**Disrupting the myth of monolingualism: Institutional discourses about language and writing for plurilingual students in English-medium higher education**

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**Abstract**

Many English-speaking colleges and universities across the globe, including Quebec, Canada, privilege monolingual ideologies in language education, writing, and assessment practices, which can marginalize students who have diverse and complex language and education backgrounds and experiences (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Marshall, 2020; Sterzuk, 2015). Although linguistic and cultural diversity is a reality in many English-speaking classrooms, this diversity is often overlooked and the link between institutional policies and pedagogical practices remain underexplored. This PhD research presents findings from a qualitative study examining institutional policies that may shape language education in English-medium college courses, in Montreal, Quebec. Three research questions guided the study: (1) How are *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for English courses represented in college English Department policy? (2) What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices of plurilingual learners? (3) To what extent do college English teachers align themselves or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy? Data collection included policies—*Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policies—and semi-structured interviews with 12 college English teachers. Policy data was analyzed through critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 2003), while teacher data was analyzed through critical narrative approach (Souto-Manning, 2014). Findings revealed that policies often privilege monolingual standards that systematically exclude and devalue students' plurilingual practices, contributing to language-based discrimination. Moreover, English Department policy showed that plurilingual learners are often associated with deficit discourses, legitimizing exclusionary practices. However, teachers' interviews revealed contradictory feelings between students' plurilingual repertoires and the enforcement of monolingual standards, with teachers vehemently showing resistance to these policies and adopting practices that disrupt institutional monolingualism. These findings are highly relevant in linguistically and culturally diverse English-medium classrooms in Canada and internationally as the findings present empirical bottom-up support for the need for policy reform and pedagogical practices that are accessible and inclusive for plurilingual students.

**Résumé**

De nombreux collèges et universités anglophones à travers le monde, y compris au Québec, au Canada, privilégient les idéologies monolingues dans l'enseignement des langues, l'écriture et les pratiques d'évaluation, ce qui peut marginaliser les étudiants qui ont des expériences linguistiques et éducatives diverses et complexes (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Marshall, 2020; Sterzuk, 2015). Bien que la diversité linguistique et culturelle soit une réalité dans de nombreux cours d'anglais, cette diversité est souvent ignorée et le lien entre les politiques institutionnelles et les pratiques pédagogiques reste inexploré. Cette recherche doctorale présente les résultats d'une étude qualitative examinant les politiques institutionnelles qui peuvent façonner l'enseignement des cours d'anglais au niveau collégial à Montréal, au Québec. Trois questions ont guidé l'étude: (1) Comment les politiques du ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur pour les cours d'anglais sont-elles représentées dans les politiques des départements d'anglais? (2) Quelles sont les perceptions des enseignants d'anglais sur la façon dont les politiques des départements d'anglais influencent la pédagogie linguistique, les pratiques d'écriture et l'évaluation des étudiants plurilingues? (3) Jusqu'à quel point les enseignants d'anglais s'alignent-ils ou résistent-ils aux critères de langue et d'écriture imposés par les politiques ministérielles et des départements d'anglais? Les données comprenaient des politiques du ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement Supérieur et des départements d'anglais et des entrevues semi-structurées avec 12 enseignants d'anglais. Les données des politiques ont été analysées par une analyse critique du discours (Fairclough, 2003), tandis que les données sur les enseignants ont été analysées par une approche narrative critique (Souto-Manning, 2014). Les résultats ont révélé que les politiques souvent privilégient le monolinguisme qui excluent et dévalorisent les pratiques plurilingues, contribuant ainsi à la discrimination linguistique. De plus, les politiques du département d'anglais ont montré que les étudiants plurilingues sont souvent associés à des discours déficitaires, légitimant des pratiques d'exclusion. Cependant, les entretiens avec les enseignants ont révélé des sentiments contradictoires entre les répertoires plurilingues des élèves et le monolinguisme, avec les enseignants manifestant une résistance à ces politiques et adoptant des pratiques qui subvertissent le monolinguisme. Ces résultats sont pertinents pour des cours d'anglais dans les cours linguistiquement et culturellement diversifiées au Canada et à l'étranger, car les résultats présentent un soutien empirique pour une réforme des politiques et de pratiques pédagogiques accessibles et inclusives pour les élèves plurilingues.

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# Table of Contents

List of Figures

# List of Tables

# Key Terms

**CEGEP**

  **CEGEP** is a French acronym for *Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel*, known officially in English as a General and Vocational College. CEGEP refers to post-secondary college institutions in the province of Quebec that offer a *Diplôme d'études collégiales* (DEC), which is required for admission to a university in Quebec.

**MEES**

  *The Ministry of Education and Higher Education* (in French: *Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur*, abbreviated as **MEES**) is the government ministry of Quebec that governs education, recreation, and sports in the province. MEES was formerly known as **MELS**. (In French: ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport); both are used in this PhD research.

**Monolingual and Bilingual**

  I use the terms **monolingual** and **bilingual** to refer to language proficiency as defined in federal and provincial language policies. The province of Quebec legislates monolingual French language use in social and educational contexts. The rest of the provinces in Canada legislate two official languages: English and French. The term bilingual indicates that Canada is a bilingual country with two official languages: English and French.

**Allophone**

  In my PhD research, I use the term *Allophone* in a Quebec and Canadian context only. In Canada, the term *Allophone* was first used in 1968 when the Quebec government appointed the *Commission of Inquiry on the Situation of the French Language and Linguistic Rights in Quebec*, otherwise known as the *Gendron Commission* to study French language education in Quebec (*Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism*, 1970). During the *Gendron Commission* of 1968-1972, the terms Anglophone, Francophone and *Allophone* were used to describe three general linguistic groups. In this PhD research, I refer to the term *Allophone* as it was described during the *Gendron Commission*: to describe a citizen or resident of Quebec other than from France or Great Britain whose parents, or grandparents do not have one of Canada's official languages, French or English, as their "first language." In my PhD research, I reject the term *Allophone* in a Quebec context because it reduces the linguistic diversity and complexity of plurilingual students. Therefore, I prefer to use the term plurilingual.

**Linguistic Repertoires**

Plurilingual students rely on various communicative resources to express their diverse identities within communities whether in school settings or with their peers and/or families. **Linguistic** repertoire defines the ways in which students use language as a means of communication (e.g., speaking, listening, and writing) in different communities and social situations, including in digital environments (Busch, 2017).

**Plurilingual/Plurilingualism**

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) published by the Council of Europe (CoE, 2001; 2020) defines **plurilingualism** as the interdependence of languages as part of a student's linguistic repertoire and/or communicative repertoire. Plurilingualism refers to how a student does not keep "languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contribute and in which languages interrelate" (CEFR, 2001, Section, 1.3). **Plurilingualism** emphasizes the relationship and interdependence of languages and cultures that comprise a student's linguistic and cultural repertoire (Council of Europe, 2001; 2020). Specifically, plurilingualism moves away "from the view of languages as separate, parallel, autonomous systems based on discourses of complete competencies to a view that recognizes hybridity and varying degrees of competence between and within languages" (Marshall & Moore, 2018, p. 3). Therefore, **plurilingual** language instruction values the ability to use languages or varieties of language as well as the cultural knowledge that students have developed throughout their lived personal, social, cultural, and educational experiences.

**Translingualism**

**Translingualism** refers to the use of multiple languages when learning content and focuses on the fluidity of languages, an approach that "sees difference in language not as a barrier to overcome or as a problem to manage, but as a resource for producing meaning in writing, speaking, reading, and listening" (Horner et al., 2011, p. 303) to offer new perspectives on writing and literacy. A translingual approach recognizes difference as the norm and promotes the view of languages as heterogeneous, fluid, and negotiable (Horner, 2017).

**Chapter 1: Introduction**

## 1.1. Overview: Statement of the Research Problem

Plurilingualism continues to be a reality in many countries, including in Canada. Since the 1980s, the demographic rise in students from first, second, or third generation immigrant backgrounds is on the rise in the province of Quebec and, in Montreal, a city with the highest concentration of trilingual citizens in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2022). Subsequently, many students with an immigrant background have a rich linguistic and cultural repertoire. In my PhD research, I use the term plurilingual to refer to these students. Despite the need to support plurilingual speakers' development of English, the prevalence of monolingual language policies that mandate a one-language-only approach present as one potentially problematic site (Barros et al., 2021; Ortega, 2014). Furthermore, institutional policies in English-medium higher education often reflect a monolingual lens that dictate pedagogical and assessment practices (Preece & Marshall, 2020; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). The main problem is that such monolingual practices discourage the natural mixing of languages of plurilingual speakers (Canagarajah 2018; Galante, 2018; Piccardo, 2017), which devalues and/or excludes plurilinguals' repertories (Galante et al., 2020; Piccardo, 2013). Therefore, monolingual language instruction can propagate linguistic hierarchies that discount, underplay, and disadvantage the realities and competencies of culturally and linguistically diverse speakers and writers (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Kubota & Miller, 2017; Marshall & Moore, 2013). The prevalence of cultural and linguistic diversity in higher education in Canada indicates the need to investigate current standards for language proficiency to address inequities, linguistic discrimination, and a lack of integration of non-official languages in school curricula and institutional policies (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Kubota, 2020; Sterzuk, 2020). However, there are instructional approaches that can address the lack of linguistic and cultural inclusion in teaching and learning such as plurilingual pedagogies.

Plurilingualism views speakers and writers as having complex and diverse linguistic, cultural, and educational knowledge that they employ in language learning classroom contexts (Marshall & Moore, 2018). Research indicates that plurilingual pedagogies that incorporate learners' plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires are beneficial when learning a new target language (Cummins, 2017; García & Otheguy, 2019). Additionally, plurilingual pedagogies can challenge monolingual biases (Galante, 2022; Piccardo et al., 2022) by serving as "vehicles for

empowerment where spaces are created for individuals to negotiate and validate their plurilingual and cultural identities and for educators to experiment with plurilingual and multimodal tasks that resist monolingual discourses" (Payant & Galante, 2022, vi–vii). Consequently, scholarship contesting monolingual models and supporting plurilingual practices is increasingly urgent. My PhD research addresses these challenges by examining the limitations of monolingual policies and the interplay between language, culture, and identity, especially in culturally and linguistically diverse environments in the city of Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

## 1.2.    Context

Canada is an increasingly diverse country. The number of Canadians who reported a first language other than English or French increased in the 2021 census; specifically, the number of people who speak a non-official language at home grew to 4.6 million or 13 per cent of the population (Statistics Canada, 2022). One in four Canadians reported having at least one first language other than English or French, and more than 200 languages were reported as a first language (Statistics Canada, 2022). The statistics emphasize two significant trends: a rising immigrant population and a growth in plurilingualism, including immigrant and Indigenous languages spoken. These trends are also important for policy and curricula planning.

In recent decades, research in the field of Language Policy and Planning has focused on how language policies are ideologically situated to improve language education in linguistically and culturally diverse situations (Kochenov & de Varennes, 2015; Ricento, 2013). For instance, national and/or official language policies can systematically marginalize or overlook plurilingual competencies (Cummins, 2017). Within the context of English-medium instructional settings, language policies that define a "common language," or a "common culture" generally refer to "an exclusive language" that is theoretically shared for all residents and citizens (Ajsic & McGroarty, 2015; Kochenov & de Varennes, 2015). Different ideological and cultural references are often used to justify why a specific nation and/or society chooses to legislate a "common language" for its residents and citizens (Hornberger, 2002). Such practices can pose problems for those who do not share the majority language and/or who are not members of the linguistic majority, which denies them "a variety of rights or interests in the area of language" (Kochenov & de Varennes, 2015, p. 5). As reinforced in research literature and scholarship from different fields of study, monolingual language policies can contribute to pedagogical practices that limit

and/or disregard plurilingual learners' communicative competencies (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021).

A growing body of scholarship in fields such as Applied Linguistics, Language Education, and Language Policy and Planning support the use of students' plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires to provide a foundational framework for language learning and teaching (e.g., Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Lau et al., 2021; Piccardo et al., 2022; Shank Lauwo et al., 2022). In practice, the integration of plurilingual approaches in Canadian English language instruction is still in its infancy (e.g., Galante, 2020c; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Galante et al., 2022; Lau et al., 2020; Marshall, 2020; Marshall & Marr, 2018; Marshall & Moore, 2013), and monolingual policies that exclude plurilingualism pose barriers to more inclusive language education (Hult & Hornberger, 2016; Shin & Sterzuk, 2019), including in English-medium colleges in Montreal. Due to the proliferation of non-official languages being spoken (Statistics Canada, 2022), it is crucial to continue to study how plurilinguals use languages in educational contexts, and how institutional discourses about plurilingualism affect their language use, especially in plurilingual and pluricultural settings (Sterzuk, 2015; Woll, 2020).

