 people with scores between 118 and 132.62 points had high levels, and 26 people with scores above 132.62 had very high levels of perception of language barriers. It should be kept in mind that these scores may vary according to the samples applied in future studies by the researchers.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

In this study, which was undertaken to develop a scale to describe how difficulties due to limited language capital present different challenges for students, both the functional deprivation of the students and the in-school processes that perpetuate that deprivation were taken into consideration. As a result of EFA conducted for the 45-item scale administered to 271 primary school teachers, the KMO test statistic was found to be .932, and the sphericity assumption was met with 95% reliability according to Bartlett's test ($p \leq .05$). Based on the model and rotations that were applied in the examination of the factor structure, it was observed that there were four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 by using principal component analysis and the varimax rotation method. These four factors could explain 63% of the total variance. When the factor scores were examined, it was seen that they ranged between .444 and .868. Accordingly, the obtained factor structure provided the necessary conditions in terms of factor scores. It was concluded that the considered statistics revealed sufficient values for EFA and CFA analysis was then undertaken.

As a result of the CFA analysis, the RMSEA (0.092), $\chi^2/s.d.$ (1.942), CFI (.99), and GFI (.96) values were found to meet the criteria for goodness of fit. According to these criteria, it was decided that the validity of the factor structure created as a result of EFA was confirmed. Taking into account the quartile scores obtained from the participants, scores were divided into four groups as participants with low perceptions of language barriers, moderate perceptions of language barriers, high perceptions of language barriers, and very high perceptions of language barriers. When the numbers of teachers in each of these groups were examined, it was seen that 48.2% of the participants (54 out of 112) thought that children whose first languages are not Turkish are exposed to high and very high levels of problems due to language barriers.

In the process of scale development, the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient (.955) obtained for the overall scale showed that the reliability was high. The reliability coefficients obtained for the four dimensions of the scale varied between .914 and .934. Thus, it was concluded that each dimension had acceptable reliability.

Although language-related difficulties in school as an accompanying problem of migration have entered the agendas of educational circles in recent years, studies that evaluate migrant and refugee students only in the context of their past lives and traumas or that compare their academic achievements to those of other students reproduce incomplete narratives. In this sense, even studies on "inclusive education" threaten to reinforce the same deficient view indirectly. Studies that illustrate the transformation of difficulties into insurmountable barriers in school for students who do not have the language



backgrounds required by their schools, rather than simply focusing on the “shortcomings” of the students, are still greatly lacking. Although studies on migrant and refugee students, bilingual or multilingual education, and inclusive education offer solutions to these problems, there is still a need for studies that assess what conditions students face in school in order to obtain a better understanding of the nature of language barriers.

Bourdieu and Passeron’s relevant analyses can be considered while discussing the findings of this study. Bourdieu and Passeron subjected the problems faced by disadvantaged groups in school processes to a multilayered analysis. According to that analysis, students who differ in terms of the initial tendencies and preliminary information that they have obtained from their environments are only formally equal in school. Students who do not inherit the cultural capital that the school demands are eliminated from educational processes. The elimination mechanism becomes stronger and more visible moving towards lower social classes. Groups from the lower classes, who tend to expect and demand the most from the educational system, are the first to suffer in any case. For example, success in education, which is a necessity of remaining in school, is tightly linked to the ability to use the local language. Linguistic capital, which provides returns in an educational sense, and its unequal distribution among social classes is one of the most hidden factors shaping the relationship between social origin and success in school (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, pp.16-121; Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, p.155). Language-related “deprivation,” in the above analysis, indicates differentiation among students speaking the same language based on their competence in delivering the styles and expressions expected by their teachers. Among disadvantaged groups such as that considered in the present study, the same state of deprivation is obvious, not hidden, as it is also relevant to basic understanding and expression competencies.