Despite a growing number of plurilingual and pluricultural statistics (Statistics Canada, 2022), federal and provincial language and language education policies presently promulgate official bilingualism in Canada or monolingualism in Quebec (Haque, 2012; Heller, 2011). Such approaches invalidate the plurilingual practices and pluricultural realities of many speakers and writers (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017; 2021; Kubota, 2020; Kubota & Miller, 2017). In Canada, languages other than English and French are divided into two main categories: Indigenous languages and "immigrant" languages. In 2019, the Canadian Parliament passed the *Indigenous Languages Act* with the intent of protecting and revitalizing over 90 Indigenous languages in Canada. Nevertheless, only Nunavut and the Northwest Territories currently have official status for Indigenous languages. The languages spoken by Indigenous populations, immigrants, and descendants of immigrants are also often referred to as non-official languages, since they do not have official status either federally or provincially. Specifically, "immigrant" or non-official languages are an outcome of English and French colonization. Unequivocally, colonization had detrimental effects to the languages already existent in this territory and after colonization, these two became the norm. Most immigrants tend to settle in major urban cities such as Vancouver, Toronto, and Montreal (Statistics, Canada, 2022). It is particularly in cities that the discrepancy

between plurilinguals' language use and monolingual expectations becomes more evident and problematic, which motivated me to conduct the study in Montreal.

Montreal is the largest city in the French-speaking province of Quebec and attracts many immigrants. It has a population of 1.7 million and a population of over 4.1 million in the Greater Montreal area (Statistics Canada, 2022). It is the city in North America with the highest percentage of trilingual residents and citizens; one in five reported being able to speak three languages fluently, French and English, along with another language (Statistics Canada, 2022). The city also has 120 cultural communities (Statistics Canada, 2022). In 2020, first-generation immigrants accounted for 38.5% of Montreal's population, while second-generation immigrants, people with at least one parent born outside of Canada, accounted for 21% of the population; visible minorities made up 34% of Montreal's population (Office de consultation publique de Montréal, 2020). While cultural and linguistic diversity is a rich resource, Quebec legislates a French monolingual landscape in the public sector, including in the education sector.

In 1977, the Quebec government passed the *Charter of the French Language* with the goal of establishing French as the official language in the province. To achieve this aim, the *Charter* mandates French for all public communication in Quebec. In addition to preserving the French language, the education clause in the *Charter* prevents access to English language schools for most of the population. For instance, to attend English language school, students need a certificate of eligibility confirming that one of their parents or one of their siblings received most of their elementary education in English in Canada. As a result, most students complete their elementary and high school education in French, but at the higher education level they have the choice to go to an English or French-speaking institution.

Official language policies such as Quebec's *Charter of the French Language* (1977) influence language education and how policies shape educational practices, which negate the interconnection of linguistic competencies (Krasny & Sachar, 2017), and affect the creation and implementation of English Department policies that, in turn, can impact how teachers address plurilingualism in the classroom (dela Cruz, 2022). The dominance of monolingualism in language teaching in English-medium higher education conflicts with students' diverse linguistic repertoires, and this tendency leads to interpreting linguistic diversity as a problem to be "fixed" or as an obstacle to overcome as opposed to advocating linguistic diversity as a resource and as an asset in pedagogical practices and in policy (Flores & Chaparro, 2018; Hult & Hornberger,

2016). Subsequently, monolingual policies that shape educational practices deter the integration of plurilingual practices in cities such as Montreal where many citizens and residents are plurilingual and pluricultural (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021). In the city of Montreal, where many people speak two, three, or more languages, there is an urgent need for language learning to value students' linguistic and cultural repertoires, and to advance plurilingual pedagogies in language instruction in English-medium education. My PhD research examines the extent to which plurilingual students' repertoires are (or are not) included in policies as well as an exploration of teachers' efforts to disrupt institutional monolingualism.

### 1.3.    Plurilinguals in Monolingual Higher Education Language Environments

In recent years, scholars in the fields of Applied Linguistics, English as a Second Language, Language Education, and Language Policy and Planning have strongly advocated for a shift from language separation towards developing more linguistically inclusive approaches in language education that consider plurilingualism (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; 2021; Cummins, 2019) to integrate plurilingual students' linguistic competencies in the classroom (Piccardo & North, 2020). Presently, since many Canadian higher education institutions enforce monolingual policies in language instruction (Chiras & Galante, 2021; dela Cruz, 2022), such practices restrict and/or exclude students' ability to use the entirety of their plurilingual practices and repertoires (Cummins, 2019; Marshall et al., 2021; Preece & Marshall, 2020). Accordingly, there are incongruences between students' plurilingualism and institutional monolingualism that do not support the implementation of plurilingual pedagogical practices (Galante & Chen, 2022; Kalan, 2022). Given that linguistic and cultural diversity is increasing in higher education in Canada and in Quebec, examining ways to address the role that policies may play in reproducing monolingual discourses is urgently needed. As well, bridging the gap between plurilingual theory and the implementation of pedagogical practices that are more linguistically and culturally inclusive is in dire need (Shin & Sterzuk, 2019; Piccardo et al., 2021). The main goal of my PhD research was to address these gaps in the literature, particularly in the context of English-medium higher education in Montreal. The growing diversity in the student population necessitates a re-examination of language learning to address questions such as why plurilingual students often struggle with literacy criteria. This is precisely why more research is needed and why I focused on this area, specifically in English-medium colleges in Montreal. I examined ministerial and

college English Department policy to analyze the extent to which policies are enacted in practice to legitimize or delegitimize plurilingual students' language and writing.

To my knowledge, this PhD research pioneers an examination of ministerial and college English Department policy as well as teachers' voices. The results reported here are significant as they map out the process of how discourses about plurilingual students and language education can affect pedagogical and assessment practices. Furthermore, it advances a critical understanding of the historical implications of the enduring colonial legacy and diachronic development of how policy has shaped higher education in Quebec, Canada. It does so by examining the discursive construction, that is, the representations (or lack thereof) of plurilingual students' language and writing proficiency and the implications that these representations have on plurilingual students' academic success. Therefore, this PhD research traces how *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy regulates English Department policy for language and writing at the college-level. In addition, it integrates teachers' voices to interpret how policy informs language pedagogy to create an original and unique framework from which to examine the nature of policy, policy discourses, and how they function as texts. The findings are important as they can inform future studies, encourage pedagogical and professional development for plurilingual and pluricultural students, and offer inclusive and equitable recommendations for them to succeed in their studies and in their lives. The findings presented in this dissertation rely on two types of data sources: ministerial and college policy and in-depth semi-structured interviews with 12 college English teachers.

### 1.4.    Research Questions

Three research questions guided my study:

1. *How are Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policies for English courses represented in college English Department policy?*

2. *What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices of plurilingual learners?*

3. *To what extent do college English teachers align themselves or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy?*

## 1.5.    Contributions

Language education for plurilingual students is crucial due to increasing plurilingual and pluricultural educational environments around the globe, inciting the need to study how to support plurilingualism in policies and pedagogical practices (Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2019). This PhD research critically examines the extent to which English-medium higher education utilizes federal, provincial, and English Department policies to encourage cultural and linguistic diversity in the language classroom. Additionally, this PhD research contributes to the interpretation of policy on language education in a specific academic context in Montreal, Quebec, to unpack the discourses and practices that can emerge from policy, and that play a pivotal role in categorizing plurilingual students (e.g., Johnson & Zentella, 2017; Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). It delves into an examination of ministerial and college English Department policy and English teachers' voices on how policy may inform language pedagogy, writing, and assessment for plurilingual learners.

Addressing urgent calls for an examination of policy and pedagogy for plurilingual speakers and writers, this PhD research contributes to the growing international and national scholarship on plurilingualism in English-medium higher education. The findings can inform better policies, pedagogical practices, and ways to avoid student assimilation to monolingualism in Quebec and in other plurilingual contexts. To accomplish these goals, I relied upon critical discourse analysis of how college English Department policy is informed by *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies, and critical narrative inquiry of 12 English college teachers' perspectives to understand the role that ministerial and English Department policies play in producing and perpetuating discourses about language and writing standards in English-medium colleges, which may negatively affect plurilingual students to this day.

## 1.6.    Positionality: Plurilingual Personal Narrative

In many ways, I have been preparing to write this PhD research my entire life as part of my life-long journey as a plurilingual, "learning" to assimilate to a monolingual environment. To be plurilingual in a monolingually mandated landscape is to live in a parallel world: a world that has its own sounds, rhythms, dialects, languages, and its own inhabitants. I am one of them: a plurilingual who has had to learn how to live in a society that does not reflect my daily linguistic

and cultural reality. And so, I learned at an early age how to disappear and how to dissolve into the background, and how not to draw attention to myself, at school and in other social situations. I did so in the beginning out of necessity because I was unfamiliar with the ways of speaking, writing, thinking, and *being* that were alien and alienating to me. Later, I did so out of habit, having become accustomed to being in the background—unseen and unheard—and now, having spent most of my life in the dark, so to speak, I am worried about venturing out into the light and publishing this dissertation, concerned that I will no longer cast a shadow.

I grew up in Montreal, Quebec, as a child of immigrants. Aside from attending Greek school, I studied in English during elementary school, French during high school, pursued an English and French bilingual DEC (diploma) in an English-medium CEGEP (college) and studied in English during university. My linguistic criss-crossing across educational institutions is usual among plurilinguals growing up in Montreal. While at home, I was Maria and I spoke Greek. Then, I spent my elementary school years learning how to be "Mary," an English version of myself, where I had to speak and act like an "Anglophone." Next, I went to French school, and I became "Marie" and had to begin again and learn how to speak and to act like a "Francophone." I remember the first days of being in a French classroom with the rest of the students, most of whom were plurilinguals with cultural backgrounds from all over the world. Our skins' different shades and our multi-form features were like a multi-coloured and multicultural Cubist painting, made up of a myriad of shapes, sizes, and colours. Every day when I arrived, the blackboard was covered with columns of verbs for us to conjugate. We began with the present tense. The teacher went around the room and asked each one of us questions to answer. My life was reduced to a series of simple sentences: *"Je vis à Montréal."* The past tense followed: *"Mes parents sont venus de Grèce."* However, the verbs on the board could not describe the diversity and complexity of my linguistic and cultural repertoire. The future tense was even worse. How could I tell my teacher that I could not see myself in the future tense? At the time, I did not have the verbs to conjugate the complicated details of life, and so my life was in the conditional tense. Every sentence in my mind started with *"if."* If my parents had not *immigrated here…, if I had grown up speaking English …, if I had grown up speaking French …* And the most important "if" of all: *"If I were not plurilingual, I would feel that I belonged."* So, the verbs and vocabulary words spun around in my head like puzzle pieces that did not fit. I was

a fragmented sentence, incomplete, with no one language or grammar rule that could express my thoughts or feelings.

This PhD research is my effort to put all the puzzle pieces together, to emerge from the shadows and to create a space where I feel that I can belong. I cannot change my past; it is always in the background informing my present: how I grew up, my schooling in English and French; then, graduating college, and next university, eventually becoming an English teacher.

For the past 20 years, I have worked as a college English teacher in Montreal. I am part of the first-generation of plurilingual and pluricultural teachers to enter a predominately white Anglo-centric teaching profession, teaching English with colleagues who mostly belong to monolingual backgrounds. Teachers like me are in a unique position in that they are a "minority" in their own departments and colleges and part of a "majority" in their classrooms with their students. In addition to my teaching, from 2007 until fall 2012, I held the position of Curriculum Coordinator for the English Department and the position of English Provincial Curriculum Coordinator for English colleges in Quebec. As part of my mandate, I oversaw a revision of provincial ministerial policies for General Education and helped revise English Department policy documents to comply with these revisions. These experiences afforded me insights on the challenges involved in implementing provincial ministerial policy texts for English courses in English colleges in contrast to the reality of teaching language and writing to students in the classroom. I started to question (1) the appropriateness of language, writing, and assessment practices as dictated by provincial ministerial mandated curricula, (2) the role of these policy texts in shaping teaching practices for language and writing, and (3) academic institutional deficit discourses about plurilingual students' literacies.

My position as a plurilingual and pluricultural English educator has been a challenging balancing act for me, like joining a traditional "ethnic" dance belonging to a culture other than your own, where you do not know the steps, and so you make all the wrong moves. Over the years, I have listened to colleagues, including colleagues who align themselves with Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (EDI) issues and yet complain about students' weak English language and writing skills. At the same time, plurilingual students have confided in me about their experiences in their English courses: how they are often told that they are unable to write, that they should attend writing workshops, and that they should seek tutoring. The result of such exchanges and experiences, including being placed in remedial English classes and/or failing

their English courses, is that these students often felt frustrated and discouraged with their English courses and their college education, in general, and even with themselves as individuals. What has troubled me the most over the years is the fact that while there is a growing interest in incorporating more "diversity" in the curriculum and in the social life of educational institutions, there is little discussion regarding issues of language discrimination among plurilingual and pluricultural students. So, I ask: what purpose does it serve to include "multicultural" texts and "diversity" or anti-oppression issues in our English courses when at the end of the term we fail these very students because they do not know how to speak and write English "properly?"

Shortly after I was hired as an English teacher, I took part in placement testing that serves to stream students into first-year English courses according to how they are assessed on the test. During one marking session, I overheard a conversation between two English teachers commiserating about how plurilingual students did not know how to write a thesis for the five-paragraph essay, which is the main form of assessment for the placement test as well as for English courses in English colleges. I looked down at the essay that I was reading, and I realized that the perceived difficulty that students had writing a thesis was because of their different educational experiences with writing; most students complete their primary and secondary education in French, so they learn different writing genres than those privileged in English courses in English colleges. The students had replicated one French essay genre by adapting their prior genre knowledge from the French system to an English genre in the English system. Unfortunately, while this happened 20 years ago, this reality of overlooking and/or devaluing students' plurilingual and pluricultural competencies is still prevalent.

My experience with placement testing was the first in a series of experiences where my perspective differed from dominant discourses about language, writing, and assessment practices. Feminist scholar, Carol Hanisch (2006) states that personal experiences are inseparable from personal politics and that private problems need to be analyzed as political issues. I cannot separate myself from the discourses about plurilingual students that I want to examine or separate myself from the institutional discourses and structures that I research. I am part of both, and both are a part of me. How I approach my research, just as how I teach and how I perceive my students, is influenced by my personal perspective, which stems from my own cultural and linguistic background and educational experiences. Essentially, this PhD research is for my students, past and present, and for future generations of plurilingual and pluricultural students to

be recognized as diverse and not deficient. It is dedicated to finding ways for them to speak and write in English, French, or any other language. It is for them to move beyond the margins, to disrupt the linguistic ties that bind them to the myth of monolingualism.

Searching for answers and solutions to my questions and concerns about plurilingual students eventually led me to pursue my doctoral studies and to embark on the research study reported in this dissertation.

## 1.7.    Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation has seven chapters.

Chapter one has introduced the research problem, context, and reasons to support plurilingual students in higher education. It also included the historical and continuing colonial legacy of policies, the research questions, the contributions as well as my positionality to explain my motivations to conduct this PhD research study.

Chapter two examines the historical context of languages and culture in Canada and in Quebec. It then focuses on higher education by presenting the history of policy texts in 3 parts: (1) history of Quebec education policy and of language education in Quebec; (2) scholarly critiques of monolingualism and monolingual standards for language education, (3) plurilingualism and plurilingual pedagogies for plurilingual students.

Chapter three describes the theoretical framework on plurilingualism. The theoretical framework provides a foundation to examine policies that govern language education for English courses in English-medium colleges in Quebec and possible outcomes for plurilingual students.

Chapter four details the research design. First, the use of critical discourse analysis serves to analyze Quebec *Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policies that regulate language, writing, and assessment. Second, critical narrative inquiry examines teacher narratives of college *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policy texts for English courses in English-medium colleges. Critical narrative inquiry provides the means to explore how teachers align themselves or resist mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policies.

Chapter five presents the findings and the discussion for the three research questions. For RQ1, I rely on critical discourse analysis of how ministerial policy texts are represented in college English Department policy texts. The findings show that plurilingual and pluricultural

students are often categorized as deficient as well as attributed with negative value assumptions. For RQ2, I rely on critical narrative inquiry to analyze 12 college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices. The findings show how policy promulgates monolingual criteria for English courses that facilitate the production of deficit discourses to describe plurilingual students. For RQ3, I analyze the extent to which college English teachers align themselves or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and English Department policies. The findings show that teachers are unofficially overlooking monolingual criteria and integrating plurilingual practices.

Chapter six discusses the main implications, recommendations, and considers the limitations. The implications for current language and writing instruction and plurilingual practices are discussed as well as considerations for a shift from monolingual to plurilingual paradigms in higher education.

Chapter seven summarizes the PhD research and presents recommendations for policy reforms and for much needed pedagogical and professional development.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review and Rationale**

This chapter examines the historical and social context of language education in Canada and Quebec, and it is divided into three parts: (1) history of language and language education policies in Quebec; (2) scholarly critiques of monolingual standards for language education; (3) and the importance of plurilingualism in people's repertoires.

## 2.1.    Historical Context for Language Education Policy in Quebec and Canada

To situate the research I conducted, I first present a historical overview of language policies in Quebec and how they have informed language education and pedagogical practices. Language, writing, and assessment practices in higher education have evolved from official language policies such as Canada's *Official Languages Act* (1969) or Quebec's *Charter of the French Language* (1977) to outline how monolingual discourses emerging from *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies position plurilingual students in English-medium colleges which is the research site for this PhD research. It also situates plurilingual students within a wider socio-historical perspective to examine how English-medium language education can utilize federal, provincial, and English Department policy as a resource to encourage cultural and linguistic diversity. The focus of this section is on how *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies are historically created, reproduced, transported and "taken up" in college English Department policies and the possible consequences for plurilingual students.

## 2.2.    Official and Non-Official Languages in Canada and Quebec

Historically, the conflict between the English and the French as the two colonial powers in Canada has created a framework for the development of different language policies in Canada and the province of Quebec with the focus being on the status of English and French federally and French provincially (Heller, 2011). Language policies in Canada and Quebec focus on promoting "common languages"—an English and French bilingual framework in Canada and a monolingual French framework in Quebec (Haque, 2012). In societies where multiple languages intersect and interact, language policies mandate the status of some languages over others (Ajsic and McGroarty, 2015; Kochenov & de Varennes, 2015), including in Canada and Quebec.

Language policies in Canada and Quebec reflect the historical and hierarchical relationship between English, French, Indigenous languages, and non-official or "immigrant" languages through the legislative imposition of English and French in Canada and French in Quebec (Haque, 2012; Heller, 2011; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). In Canada, the federal *Official Languages Act* (1969) legislates English and French as the official or Charter languages. In Quebec, the *Charter of the French Language* (1977) establishes French as the official language in the public sector, including in the education sector. Quebec has a language-based education system with two distinct and parallel educational environments: English and French. These two systems were not originally set up to accommodate plurilingual students' diverse linguistic repertoires; they reflect the linguistic separation between the two founding colonial powers: the English and French (Chiras & Galante, 2021). Notably, the focus on the *Quebec Charter of the French Language* (1977) is on the promotion and protection of French as the official language in Quebec (*Office québécois de la langue française*, 2017); this ensures that non-francophone students learn French and are enculturated and assimilated to Francophone culture and Quebec society by increasing the number of non-francophones attending French school.

As of 2015, 90.4% of students in Quebec attended a French primary and/or secondary school; as well, the percentage of plurilingual students who attended French school rose from only 14.6% in 1971 to 89.4% (*Office québécois de la langue française*, 2017) because of the 1977 inception of the French mandated policies. In Montreal, in 2015, the proportion of plurilingual students who attended school in French was 80% and over 62% of students in the city did not have French as a first language (*Office québécois de la langue française*, 2017). To add to this linguistic complexity, since college provides the first point of access for English language education for most students, most classrooms in English colleges are *de facto* bilingual or plurilingual spaces (Chiras & Galante, 2021). These colleges are referred to as CEGEP, a French acronym for *Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel*. Quebec is the only province with both French and English CEGEP (college) systems that offer a *Diplôme d'études collégiales* (college diploma), which is required for admission to a university in Quebec. The changing linguistic demographics in Canada and Quebec points to an urgent need to examine how language policies have shaped educational practices and the categorization of plurilingual students in social and educational environments, especially in the province of Quebec.

In Quebec, various language policies prioritize the learning of French and the promotion of Francophone culture, which can limit the space for other languages and cultures to survive. Furthermore, the legislative status of official and non-official languages influence how discourses about learners' literacy practices are replicated and reproduced in academic settings. The official and non-official status of languages also plays a role in how the increasing number of plurilingual and plurilingual students are categorized in French schools in Quebec as well as in English-medium higher education settings, including in English-medium colleges in Quebec.

**2.3.    Categorization of Plurilingual Students in Quebec and English-Medium Colleges**

Quebec's social, linguistic, and educational context has caused a unique vocabulary to emerge to categorize citizens according to terms such as *majority* to describe descendants of France or Great Britain and terms such as *minority*, *visible minorities*, *immigrants*, or *linguistic minorities* to describe immigrant or Indigenous students. Such terms often imply an unequal social and political status as is the case for the prevailing term used in Quebec: *Allophone*.

The term *Allophone* was first used in 1968, when the Quebec government appointed the *Commission of Inquiry on the Situation of the French Language and Linguistic Rights in Quebec*, otherwise known as the *Gendron Commission* (*Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, Book Four*, 1970). The main goal of the Commission was to examine the state of the French language and linguistic rights in Quebec. The Commission's report recommended that the Quebec government make French the common language of all Quebecers and serve as the official language of public communication in contact situations between French-speaking and non-French-speaking Quebecers (*Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, Book Four*, 1970). The Commission advocated that French be the only official language, thereby solidifying monolingual language practices in Quebec society, including in the education sector. The Commission also defined the linguistic terms *Anglophone*, *Francophone,* and *Allophone*: *Anglophone* describes people whose heritage language is English; *Francophone* describes people whose heritage language is French, and *Allophone* defines citizens whose heritage language is neither English nor French (*Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, Book Four,* 1970). Therefore, the term *Allophone* has a legislated definition to refer to immigrants who belong to neither of the two settler nations who set up the confederation: England and France.

The term *Allophone* is still used in Quebec colloquially, included in policies, and it is sometimes applied to second and/or third generation immigrants (Chiras & Galante, 2021; Eid et al., 2011); nevertheless, many first-generation immigrants or residents self-identify as plurilingual. For instance, data collected from a study by Galante and dela Cruz (2021) conducted in Montreal found that over 90% out of 250 participants self-identify as plurilingual and pluricultural based on factors such as their diverse linguistic and cultural repertoires and their lived experiences. The results from their study contribute to an understanding of the intersection between linguistic and cultural identity, underscoring the need to recognize non-official languages for plurilinguals or *Allophones* as they are labelled in Canada and Quebec. The term *Allophone* can be problematic since it fails to incorporate the linguistic diversity that comprises the identities of most plurilingual immigrants, residents, or citizens (dela Cruz, 2022). In fact, since 2011, Statistics Canada no longer uses the terms Anglophone, Francophone, or *Allophone* (Statistics Canada, 2012). Instead, Statistics Canada now uses (1) the language(s) people speak at home, (2) people's knowledge of French and English, and (3) the First Official Language Spoken (FOLS) (Statistics Canada, 2022). *Allophone* is still commonly used in social and educational contexts to categorize plurilingual immigrants, residents, or citizens; however, the term no longer reflects the linguistic reality for most plurilinguals in Quebec and Canada.

Currently, Canadian federal bilingualism and Quebec provincial monolingualism privilege language education policies that exclude linguistic pluralism and have resulted in a series of definitions and terms to describe plurilingual speakers. These include examples such as the following: ESL, (English as Second Language—a term used in Canada and Quebec), EFL (English as a Foreign Language), FSL (French as a Second Language—a term used in Canada and Quebec), NEBS (Non-English Background Students), NNES (Non-Native English Speakers), and L1 and L2 (Language 1 and Language 2 are terms used in Canada and Quebec). The essentialization of these terms is that they are not broad enough to describe the reality or the complexity of current language and writing practices in educational contexts in Quebec, which have been documented in research (e.g., Dagenais et al., 2017; dela Cruz, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Lamarre, 2013; 2015; Lau et al., 2020). Since scholarship on language is a developing and changing field, there are always new groups of speakers being identified by scholars who want to classify and study an expanding demographic of students whose literacy practices exceed current classifications. In school settings, plurilingual students are routinely

categorized according to linguistic terms that do not represent the entire range of their linguistic and cultural repertoires (Eid et al., 2011; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Groff et al., 2016). Such practices can promote labelling students as second language learners as well as perpetuate linguistic inequalities in academic settings (Rosa & Flores, 2017a). Discrimination can occur in assessing plurilingual speakers, who are often victims of stereotypes regarding lower academic expectations and achievements (Eid et al., 2011). For instance, plurilingual students are more likely to be labelled as "remedial," "at risk," or "special needs" and delegated to remedial or non-credit preparatory English courses (Chiras & Galante, 2021), which has a negative impact on their educational path, academic success, and graduation rates (Eid et al., 2011). As a result, plurilinguals can be subjected to deficit academic assumptions and remedial institutional practices in English-medium higher education.