Blindness to the inherent social inequalities in progressive processes, specific censorship of the field (Bourdieu, 1995, p.97), *doxa*, accepted as fact by everyone (Bourdieu, 1995, p. 136), and immanent regularities (Bourdieu, 1995, p.176) impart continuity to the screening system and provide the basis for ongoing difficulties. Schools make students feel that they “do not belong” through the tendency of adaptation to the expected models, thus making the situation appear similar from the outside, as well (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, pp.31-32). The established order creates a perception of inequalities as “natural inequality” (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, p. 109). In the eyes of teachers who interpret formal equality as real equality, students are classified as “talented” or “incompetent” instead of “having cultural capital” or “lacking cultural capital.” Teachers complaining about the inadequacies of their students and their low levels of performance may fail to ask themselves why this is the case and avoid drawing pedagogical conclusions from the situation (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, p.110). If there is a problem, the fault is immediately assigned to the inadequate student, with no blame attributed to the teacher (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, pp.148-151). While the educational system in its current form fails to meet the “unexpected” and “inappropriate” expectations of students who are not equipped to meet the expectations of the school, it also reveals that the institution demands a student body that will increase “efficiency” and meet the demands from the outset (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, p.136). The social value and hence the economic and symbolic returns of different language codes (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, p. 115) gain importance at this point. Language is no longer just a communication tool; it is part of the elimination system. Even measurement and evaluation processes are components that help to reinforce the difficulties originating from deprivation. Teachers’ tendencies to give better grades to students who meet their expectations is a relatively hidden element of discrimination mechanisms (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, p.160; Aktay, 2010, p.482).

A school that does not take given social situations into account and attributes educational failure only to a lack of skills doubles the influence of social determinations. Children from the lower classes, as “appointed perpetual and consenting victims of substantive definitions,” start to see “what they do” as a simple result of “what they actually are” over time, as everything pushes them to judge themselves by reference to “charismatic ideology” for their successes or failures (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, pp.115-116). In this state of “acceptance,” the beliefs of these students regarding their social destinies strengthen the possibility of failure by not following logical conclusions. Thus, the future expectations of students



who do not have the ability to consciously evaluate the situations that they experience are shaped (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, p.17), and the educational process essentially dies. As one moves to the social classes most distant from the school's language of instruction, the rate of educational mortality increases (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2015, p.110). Formal equations serve not to prevent this "death" but to legitimize it (Bourdieu & Passeron, 2014, p.51).

Maxwell's demon metaphor, which Bourdieu uses to reveal discrimination mechanisms, summarizes the same process. Accordingly, this demon, which suspends the effect of the second law of thermodynamics, separates particles whose temperatures or mobilities are unequal and throws the fastest into a container with increasing temperature while separating the slowest into a container with decreasing temperature, thus preserving the difference that would have disappeared otherwise. The school system, which works like Maxwell's demon, serves to maintain the differences among students equipped with unequal amounts of cultural capital; it is programmed to distinguish those who have inherited cultural capital from those who lack it through a series of sorting procedures (Bourdieu, 1995).

On what grounds is it possible for a lack of skills to evolve into a barrier considering the dimensions of labeling, exclusion, and acceptance? When the findings of the present study are evaluated in light of Bourdieu and Passeron's analyses cited above, a three-layered "expectation" emerges that allows that transformation to take place. The first layer corresponds to the school's focus on the ability of students to meet the expectations of the school while raising its standards rather than focusing on their needs. In this performative climate, the lack of linguistic capital is considered an anomaly in the sense of not responding to expectations, turning the situation into a loss of status for the student. The second layer corresponds to the stereotypical views of students' immigration and trauma stories compounding their language-related difficulties. Views of students as victims of past traumatic experiences do not recognize the possibility of new futures (Correa-Velez et al., 2010). The third layer entails the first two layers gaining the functionality to legitimize additional disadvantages faced by students in school, namely "labeling" and "exclusion." Students who are faced with deficiencies that arise due to expectations of deficiency thus experience deprivation that is "paid for" rather than "remedied deprivation." Therefore, small-scale difficulties that could otherwise be overcome will mutate, turning into multi-layered barriers for students. The school's interpretation of these situations as "destiny" and the students' ideas of problems being "the natural result of what they are" make the barrier all the more powerful. In a vicious cycle, the social groups that have more expectations of the school due to their situations will pay for "not meeting expectations."