For plurilingual speakers who wish to gain access to English-medium higher education in Quebec, Canada, or other countries, monolingual practices perpetuate a contradictory situation of allowing students entrance to higher education and, concurrently, categorizing them as deficient (Hurwitz & Kambel, 2020; Makmillen & Norman, 2019). While classifying students may appear to support and promote inclusion, in practice, it only serves to locate or to point out perceived differences (Charity-Hudley et al., 2020) and attributes blame to students for their linguistic discrepancies (García & Otheguy, 2017; Johnson & Zentella, 2017). As such, linguistic standards can establish a paradoxical relationship between institutional discourses on inclusion and deficit discourses on language proficiency for plurilinguals.

It is the overlooking or disregarding of the situated nature of language and writing as possessing common and universal standards that enable the perception of plurilingual students who do not fit these implicit and accepted norms to be assessed and categorized as remedial speakers and writers (García et al., 2021; Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). Habitually, learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires, educational experiences, and diverse learning styles are undervalued, compartmentalized, or separated from the target language (Payant & Galante, 2022; Preece & Marshall, 2020). Consequently, there is a growing shift away from marginalizing learners' linguistic systems and semiotic resources toward pedagogical approaches that reflect the complexity and diversity of plurilingual speakers and writers. Nonetheless, when trying to protect and promote regional minority languages, some scholarship also points to the importance of considering the specific educational setting (Cenoz & Gorter,

2017; Leonet et al., 2017). In some situations, language separation can serve as a means to preserve and revive minority languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). For example, to increase the use of minority languages such as the Basque language in Spain, choosing to teach in the minority language can be preferable to translanguaging and plurilingual practices that may facilitate learners' privileging Spanish, the majority dominant language (Leonet et al., 2017). Similarly, the official status of English and French bilingualism in Canada and the official status of French monolingualism in Quebec pose an ongoing threat to the survival and to the revival of Indigenous languages and language education initiatives. Therefore, Indigenous scholars support immersion programs or "language nests" (e.g., McIvor, 2020; McIvor & Parker, 2016) as being more beneficial to teach and support language learning in Indigenous educational settings (McIvor, 2006). Such methods encourage language revitalization for Indigenous learners, so it is important to consider the goal of language education in specific classroom contexts and the possible outcomes of implementing certain pedagogical practices.

In the particular context of my PhD study, English-medium colleges in Montreal, Quebec, monolingual approaches can serve to rank and manage students in higher education: who gets in and who does not, and who succeeds and who fails (Johnson et al., 2017; Rosa, 2016). Systemic monolingual ideologies can contribute to institutional practices that marginalize linguistically and culturally diverse learners, leading to educational inequities that limit their learning opportunities (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). To understand how monolingual ideologies are embedded in policies and practices, I move on to provide a historical overview of the role that multicultural and intercultural policies and reports have played in creating and perpetuating perceptions about monolingualism.

## 2.4. Historical Overview of Canadian Multiculturalism and Quebec Interculturalism

The analysis of Quebec's and Canada's history leads to current language policies, which conflicts with the current plurilingual and pluricultural reality (Chiras & Galante, 2021). In 1988, to respond to the growing cultural and linguistic diversity of the immigrant population, the federal government introduced the *Canadian Multiculturalism Act* (1988). The goal was to promote the concept of diversity as a new social reality in Canada; the *Multiculturalism Act* mandated the preservation of languages other than English and French, while reaffirming the two official languages in the country: English and French (1988). Whereas at the national level the

*Multiculturalism Act* informed provincial policies to acknowledge diversity, Quebec is the only province that somewhat rejected this policy. Instead, the province adopted the concept of interculturalism as its official approach to diversity, specifically to unify diverse cultural communities, while ensuring that French language and culture continue to be protected.

Interculturalism in Quebec seeks to differentiate itself from Canada's policy of multiculturalism that does not officially acknowledge the distinct status of the Francophone majority in Quebec. While Canada's multicultural model supports the existence of cultural differences with no "official culture," Quebec's intercultural model rejects linguistic diversity and mandates French as the only official language (Haque, 2012; Heller, 2011). Quebec interculturalism prioritizes speaking French and adopting Francophone values as the best way to preserve Quebec's sense of national unity. Subsequently, the Quebec government has enacted a series of policies that protect the French language and Francophone culture.

Figure 1 outlines a timeline of key policy texts, action plans, and reports on cultural diversity, language, language education, and intercultural education in Quebec.

Figure 1

*Action Plans and Reports: Ethno-Cultural Diversity and Interculturalism*

**1977:** *Quebec Charter of the French Language*

Introduces French as a common language in Quebec and legislation for French language education

**1978:** *La Politique québécoise du développement culturel*

Details the development of a "common culture" for Quebec and Quebecers

**1981:** *Autant de façons d'être Québécois - Quebecers, Each and Everyone*

Promotes intercultural interactions betwen Francophones and "cultural minorities"

**1990:** *Au Québec, pour bâtir ensemble - Let's Build Quebec Together*
Promotes the integration and the rights of immigrants and "cultural minorities"

**1998:** *Policy Statement on Educational Integration and Intercultural Education*
Promotes intercultural education, shared values, a sense of belonging in Quebec society

**2008:** *Bouchard-Taylor Commission - Building the Future, A Time for Reconciliation*
Describes concepts of interculturalism, pluralism, secularism and defines "reasonable accomodations"

**2005:** *La diversité: une valeur ajoutée - Diversity: An Added Value*
Describes the value of interculturalism in Quebec as well as focuses on anti-racist initiatives

**2015:** *Ensemble, nous sommes le Québec - Together, We are Quebec*

Affirms interculturalism as a pluralist model to create a framework for "living together" in Quebec

**2018:** *Plus* ça *change, plus c'est pareil: Revisiting the 1992 Task Force Report on English Language Education in Quebec*

Defines the mission of English education in Quebec and proposes future recommendations

*La Politique québécoise du développement culturel* (Gouvernement du Québec (1978) defines Quebec's response to assimilate new immigrants and ethno-cultural communities. The policy promotes intercultural exchanges between the Francophone majority and immigrant minority communities as well as focuses on respecting the diversity of cultural communities to reinforce a "common culture" in Quebec, primarily through the legislation of French as the only language of communication in the public sphere. Intercultural interactions and exchanges in French support the integration of immigrant and cultural communities.

*Autant de façons d'être Québécois* (Québec. Ministère des communautés culturelles et de l'Immigration, 1981) promotes interculturalism to establish social cohesion. The action plan seeks to facilitate the integration to Quebec society through the promotion of French. The plan also recognizes the contributions of immigrant and cultural communities and acknowledges the importance of these contributions to Quebec's social, cultural, and political heritage. Contrary to Canadian multiculturalism, the Quebec intercultural model focuses on a "cultural convergence" and mutual respect between Francophone and other ethno-cultural communities as the primary means of integrating immigrant communities to the province, while reinforcing Quebec as a French-language province with a "common" Francophone culture.

*Au Québec pour bâtir ensemble* or Let's Build Quebec Together (MCCI: Québec. Ministère des Communautés culturelles et de l'Immigration du Québec, 1990) outlines the concept of pluralism in Quebec. The government reinforces its commitment to promoting a "common culture," by supporting democratic values such as gender equality and secularism as well as French as the official language in public life.

In 1998, the *Quebec Ministry of Education* adopted the first official intercultural education policy, entitled *Une école d'avenir: Politique d'intégration scolaire et d'éducation interculturelle (A school for the future: School integration and intercultural education policy)* to provide educational institutions with intercultural guidelines to promote Quebec's history, heritage, values, and customs. The goal is to prepare students to participate in a democratic and French society and outlines three main aims: (1) that schools fulfil the academic needs of all students; (2) that French must be mastered as the common public language; (3) that democratic citizenship is promoted in a pluralistic context.

The Bouchard-Taylor Report, *Building the Future, A Time for Reconciliation* (2008) outlines a vision for the intercultural model in Quebec. Bouchard & Taylor (2008) encourage all

citizens to view themselves as contributing members of a dominant community, while maintaining their distinct cultural affiliations and identities. As a philosophical concept and social practice, interculturalism entails developing a common identity in Quebec while maintaining French as the official language in the public sphere, including in the education sphere. The report also recommends that schools adhere to an intercultural model to integrate cultural and linguistic communities to create a democratic society with shared values.

In 2005, the Quebec government adopted the policy, *La diversité: une valeur ajoutée* (*Diversity: An Added Value*). The core principle of previous intercultural policies remains constant in terms of accentuating French as the common language and emphasizing the responsibility of immigrants and their descendants to integrate to the "common culture" of Quebec society. The policy defines a series of guiding principles to combat racism and discrimination in Quebec, including in the education sector. Additionally, it acknowledges the contributions of other cultural communities by supporting a pluralistic vision of Quebec society.

*Together we are Québec* (2015) also focuses on Quebec's pluralistic social identity. The policy affirms its commitment to Quebec's democratic values and its continued commitment to combating racism and discrimination through fostering intercultural exchanges to achieve an inclusive Francophone society. French is reinforced as the official language and as the primary means of integrating into Quebec society. The contributions of Indigenous, Anglophone, and other cultural communities are also recognized as enriching the pluralistic vision of Quebec, including in educational environments.

The report on English-language education in Quebec published in 2018 and entitled, *Plus ça change, plus c'est pareil*: *Revisiting the 1992 Task Force Report on English Language Education in Quebec* refers to the increasingly diverse student population in English-language schools. The report proposes the necessity to "support local initiatives to customize the curriculum to meet local needs" (p. 44) and to permit "flexibility for schools to develop programs to meet local needs" (p. 45), since the future success of Quebec depends on the academic and professional success of its youth. A key recommendation is to ensure that English students integrate into Quebec society with the requisite language skills in French and English and to develop pedagogical material "to teach the language as well as to teach in the language" (p. 55). The report also supports the need for more funding for research on pedagogical and professional development to ensure that students successfully graduate from the English school

system to be able to "contribute fully to all aspects of the life of the province" (p. 53). The report recognizes that the English education system has an important role to play in pluricultural and plurilingual educational environments.

Even though the Quebec intercultural model emerged to reject Canada's *Multiculturalism Act* and to promote a different social model to preserve the French language and Francophone culture, it does not adequately address the ongoing legacy of Quebec's colonial history that creates systemic institutional inequalities.

### 2.4.1. Limitations of Quebec Intercultural Policy Texts and Inequalities in Education

While it has been over four decades since the implementation of the *Charter of the French Language* (1977), English-language schools have not adequately addressed the language and writing practices of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Most plurilinguals in Montreal are comfortable switching between English or French and/or other languages in social, cultural, and educational contexts (e.g., dela Cruz, 2022; Lamarre, 2013; 2014; 2015; Low & Sarkar, 2014). For instance, studies in Canada and Quebec have concentrated on how plurilinguals negotiate their linguistic and cultural identities in school, at home, in social settings, or cultural communities (e.g., Dagenais, 2013; Dagenais et al., 2017; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Groff et al., 2016; Lau et al., 2020). These studies confirm that plurilinguals rely upon—and if they have agency, use—the range of their linguistic and cultural repertoires. It is therefore necessary for English-medium language education environments to build upon learners' communicative practices and to find ways to include their linguistic and cultural competencies.

In reviewing the intercultural policies and reports, several issues emerge. First, although linguistic and cultural diversity is seen as an added value, nothing related to non-official languages can be found in English language policy and curriculum guidelines. Second, policies on interculturalism have been compiled and implemented primarily by the majority Francophone community and, as such, concepts of interculturalism mostly focus on Francophone cultural and linguistic perspectives. Any policy that is created by the majority culture cannot really claim to create a common Quebec identity without the equal participation and collaboration of other cultural and linguistic communities in the province. Since Quebec language policies prioritize the learning of French and the promotion of Francophone culture, this can limit the space for other cultural communities and languages to survive. Third, the intercultural model does not

effectively examine the complex socio-historical relationships that have emerged from Quebec's enduring colonial history, including the history of English-medium education in Quebec. Fourth, Quebec's intercultural model does not sufficiently explore issues related to historically under-represented linguistic and cultural communities. In general, intercultural policies do not adequately address the complexity of cultural and linguistic diversity as well as the fact that languages vary, adapt, and transform over time, and in different social and educational settings. Therefore, it is important to examine the socio-historical context of intercultural policies to consider the factors that contribute to systemic biases, inequities, and discriminatory practices for plurilinguals in the education system and in Quebec society. Moving forward, future intercultural policies must include the participation and contribution of historically underrepresented communities, including plurilinguals in English-medium education settings.

## 2.5.    Plurilingualism: Social, Historical, and Ideological Perspectives

My PhD research is about plurilingual students' repertoire not being included in higher education policies and teachers' efforts to comply and/or to disrupt institutional monolingualism in English-medium higher education. It is also about monolingual ideologies in policies and pedagogical practices that have been explored in other multi/pluri perspectives such as raciolinguistic concepts (e.g., Alim, 2016; Alim et al., 2016; Flores & Rosa, 2015; García et al., 2021; Mena & García, 2020; Rosa, 2020). As a field, raciolinguistics studies how language and race intersect. Specifically, it examines the links between race, racism, and language, and how these interactions influence and impact racialized groups and/or individuals (Alim, 2016). Linguistic ideologies encompass ideas about the nature of language: about what language does and what it is used for, and how these ideological representations promote, privilege, and protect the hierarchical structures of specific social, linguistic, and cultural groups (Alim et al., 2016; Flores, 2020; Flores & McAuliffe, 2022). Thus, ideologies about language converge and, at times, conflate with ideologies about equity and inclusion, including how representations about different linguistic and cultural groups shape perception about language and language users (García et al., 2021; Mena & García, 2020). Since notions about language and culture are not separate entities, they interrelate and co-exist in specific socio-cultural and educational contexts (Alim, 2016; Rosa, 2019). For instance, in Canada and Quebec, legislated bilingualism and monolingualism often conflicts with standard varieties of language and writing that are

legitimized by academic institutions (Chiras & Galante, 2021; Shin & Sterzuk, 2021), which can create barriers and preclude plurilingual perspectives.

Scholarship on plurilingualism supports practices that allow learners to integrate all the components that make up their linguistic and cultural repertoires (Galante et al., 2022), thereby challenging monolingualism (Van Viegen et al., 2019). Accordingly, plurilingualism focuses on linguistic diversity to dismantle linguistic hierarchical structures that regulate and promulgate monolingual and monocultural methods (Otheguy et al., 2019; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). Flores and Rosa (2015) unpack and critique standard or "appropriateness-based" attitudes about linguistic and cultural diversity in classroom contexts through which learners are judged. For instance, what is considered "appropriate" is often interpreted as universal and unquestioned (Rosa & Flores, 2015), so it escapes critical reflection. Speakers of the standard variety of language are generally believed to be monolingual, perpetuating the belief that a "perfect" speaker is monolingual (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Rosa, 2016). Students who are deemed not to produce "appropriate" literacy standards are often labelled and classified as deficient compared to monolingual English learners (Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). When plurilingual students' repertoires are assessed as deviating from a perceived standard, the evaluation is not purely linguistic; it is viewed as a divergence from a norm that is based on idealized perceptions of monolingual "standard-speaking" subjects (García et al., 2021; Mena & García et al., 2020). The outcome of such attitudes is to relegate plurilingual learners to remedial practices (Flores, 2020; García & Otheguy, 2018). Attitudes about language proficiency often focus on what students lack instead of the competencies that they have already acquired. Misinterpreting and misunderstanding how plurilingual students' use of language—how they speak and how they write—contributes to assessing them as having linguistic deficiencies (García, 2019; Mena & García, 2020). Contrarily, teachers can support students by focusing on the competencies that students already possess and what they can do as opposed to the competencies that they do not possess and on what they cannot do (Van Viegen & Lau, 2020). The deficit discourses attributed to plurilingual learners' literacy practices often emerge from the colonial history of English-medium higher education in North America.

In the previous century, in North American colonies, the changing student population entering higher education incited new concerns about how to regulate language proficiency for culturally and linguistically diverse students (Alvarez et al., 2017; Poe & Elliot, 2019).

Historically, in North American universities and colleges, students categorized as remedial were placed in specialized first-year requirement courses (DeLong et al., 2019). First-year composition courses were devised for students assessed as unprepared for higher education to fulfill "an entire social agenda designed to convince an institution of its control over the language of citizens while persuading those individuals of their flaws" (Miller, 1991, p. 58). The practice of categorizing students also reinforced the social exclusion of those who were deemed not to adhere to the criteria valued by academic institutions (Inoue, 2017; 2019) as well as to those who were "designated as unable fully to assimilate to cultural ideals" (Miller, 1991, p. 85). When literacy standards are used to evaluate and label students as "at-risk" or "remedial," these practices can serve as a gatekeeping function to marginalize and exclude students who do not conform to those standards (Bethany, 2017; McCoy, 2020) as well as ascribe them with negative personal characteristics (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Mena & García, 2020; Rosa & Flores, 2017b). As a result, language policies and practices can influence how plurilingual students are assessed and classified in English-medium higher education. In contrast, plurilingualism recognizes that students' cultural and linguistic knowledge is a valuable resource and an indispensable component in language learning (Piccardo, 2013). Adopting a plurilingual approach provides a way to address linguistic hierarchies and inequities by acknowledging the diversity, complexity, and variety of plurilinguals' linguistic repertoires.

## 2.6.    Monolingual and Plurilingual Pedagogical Perspectives

Research on plurilingual pedagogies has identified several practices that teachers can implement to facilitate students' plurilingual and pluricultural competences (PPC) (e.g., CoE, 2020 Galante, 2019; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Piccardo, 2019). Some plurilingual pedagogies that relate to my PhD research include: (1) *translanguaging* (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; 2021; Otheguy et al., 2015), where students mix and merge their linguistic resources to make communication more effective and relevant (Galante et al., 2022); (2) *translation for mediation* (CoE, 2020; Galante, 2021; Muñoz-Basols, 2019), where students are encouraged to translate between their self-identified first language and the target language of the academic institution, e.g., English, in English-medium colleges; (3) *crosslinguistic comparison* (Auger, 2005; 2008; Ballinger et al., 2020; Lau et al., 2020), where students compare the languages and linguistic features in their repertoires to the new target language, to actively engage them in the learning

process (Galante et al., 2022); (4) *cross-cultural comparisons* (Auger, 2008; Galante et al., 2022) to help students connect language(s) to culture(s) and to compare different cultural views and values; and, (5) *multi-literacies* (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; 2015; Gee, 1996; 2004; 2013; Kress, 2000; 2003; 2010) that incorporate the use of discursive spaces, e.g., digital platforms to transcend monolingual practices.

Moving away from monolingual methods toward plurilingual approaches entails encompassing learners' prior knowledge, lived experiences, and educational backgrounds (dela Cruz, 2020; Galante, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021), reflecting the fact "that students' identities or identifications are neither fixed nor static, [and that] plurilingual pedagogies accommodate dynamic, fluid understandings of not only language use but also language learners" (Van Viegen & Lau, 2020, p. 237). Implementing plurilingual pedagogies in curricula and program-specific tasks and lesson plans (Galante et al., 2020; Payant & Galante, 2022) can serve to explore teachers' perceptions and experiences with institutional monolingual ideologies in policies and pedagogical practices. Conversely, plurilingual pedagogies enable teachers to become more cognizant of inequities, and to develop a critical perspective and a metalinguistic awareness (Lau et al., 2020). Nevertheless, plurilingual pedagogies present challenges for teachers who have difficulty overcoming or resisting monolingual practices (Galante, 2020). Therefore, implementing plurilingual perspectives necessitates a change in teachers' beliefs towards language learning and teaching practices.

Table 1 provides a summary of the contrast between monolingual and plurilingual perspectives in language and writing explored in this chapter.

Table 1

*Contrast: Monolingual and Plurilingual Perspectives in Language and Writing*

| **Monolingual and Monocultural Perspectives** | **Plurilingual and Pluricultural Perspectives** |
| --- | --- |
| Focus on monolingual language and writing | Focus on plurilingual language and writing |
| Monolingual/monocultural literary traditions | Plurilingual/pluricultural literary traditions |
| Genres (e.g., essay) as discipline-specific | Genres as fluid, negotiable, multiple |
| Multiple languages as deficit and deficient | Multiple languages as adequate and sufficient |

## 2.7.    Chapter Summary

This chapter traced the historical context for language education policy in Quebec and Canada, provided a historical overview of Canadian multiculturalism, and Quebec interculturalism, and referred to the categorization of plurilingual students in English-medium colleges. As well, this chapter examined how plurilingualism questions the enactment of policies that induct students to monolingual standards in academe and can limit teachers' abilities to implement plurilingual pedagogies. As a result, there is a need to redress current language, writing, and assessment practices as well as institutional policies to facilitate the inclusion of students' linguistic and cultural competencies, namely through the implementation of plurilingual theory. Plurilingualism has been proven to be effective in supporting language learning by focusing on the intersection between language, culture, and identity to counteract and to address linguistic inequities in English-medium higher education for plurilingual learners (Alim et al., 2016; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Rosa & Flores, 2017a).

The next chapter defines plurilingualism as my theoretical framework to describe how it supports the problem statement and the research questions.

# Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

## 3.1.    Theoretical Framework: Defining Plurilingualism for my Dissertation

The goal of this chapter is to discuss my choice to use plurilingualism as the theoretical framework for my PhD study. I begin with a brief overview of theories that reject monolingualism and justify my choice for plurilingualism. Next, I describe plurilingualism as a theory, and in pedagogy and policy. Finally, I include empirical research on plurilingualism.

## 3.2.    Multi/Plurilingual Turn: Shift from Monolingual to Plurilingual Education

In recent decades, the multi/plurilingual turn advocates a move from monolingual to multi/plurilingual approaches by concentrating on plurilingual learners as possessing flexible, hybrid and dynamic linguistic repertoires (e.g., Cummins, 2007; García & Otheguy, 2019; Kubota, 2016; Ortega, 2014; Pennycook, 2010). Plurilingual learners engage in multiple social, cultural, and linguistic spaces that transcend current language education and writing genres privileged in English-medium education. The multi/plurilingual turn involves an inclusive and integrative view of language: language varieties, dialects, cultures, semiotic resources, multi-literacies, and educational experiences (Busch, 2017; Pennycook, 2017; Rymes, 2014).

The multi/plurilingual turn in education seeks to shift away from the separation of languages toward the integration of languages (CoE, 2020; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Piccardo et al., 2021). For instance, the Council of Europe (2001; 2020) recognizes the fluid nature of language use and the ability to switch from one language to another, or from one dialect, or variety of languages to another to communicate (CoE, 2001; 2020). Plurilingualism emerges from notions such as heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981), which is opposed to monoglossia and the dominance of one language. It also refers to the co-existence of diverse varieties and variations within a language, thereby questioning and contesting monolingual assumptions; translanguaging (García, 2009; García & Otheguy, 2017), an equally dynamic and flexible process of language use also does not separate how learners use multiple languages concurrently and simultaneously; metrolingualism (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010) refers to "metro" or urban exchanges with plurilinguals from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds and focuses on how they negotiate their identities in different social contexts and interactions; code-meshing in academic writing (Canagarajah, 2013) examines diverse classroom communicative practices and

exchanges; lingua franca translanguaging (Kalan, 2022) includes translingual practices that engage and empower students in English and additional languages. All of these terms describe the ongoing and growing development of theoretical concepts that reflect the complexity and diversity of language use. Additionally, scholars and theorists have focused on distinguishing between terms such as "code-switching" and "code-meshing" as well as terms such as translanguaging and plurilingualism. I will discuss each of the four terms separately.

Theorists who focus on "hybrid" language practices such as code-switching explain "that the languages involved in exchanges come from two different linguistic systems" (Green & Wei, 2014; Riehl, 2005) and require "competence in both languages, not partial competence … [because] the languages involved in the switch have to be distinct" (p. 26). The main concern is the belief that those who engage in code-switching do not possess adequate or proficient language competence, which is why code-switching has not always been viewed positively in L2 classroom contexts where the target language and the first language are clearly separated. MacSwan (2017) explains that bilinguals who mix two languages are not necessarily deficient in either language; instead, code-switching can occur for different communicative purposes in specific situations, compromising its own internal grammatical structure, semiotic resources, vocabulary, and speech patterns (MacSwan, 1999; 2017). In contrast, García (2009) explains that plurilinguals do not possess separate and distinct linguistic repertoires; instead, languages co-exist and interact and make up one unified repertoire. García is against the concept of "code-switching" and of named languages, since language competence is complete at each stage of the speaking and writing process (García & Otheguy, 2019). While code-switching is based on the separation of languages or the process of "switching" between two languages, code-meshing views languages as part of one single integrated system.

Canagarajah (2009) states that the languages involved in code-meshing belong to "one continuum that can be accessed at will for their purposes" (p. 26). In their communicative practices, plurilingual learners who share the same languages tend to code-mesh when speaking to each other, and they do not "depend on language as a pre-constructed system that comes ready-made with forms and meanings" (Canagarajah, 2009, p. 18). Concepts related to both code-switching and code-meshing challenge traditional approaches in language acquisition and language teaching by including learners' linguistic repertoires when acquiring a new target

language or constructing new language varieties. Correspondingly, translanguaging stresses a shift away from monolingual and conventional notions about language learning and teaching.