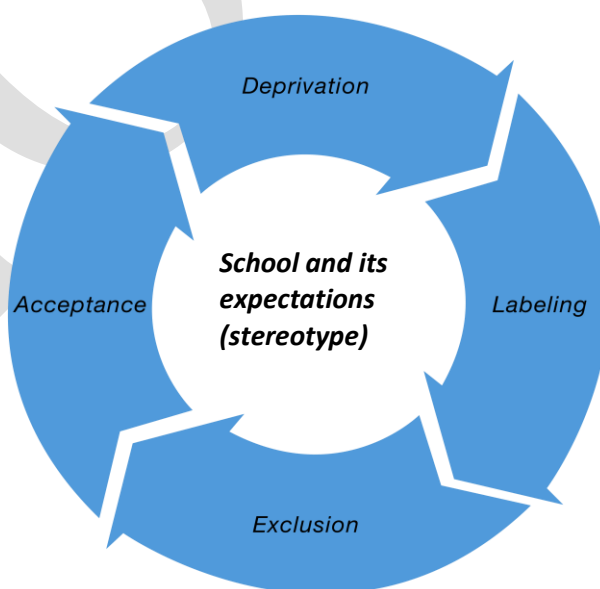


Figure 3. Vicious cycle of language barriers



This study has demonstrated that the nature of language barriers that gives continuity to language-related difficulties cannot be understood with a perspective that ignores the context in which these barriers develop or the situations that students encounter in school, as well as the possible view of these students as “deficient.” Analyses that center trauma and migration stories or cultural differences of immigrant and refugee students as natural reasons for possible failure do not yield meaningful results. The language-related difficulties experienced by immigrant and refugee students turn into barriers under circumstances in which these students’ migration and trauma stories and cultural capital differences are interpreted as justifications for their failure rather than being evaluated as data that determine the services and support that the school must provide. These barriers cannot be overcome without considering the question of what would change in students’ achievement if the requirements of the school were more attuned to the language skills, cultures, and competencies of the students (Hilt, 2017, p. 599). Furthermore, in order to overcome these barriers, it is very important to note that students learn better when they are encouraged and receive additional support (First, 1988). In light of these points, an increase in the number of studies centered on students and evaluating them within their own contexts and conditions, as well as questioning schools’ stereotypical demands, will hopefully allow for more solutions for overcoming language-related difficulties before they reach the level of barriers for students.

Limitations

The biggest limitation encountered in the process of this research was the COVID-19 outbreak. There were difficulties in delivering the questionnaires to teachers due to the closure of schools. Furthermore, administering the questionnaires in schools in the regions in which immigrant children live was another challenge. Achieving a sufficient sample size was a time-consuming problem. It took a long time to obtain the necessary permissions due to the pandemic. As face-to-face meetings were not feasible during the pandemic, the collection of the distributed questionnaires again took longer than was planned. Due to the self-criticism required by some of the questions, the difficulty in finding teachers who volunteered to participate should be noted as an additional limitation, as well.

Suggestions

This scale can be administered to teachers with different education levels. Longitudinal studies based on observations and in-depth interviews can be conducted to determine the nature of language barriers and further scales can also be developed by taking into consideration the data collected in the course of such field work. Studies questioning the relationship between stereotypical expectations of schools and the emergence of language barriers in those situations are necessary to clarify the nature of these barriers, as well.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest

All authors of this study confirm that they have contributed sufficiently to the project to be included as authors. They also acted in accordance with ethical rules at all stages of the research as stated in the approval granted by the Ethics Committee of Mardin Artuklu University (Date: 17.04.2020, number: 2020/01-12). We also declare that there is no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise, exists.

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