Translanguaging differs from code-switching because plurilinguals "construct complex discursive practices by using their complete repertoires, and these practices cannot be easily assigned to one language or another" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 314). As a pedagogical practice, translanguaging "engages students to use their entire linguistic repertoire flexibly and fluidly for meaning across languages" (Galante, 2020, p. 4), thereby differentiating itself from code-switching in that it does not overtly make distinctions between languages (García & Otheguy, 2019; Otheguy et al., 2015). Instead, translanguaging "sees difference in language not as a barrier to overcome or as a problem to manage, but as a resource for producing meaning in writing, speaking, reading, and listening" (Horner et al., 2011, p. 303). By not mandating a strict adherence to defined boundaries of language use, translanguaging facilitates the synchronicity of language resources and practices (Schissel et al., 2018; Vallejo & Dooly, 2020). Translanguaging can challenge monolingual policies that perpetuate asymmetrical power relationships (Canagarajah, 2013), since it "confronts, as well, the practice of invoking standards not to improve communication and assist language learners, but to exclude voices and perspectives at odds with those in power" (Horner & Lu, 2013, p. 305). Such an approach does not ask "whether its language is standard, but what the [speakers and] writers are doing with language and why" (Horner et al., 2011, p. 304-305), which is similar to plurilingualism.

Plurilingualism views language competences as constantly evolving and changing (Vallejo & Dooly, 2019). The similarity between plurilingualism and translanguaging entails the fact that both view linguistic repertoires as whole and integrated instead of as separate entities. Galante et al. (2020) describe translanguaging as a practice that "engages students to use their entire linguistic repertoire flexibly and fluidly for meaning making across languages" (p. 4). Yet, translanguaging and plurilingualism differ in that plurilingualism accepts the view of named languages and distinct language codes and features whereas translanguaging questions such concepts (Galante, 2018). Accordingly, plurilingualism encompasses and embraces both code-switching, code-meshing, and translanguaging (CoE, 2020; Piccardo, 2013), which is an important distinction for my PhD research study. In a recent study, Galante (2022) explored the effects of plurilingual instruction on students' plurilingual and pluricultural competence (PPC) in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program at a Canadian university. The study compared

data from seven teachers who taught two groups of students; one group used plurilingual instruction and the other group used monolingual instruction. The author analyzed teachers' and students' receptivity to plurilingual pedagogy and found that it was more efficient and effective than monolingual instruction because students could integrate their cultural and linguistic repertoires to learn a new target language. The findings reveal PPC as one construct, suggesting that language and culture are interrelated and inseparable. Adapting course curricula to reflect the communicative competencies of plurilingual learners benefits them academically, including in English-medium higher education in Canada.

Even though scholarship on plurilingualism has existed for several decades (e.g., Galante, 2019; Lau et al., 2020; Marshall & Moore, 2013), the progression from monolingual to plurilingual teaching and learning still has not been fully realized in Canada (Galante, 2018; Piccardo, 2013). Research indicates that there is a lack of teaching material to implement plurilingual pedagogies (Ellis, 2016; Galante, 2021; Piccardo, 2017), but there are recent efforts to create and to publish plurilingual pedagogical material for teachers (e.g., Galante et al., 2022). In the end, I chose plurilingualism because although there are several theoretical frameworks to choose from when it comes to rejecting monolingual policies in education, plurilingualism is the most suitable one because (1) it is a policy; (2) it is a theory; and (3) it is a pedagogy. Next, I will explain my choice for plurilingualism.

### 3.3.    Plurilingualism

The interest in plurilingualism as a theoretical framework has increased since the early 2000s, after the publication of the Council of Europe's publications of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* (2001; 2020), which proposed pedagogical approaches for language learning and teaching. However, the Council of Europe's publications (2001; 2020) are not restricted to a European context, and several non-European countries use them to inform language learning and teaching (Piccardo, 2014; 2019), and refer to them in research studies (e.g., Galante, 2020b; 2021a; 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Marshall, 2020). The Council of Europe defines linguistic and cultural competencies as part of one continuum with no fixed boundaries because learners do not keep "languages and cultures in separate mental compartments" (CoE, 2001, p. 4). Therefore, mandating that plurilinguals keep their languages separate perpetuates a false monolingual reality that does not reflect the fact that

plurilinguals use their knowledge of one language to learn and/or to understand another (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021). Piccardo (2013) explains that "a plurilinguistic vision, mixing, mingling, and meshing languages is no longer stigmatized, but recognised as a naturally occurring strategy in real-life communication" (p. 11). To further clarify the definition of a plurilingual and pluricultural person, Galante et al. (2020) state:

> A plurilingual person is someone who knows two or more languages but does not necessarily speak to them at the same proficiency level; for example, one language can be more fluent that the other. A plurilingual person is also someone who knows variations (dialects) in the same language, for example, the way a language is used in different regions of the country or in other countries. A pluricultural person is someone who knows about two or more cultures but not necessarily adopts them at the same level (p. 13).

Language learning should not be taught to "achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. The aim is to develop a linguistic repertoire in which all linguistic abilities have a place" (CoE, 2001, p. 5) because plurilinguals rely on their linguistic, semiotic, and cultural resources according to a specific situated setting and context (Piccardo, 2017; Piccardo & North, 2020). Plurilinguals are socially situated actors who make choices on their language use depending on the situation and context (CoE, 2001; Coste et al., 2009). The Council of Europe's publication of the *CEFR* (2001; 2020) focuses on action-oriented methods that view learners as social agents who are influenced by their social, cultural, and linguistic environments (CoeE, 2001; 2020; Piccardo & Galante, 2018). Action-oriented tasks entail incorporating the entirety of learners' personal, cultural, linguistic, and social knowledge (Piccardo & North, 2019). As well, action-oriented practices elicit learners' collaboration as co-constructors of knowledge, thereby challenging monolingual methods in language learning and teaching.

Contrary to monolingualism, plurilingualism views linguistic diversity as normative and supports merging learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires into the acquisition of a new or additional language, or in the construction of new language varieties and/or literacy practices (Piccardo et al., 2022). As a theoretical framework, plurilingualism serves to question the separation of languages and cultures in teaching and learning (e.g., Galante et al., 2022; Lau et

al., 2020). Integrating students' linguistic and cultural knowledge and experience facilitates the collaboration and co-construction of tasks and assignments and encourages learners to access their prior linguistic and cultural competencies to create creative and inclusive tasks (e.g., Galante et al., 2022). Van Viegen & Lau (2020) explain that "at the core of plurilingual pedagogies is the idea that teachers can draw on students' communicative resources as both a scaffold and a resource" (p. 331) to build on their communicative competencies without classifying languages into separate and distinct entities (Payant & Galante, 2022; Payant & Maatouk, 2022). Plurilingualism is an alternative to monolingualism, since it supports the inclusion of learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires while learning a new target language (Piccardo, 2017; Piccardo et al., 2022), which also applies to my research context.

A plurilingual theoretical framework provides a way to analyze my PhD research questions by focusing on three factors: (1) monolingualism, specifically, English as the language of instruction and as a tool for communication in English-medium colleges in Quebec; (2) teachers' agency being socially situated, for example, their perceptions about how English Department policies inform language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices; and (3) teachers' adherence and/or resistance to monolingualism as well as their adherence and/or resistance to plurilingualism and pluriculturality. Another reason that I chose plurilingualism as the theoretical framework is because it provides a structure from which to examine the "phenomena in contact situations, where people use two/three or more languages in interactions" (Marshall & Moore, 2018, p. 20). In my research context, plurilinguals interact across different linguistic and cultural communities, especially in the city of Montreal (dela Cruz, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021) where most English-medium colleges are located, and which is one of the most plurilingual and pluricultural cities in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2022). In linguistically and culturally diverse academic settings, plurilingual pedagogies encourage the use of languages that learners have developed throughout their lived personal and educational experiences (Dooly & Vallejo, 2019; Galante, 2021; 2022; Piccardo, 2013; 2017; Piccardo et al., 2022). Equally, implementing plurilingual approaches is challenging due to the predominance of mandated monolingual policies that limit teachers' agency in curricula planning and teaching.

## 3.4.   Monolingual Policy and Teacher Agency in English-Medium Education

Plurilingualism challenges prevailing monolingual ideologies in policies and pedagogies (Marshall & Moore, 2018; 2020). Moreover, the prevalence of monolingual policies can restrict teachers' agency, contribute to their reticence to implement plurilingual pedagogies (Galante et al., 2019; 2020), and exclude other languages while teaching a new language and/or the school's language of instruction (Krasny & Sachar, 2017; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). Thus, it is imperative to study the extent to which policies influence language teaching and assessment strategies. Although teachers purport to approve of plurilingual theory, in practice, they often dismiss or reject the application of plurilingual pedagogies in the classroom (Piccardo & Galante, 2018). The incongruence between perceived teacher acceptance of plurilingualism and the persistence of monolingualism can be linked to language policy and planning.

While most language policy and planning has concentrated on the macro or societal level, there is growing interest in research that focuses on the micro or institutional level as well as on teachers' agency to respond to policy (Ng & Boucher-Yip, 2016). Exploring teacher narratives can reveal their professional training, personal values, instructional beliefs, and how these interact with institutional interpretations of policy. Furthermore, monolingual policies can limit teachers' ability to make individual choices regarding how to plan curricula and implement pedagogies for language and writing (Blesta et al., 2014). As a result, there is a need to develop a better understanding of "the agency of the teacher in negotiating educational reforms and policy changes at the local and national levels" (Ng & Boucher-Yip, 2016, p.2). How policy constrains or supports teacher agency in classroom instruction has been documented in studies about policy and language education. It is important to identify and to understand the factors that can contribute to policy reforms and the creation and implementation of plurilingual pedagogies.

Studies by Blesta et al. (2014) and Schissel et al. (2019) indicate that teacher agency is important to implement institutional policies by focusing on how teachers act: the significance of what they do in the classroom and the possible consequences for students. For instance, Blesta et al. (2014) conducted a two-year ethnographic study of teacher agency in the Teacher Agency and Curriculum Change project at the University of Stirling, in Scotland. The authors recorded how policies inform teachers' beliefs and decisions regarding curriculum planning, teaching strategies, and assessment. Blesta et al. (2014) described how teachers' assumptions were

moderated by policy, revealing tensions between their personal views about their students' abilities and how policy shapes pedagogy and assessment. The findings indicate a disparity between teachers' perceptions and institutional discourses about how policies are interpreted and applied in classroom contexts. Additionally, Schissel et al. (2019) combined ethnographic and participatory action research methodologies to study evaluation strategies for pre-service English teachers in Mexico. The results support fostering more teacher-student collaboration and teacher input, in general, to inform the long-term goals of policy, pedagogy, and assessment.

### 3.5.    Plurilingual Pedagogical Practices

Plurilingual pedagogical practices create inclusive classrooms where speakers and writers feel that their languages and cultures are acknowledged and valued, thereby empowering students to be agents and participants in their own learning process (Payant & Galante, 2022). Such approaches also create a framework from which to contest current monolingual methods in language learning and teaching to support learners' linguistic and cultural competencies.  Several empirical research studies (e.g., Galante, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Kalan, 2022; Lau et al., 2020; Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020) have advocated that languages and cultures are interdependent and heterogeneous (CoE, 2020; Horner, 2017; Piccardo, 2019). Plurilingualism counteracts the belief that students need to conform to "fixed" or standard criteria by enabling them to access their linguistic and cultural identities when speaking or writing (Kubota & Bale, 2020). Moreover, plurilingual pedagogy proposes that students possess their own agency and use the entirety of their linguistic and cultural competencies when learning new languages and/or a new target language (Payant & Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2019).  It also encourages teachers to reimagine language classrooms as plurilingual spaces to support the active use of students' languages and cultures in language learning (Piccardo & North, 2020).

Table 2 summarizes the differences between monolingualism and plurilingualism defined in this chapter.

Table 2

*Differences: Monolingualism and Plurilingualism*

| Monolingualism | Plurilingualism |
|---|---|
| Monolingual and monocultural approaches do not view language and writing as multiple or include students' diverse linguistic and cultural repertoires | Plurilingual and pluricultural perspectives focus on language and writing genres as multiple and on students' diverse linguistic and cultural repertoires |
| Monolingual approaches view variations in language and writing as a deficit and deficient and advocate compartmentalizing language and writing choices | Plurilingual approaches view variations in students' language and writing as a strategic choice that students negotiate in specific classroom contexts |

## 3.6.    Empirical Studies on Plurilingualism

Coste et al. (2009) define plurilingual and pluricultural competence (PPC) as follows:

> [PPC is] the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part
> in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social actor, has proficiency, of
> varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen
> as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competencies, but rather as the existence
> of a complex or even composite competence on which the social actor may draw (p. 11).

PPC is integral in language learning and writing instruction and incorporates learners' linguistic
and cultural background and personal histories (Coste, 2001; Coste et al., 2009). Coste et al.
(2009) describe three main features of plurilingual and plurilingual competence:

> [PPC] proficiency may vary according to the language; the profile of language ability
> may be different from one language to another (e.g., excellent speaking ability in two
> languages, but good writing ability in only one of them, and partly mastered written
> comprehension and limited oral ability in a third one; the pluricultural profile may differ
> from the plurilingual profile (e.g., good knowledge of the culture of a community but a
> poor knowledge of its language, or poor knowledge of the culture of a community whose
> dominant language is nevertheless well mastered) (p. 11).

In recent years, several empirical studies have contested monolingualism by focusing on
plurilingualism: (1) integrating plurilingual pedagogical practices (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021;
Marshall, 2020); (2) engaging plurilingual students' repertoires (Galante, 2020a; Galante, 2022);

(3) examining the interactions between plurilingual identities and learning a new target language (Kalan, 2022; Lau et al., 2020); (4) providing inclusive and equitable approaches (Galante et al., 2022; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020); (5) assisting students' academic, social, and intercultural integration (Lau et al., 2020).

Galante (2020a) investigated the language use of 379 plurilingual speakers in two plurilingual cities in Canada: Toronto (*n=129*) and Montreal (*n=250*). The author examined the validity of the Plurilingual and Pluricultural Competence (PPC scale) to study whether the PPC scale confirmed the connection or separation between languages and cultures. Statistical analyses sought to confirm whether plurilingual and pluricultural competences were two different constructs. The results suggest that they are interrelated, thereby validating PPC as one construct, with a scale as a measurement to be used in research and in empirical studies cited in this PhD study: specifically, studies about teachers' perceptions about plurilingual pedagogies.

### 3.6.1. Teachers' Perceptions of Plurilingual Pedagogies

In English (L1), ESL as well as FSL classroom contexts, studies show that plurilingual perspectives can benefit language learners (Galante et al., 2020; Lau et al., 2020). Although there have been several appeals to integrate plurilingual pedagogical approaches in English-medium teaching, especially in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms, in practice, implementing plurilingual pedagogies presents challenges for teachers. As studies have found, many teachers still feel unprepared and uncertain about how to apply plurilingual methods in the classroom.

Galante et al. (2020) examined the divergence between plurilingual theory and the implementation of plurilingual practices in English-medium language instruction to study the disconnect between plurilingual theory and implementing it in practice. The authors explored teachers' perceptions about incorporating plurilingual instruction in one English language program at a Canadian university. There were seven teachers in the study who also served as co-researchers; the participants were divided into two groups: one group received plurilingual instruction, and the other group received English-only instruction. The results from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations found that plurilingual instruction had several beneficial outcomes such as increasing student engagement in language instruction, increasing students' agency, and developing a safe space for learning. Although the teachers in the study did not undergo professional training in plurilingualism, they conveyed a preference for

plurilingual pedagogical practices. Additionally, they reported that the main obstacle in applying plurilingual pedagogies related to the historical dominance of English-only teaching traditions. This study suggests that more research is needed to find ways to bridge the gap between plurilingual theory and pedagogical practices employed by teachers. Studying teachers who integrate inclusive pedagogical approaches was also the focus of a study by Lau et al. (2020) who used cross-linguistic pedagogies to develop metalinguistic instructional strategies.

Lau et al. (2020) conducted a collaborative research study with four teachers who taught French L1 and English Second Language (ESL) courses at French-speaking colleges; the courses were designed to support immigrant students to learn French and English. Using the plurilingual and plurilingual competence scale, the French and ESL teachers co-developed cross-linguistic strategies to create links between the two language programs and to assist students' language and writing. The participants collaborated on curriculum planning to focus on areas of convergence between the French L1 and English Second Language (ESL) language programs. Teachers from both language programs co-developed cross-linguistic teaching and learning methods to inspire a metalinguistic awareness of the learners' reading and writing practices. Results found that cross-linguistic approaches can facilitate students' critical engagement with language and writing. Students reported feeling a sense of belonging when they were able to combine their linguistic and cultural backgrounds and experiences, especially in educational environments in which minority languages are threatened and/or need to be protected (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). For example, to support the revitalization of Indigenous languages, scholars have encouraged non-Indigenous people to learn Indigenous languages as an additional language (McIvor, 2020). Applied Linguistics and Indigenous language revitalization often function separately. However, there are areas where these two academic fields overlap, share common interests, and create spaces of interaction and engagement to generate interdisciplinary research and pedagogical practices (e.g., Daniels & Sterzuk, 2022; Ermine, 2007). Studies by Lau et al. (2020) and Galante et al. (2020) contribute to how plurilingual and cross-linguistic pedagogical strategies can help learners use their linguistic and cultural repertoires to advance learning a new language or a heritage language (e.g., an Indigenous language). Contrarily, policies and pedagogies that impede students from relying on their repertoires can lead to deficit characterizations.

Other studies have concentrated on institutional policies that often define linguistic and cultural diversity as deficient or as a problem that needs to be solved. Marshall (2020) conducted

a one-year study at a Canadian university and collected interview data from five teachers to document how they responded to students' plurilingual repertoires and how they employed pedagogical practices across disciplines. Data was analyzed according to three main themes: studying English as an additional language, examining how students used languages, and exploring teaching approaches. Teachers reported widespread linguistic diversity, especially for students who often communicated in languages other than English. Concurrently, teachers often assessed students' plurilingualism as a deficit, which emphasized how separating learners' literacies can negatively affect their academic success. The results indicate a need to reform monolingual policies and to incorporate plurilingual pedagogies.

The findings from Marshall's study are comparable to research by Van Viegen and Zappa-Hollman (2020), who focused on helping faculty implement plurilingual strategies to create translanguaging spaces at two Canadian universities. They used translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy to motivate students' plurilingual practices and to encourage the integration of other languages to counteract monolingual methods that evaluate plurilinguals through a deficit lens. Data was collected from faculty to ascertain how they view, react, and think about incorporating plurilingual pedagogies by concentrating on teacher-student exchanges and interactions as a resource for curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment. The findings indicate that the dominance of monolingualism and the prevalence of language separation allow for the normalization of remedial and deficient discourses that are attributed to plurilingual learners.

The results from Marshall (2020) and Van Viegen and Zappa-Hollman (2020) found that integrating plurilingual pedagogies allows students to use their own linguistic and semiotic resources. The authors recommend that institutional policies need to acknowledge and include students' linguistic and cultural repertoires as a valuable resource in pedagogical and assessment practices. Recognizing the competencies that students have acquired from their home languages and prior experiences benefits them personally and can contribute to their academic success. Both research studies (e.g., Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020) provide empirical evidence as to how school policies systematically devalue learners' cultural and linguistic competencies as well as disregard the inclusion of pedagogical approaches that can facilitate the use of students' plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires in the classroom.

The relevance and practicality of including plurilingual pedagogy as well as teachers' willingness to help students integrate their linguistic and cultural repertories was also explored in

a study by Maatouk and Payant (2022). They examined how including plurilingual pedagogy depends upon teachers' readiness to include students' languages and cultures. Using online questionnaires, they solicited responses from 52 ESL students in Quebec teacher education programs. In analyzing the responses, the participants reported a reticence to integrate plurilingual approaches even though they responded positively to plurilingual principles. Findings suggest the importance of re-evaluating teacher education programs and revising policies that inhibit the integration of plurilingual pedagogies.

Overall, the empirical studies show how monolingual language policies regulate and perpetuate monolingualism in language learning and teaching as the norm, which prevents the implementation of plurilingual pedagogies, and contributes to deficit discourses about plurilingual learners (e.g., Galante et al. 2020, Lau et al., 2020; Maatook & Payant, 2020; Marshall, 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). Since it contradicts most mandated monolingual criteria, plurilingualism is often discouraged. Subsequently, institutional policies serve to limit and marginalize students' languages and cultures in classroom contexts. Furthermore, the results of these studies outline the advantages of including students' linguistic and cultural competencies in language teaching and learning. Counterbalancing the prevalence of monolingualism necessitates promoting language diversity, specifically an awareness of the interrelationship between languages and cultures for students. Plurilingual instruction provides students with the opportunity to access and to use their languages and cultures as resources during the language learning process. Similarly, complementary studies have focused on plurilingual pedagogical practices in English-medium education environments.

### 3.6.2. Plurilingual Pedagogical Practices in English-Medium Higher Education

Empirical studies have explored ways to implement plurilingual pedagogies to increase language awareness, to support learner's linguistic and cultural competencies as a resource for language learning, to develop an intercultural competence and a cross-cultural understanding, and to acquire sense of belonging and citizenship (Piccardo, 2013). For example, Piccardo et al., (2021) applied a plurilingual action-oriented approach to explore its innovative components. The authors conducted a mixed methods study with 14 culturally and linguistically diverse participants (25 teachers and 115 students), representing nine languages. The mediation

descriptors from the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020) included online and in-class learning through a digital platform and provided a conceptual and practical framework from which to examine the action-oriented tasks. The authors identified how teachers carried out the task as well as how students responded. Students reported that the tasks acknowledged and valued their "real life" language use (e.g., personal and/or home languages) as well as increased their awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity. Some teachers shared that they felt uncomfortable about carrying out the tasks. The findings encourage more collaboration and input from researchers, educators, administrators, policymakers, and plurilinguals to create more inclusive language classrooms for plurilingual learners, including in digital environments.

Creating inclusive educational environments was also the focus of a study carried out by dela Cruz (2022). To investigate the application of plurilingual pedagogies, the author conducted a mixed methods study that examined the plurilingual learning strategies of 20 EAL (English as an Additional Language) student tutors and tutees at a French-speaking college in Montreal, Quebec. The research study focused on two main questions: (1) What plurilingual strategies do EAL tutors and tutees use to teach and learn English from each other? (2) What are their perceptions of the affordances and challenges of these plurilingual strategies? The data from an observation grid, field notes, and semi-structured interviews showed that student tutors and tutees often participate in plurilingual practices and include translation, translanguaging, and cross-linguistic comparisons. The student tutors and tutees professed that plurilingual approaches encourage language development and create a positive learning experience. Participants also referred to the challenges and practicability of applying plurilingual pedagogies. The studies by dela Cruz (2022) and Piccardo et al. (2021) suggest the need to find ways to include plurilingual pedagogies in linguistically and culturally diverse education contexts.

Similarly, Coelho et al. (2020) explored the challenges of integrating plurilingual pedagogies by examining teachers' perceptions of plurilingual strategies in plurilingual K-13 classrooms in the UAE, one of the most plurilingual and pluricultural countries in the world. The authors used quantitative research methods in both Arabic and English to survey teacher reactions to using plurilingual pedagogies in their classrooms and their support for such practices. The findings indicate that even though monolingualism is still the norm, there is growing recognition among teachers that plurilingual pedagogies are a valuable resource for language learning and teaching. However, as with the other empirical studies relating to

plurilingual instruction (e.g., dela Cruz, 2022; Piccardo et al., 2021), teachers in this study shared the difficulties of carrying out plurilingual instruction due to the historical prevalence of English-only instruction. The authors recommend more research is required to address the divide between plurilingual theory and pedagogical practices in the classroom. As well, they propose consulting teachers on issues related to policy reforms, curriculum planning, and pedagogical strategies.

Empirical studies (e.g., Coelho et al., 2020; dela Cruz, 2022; Piccardo et al., 2021) can incite the publication of pedagogical tasks. Galante et al.'s (2022) published the text, *Plurilingual Guide: Implementing Critical Plurilingual Pedagogy in Language Education* that includes plurilingual strategies "aimed at students with transnational backgrounds, who may have settled in Canada as international students, immigrants, or refugees and whose first language is not English" (p. 6). The main goal is to empower and motivate students to use their linguistic and cultural repertoires during language learning and writing instruction (Galante et al., forthcoming; Galante et al., 2022; Payant & Galante, 2022).

### 3.6.3. Writing Among Plurilingual Learners

Comparably, studies about plurilinguals' experiences with writing shows how they engage with the genres that they are mandated to produce by examining how they write for specific purposes (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Payant, 2020; Payant & Maatouk, 2020; Séror & Gentil, 2020). Such studies offer an epistemic understanding of how writing is a social practice that involves a rhetorical genre awareness of the socio-historical nature of writing. To examine the social implications that influence how students speak and write entails understanding how students access their linguistic and cultural identities in different social and school settings.

An ethnographic study conducted by Kalan (2022) examined the writing practices of three plurilingual writers from Toronto, Canada, specifically on how translanguaging practices supplemented their writing processes in English and in other languages. The author conducted interviews to document how writing practices are an outcome of hegemonic monoglossic language ideologies that promote English-only language of instruction practices as advantageous and unchallenged. The author explained how "in a globalized English education market, the industrial compartmentalization and commercialization of English has also contributed to packaging writing classes in simplified genre lessons in standardized forms of English" (p. 64).

The study found that assessing proficiency in the language instruction by counting "correct" or "incorrect" uses of language does not consider the rhetorical function of writing or the writers' genre competencies. Developing an understanding of "plurilingual writers' literate lives requires identifying and making sense of experiences that diversify plurilingual writers' exposure to and interactions with multiple semiotic systems, and with the discourse communities" (p. 71). It is important to discern and to critique the social and historical ideologies embedded in privileged genres that are taught in educational settings to address the power imbalances between plurilinguals and teachers as well as between dominant and otherized cultures. How writers act and adapt to different disciplinary settings and to genre requirements emerges from the linguistic, cultural, and personal knowledge that they possess. Recognizing translanguaging as an integral component of the writing process aligns to empirical studies on plurilingualism (e.g., Galante, 2020a; 2022; Lau et al., 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020) that support learning environments where writers can access their languages, cultures, and identities.

In recent years, other empirical studies have examined the necessity to create language and writing learning classroom contexts where learners' can rely upon the full range of their linguistic, cultural, and writing competencies. The advancement of plurilingual pedagogies that implement learners' competencies in classroom contexts (e.g., Galante et al., 2020; Galante et al., 2021; Payant & Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2013) has also incited interest in plurilingual pedagogies for writing tasks (e.g., Kalan, 2022). For instance, Payant and Maatouk (2020) carried out a case study with six plurilinguals at a Canadian university. The participants wrote two collaborative writing tasks, and they were encouraged to use their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires to complete the assigned tasks. Afterwards, the authors collected data from semi-structured interviews and discovered that the participants displayed different levels of openness toward using their L1 knowledge (Romanian, Russian, Spanish) and the L2 target language (French) during the writing assignments. The findings reveal the importance of understanding how students navigate between their L1 and L2 competencies during writing tasks. The results suggest that more research is needed to observe how learners interact with L2 acquisition to provide a more in-depth understanding of how to integrate L1 and L2 competencies during academic writing tasks, which was the focus of study by Payant (2020).

Payant (2020) chose a plurilingual framework to research writing in a third and/or additional language. One of the aims was to respond to a shortage of empirical studies that

examined plurilingual learners' writing practices during L2 and L3 writing assignments. The study included plurilingual writers in Spanish, French, and English and they were assigned two argumentative essays, one in French and one in English. After the participants completed the writing tasks, the author interviewed them to explore their meta-awareness of their language use: how they use their prior knowledge and linguistic repertoires to come up with ideas to organize and to structure their essays. The findings show that plurilingual writers have flexible and, at times, partial competencies when using different languages, since their language use informs how they approach academic writing assignments. The results indicate the need for further research on how plurilinguals' linguistic repertoires can facilitate and/or interfere with writing tasks. Similarly, Séror and Gentil (2020) examined how plurilingual learners develop academic literacies in more than one language.

Séror and Gentil (2020) collected data from case studies to examine university students' academic literacies in both French and English to focus on second or third language learning. The data sources entailed interviews and video records of students' writing practices to study their cross-linguistic practices. The findings reveal that students benefit from using the entire range of their language and writing repertoires as an essential aspect in the development of their academic writing. To be effective writers necessitates adding plurilingual practices at the curricular, classroom, and institutional levels in different disciplinary settings. The results imply that it is important to understand students' writing expertise as interrelated to their L2 and L3 competencies to support cross-linguistic interactions and collaborations.

Findings from the empirical studies cited in this chapter (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Payant, 2020; Payant & Maatouk, 2020; Séror & Gentil, 2020) highlight the incongruences between practices that compartmentalize learners' languages as well as restrict teachers' agency to incorporate plurilingual pedagogies when teaching a new target language or the language of instruction of an academic institution. Focusing on writing in discipline-specific settings provides a context from which to investigate the genres that are privileged in policies and that inform how educators assess literacy. It is also beneficial to assign tasks that encourage students to access their personal, cultural, and prior knowledge and experiences that allows them to make connections across disciplines and linguistic contexts such as from one language to another, e.g., French language to ESL courses (e.g., Lau et al., 2020; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020). Integrating

plurilingual pedagogies helps learners to understand and envision their goals as speakers and writers, which is why it is important to examine plurilingualism in language education.

**3.7.    Importance of Plurilingualism in English-Medium Language Education**

Monolingual policies and pedagogical approaches can contribute to the subjugation of plurilingualism by administrators and educators (Sterzuk, 2020; 2021; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). Admittedly, language separation may serve to protect minority languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Leonet et al., 2017) and help to revitalize and to increase Indigenous languages (McIvor & Parker, 2016). The practice of separating languages into linguistic categories such as L1, L2, or foreign language learners can also contribute to pedagogical and assessment practices that undervalue learners' linguistic and cultural experiences (Cummins, 2019; Muñoz-Basols, 2019).

Chen (2018) studied language policy for international students who did not speak English as a first language by investigating policy at three levels: language management, language beliefs, and language practices. The author used a mixed methods approach to collect data from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in three English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs in Canada. To analyze and interpret the data, Chen used a theoretical framework that relied on language policy and plurilingual and pluricultural competence. The findings reveal that standardization in language policy sidelines international students' languages and cultures in curricula planning, teaching instruction, and can negatively affect assessment practices. The results suggest that integrating learners' linguistic and cultural competencies can help to reform the academic structures of EAP programs as well as to encourage and empower teachers' agency as co-creators and collaborators to implement plurilingual pedagogies in the classroom.

Plurilingual theory values students' ability to use the knowledge that they have developed throughout their personal, social, and educational lives (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017) by focusing on languages and cultures as composite systems, since students do not separate or compartmentalize their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires (Rymes, 2014). Since plurilinguals possess complex and varied linguistic and cultural repertoires (Canagarajah, 2018; Galante, 2021a; Galante et al., 2022), this diversity should be acknowledged as an integral component in planning course curricula. This relates to my PhD research because many people in Quebec speak two languages, e.g., French and English as a "first language," and may even speak a third

language in addition to attending schools in different languages (*Office de consultation publique de Montréal*, 2020; Statistics Canada, 2022).

Recognizing difference as normative by promoting languages as heterogeneous and negotiable provides the means for students to build on their communication competencies as well as a way for teachers to support learners' ability to produce meaning from their linguistic and cultural competencies (Busch, 2017; Horner, 2017). Plurilingual and pluricultural perspectives replicate how learners use their repertoires in education and social settings by focusing on the intersection between culture, language, and identity (Galante et al., 2020; Lau et al., 2016). It is important to value, support, and develop learners' linguistic and cultural competencies in language and writing acquisition in English-medium education settings.

## 3.8.    Chapter Summary: Plurilingual Theoretical Framework

This chapter defined the theoretical framework and key concepts that make up the foundation for this PhD research and began by providing a brief overview of the theories that "disrupt" or reject monolingualism as well as why I chose plurilingualism as my theoretical framework. Specifically, plurilingualism is ideal as it is a theory, policy, and pedagogy, and because there is a high percentage of linguistic and cultural diversity in my PhD research context. Plurilingual perspectives provide a theoretical framework from which to critically examine ministerial and institutional policies and teacher voices on language education for plurilingual students. To implement a plurilingual shift in teaching and learning necessitates enabling teacher agency to acknowledge, validate, and integrate learners' linguistic and semiotic resources: to incorporate the values, beliefs, ways of speaking and writing that they have developed in their families, cultural communities, and social settings (García & Otheguy, 2020; Van Viegen & Lau, 2020). Therefore, this chapter has provided a context from which to investigate the values and ideologies embedded in policies that also inform teachers' perceptions and pedagogical practices in English courses in English-medium colleges.

In the next chapter, I present the research design: the choice of methodology, specifically critical discourse analysis and critical narrative inquiry to examine the two main data sources: (1) ministerial and English Department policy from one college (2) and teacher interviews.

# Chapter 4: Research Design

This chapter presents my methodology, specifically critical discourse analysis and critical narrative inquiry. The first section of this chapter describes the two methodological approaches chosen and why they were used to examine the research questions. The second part of this chapter details the policy texts used as data sources. The third part of this chapter describes the English teacher participants and the interview transcripts collected as data sources to examine teachers' interpretations of the selected policy texts. The fourth part of the chapter explains the data analysis, and finally concludes with a summary of the chapter.

The research design, analysis, and research questions can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2

*Research Design for the Research Questions*
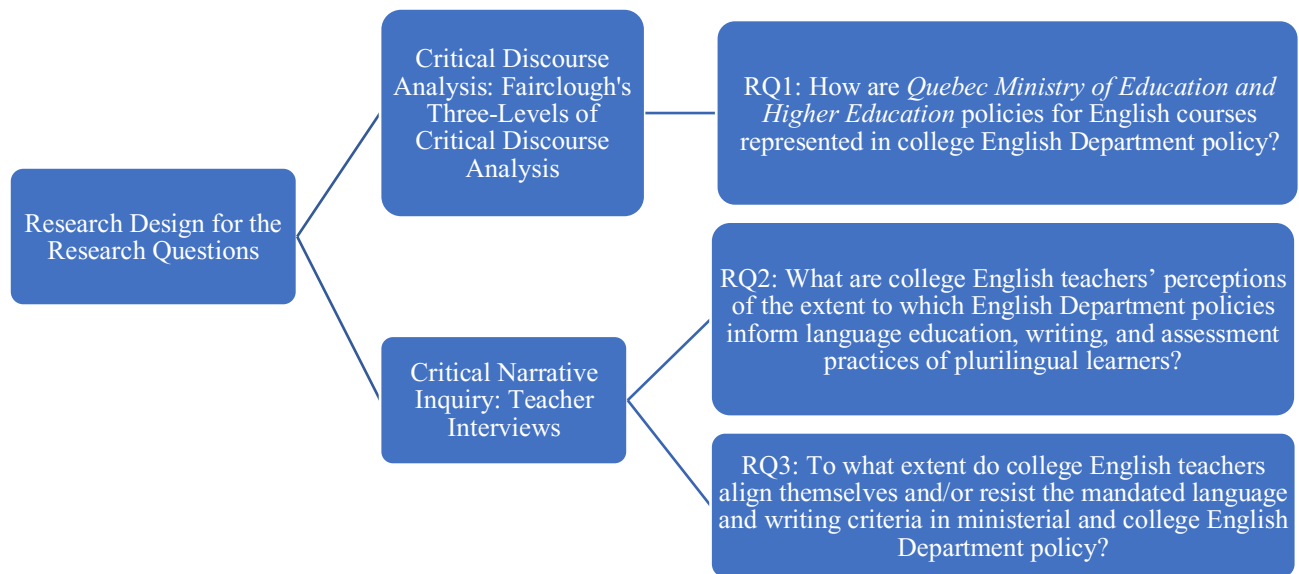


## 4.1. Introduction: Language Policy and Planning and Qualitative Research

Research on Language Policy and Planning concentrates on the "creation, interpretation, and appropriation of policy on language status … to understand, illuminate, and influence policy-shaped/policy-shaping texts, discourses, and practices as well as the 'what' of language policy as it plays out in education—focusing on policy and planning around language teaching and learning" (Hornberger, 2015, p. 13). Language policy research explores a human or social problem (Creswell, 2012) and the purpose is to gain insight into *how* and *why* certain situations

are reproduced; for example, attitudes, behaviours, and value systems help us to understand the characteristics of a particular situation and the meaning of what is happening (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The focus on policy in my research centered on the representation of plurilingual students' linguistic and cultural repertoires and their representation at the college level.

Next, I explain my choice for the policy text analyses.

## 4.2.    Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Framework Discourse Analysis for RQ 1

I chose Fairclough's (2003) three levels of discourse analysis as it is a comprehensive framework that examines (1) the micro-level, (2) the meso-level, and (3) the macro-level. The micro-level focuses on the text production—what is being said in the texts and how an idea is described in key words, sentences, and/or phrases. The meso-level explores how the text is processed and interpreted in a specific situation context, for instance, in academic settings, and the discursive reaction that the text incites. The macro-level examines the social analysis of the text and explains the relationship between the policy text and the broader social discursive ideological interpretations and assumptions emerging from the text. According to Fairclough (2003), the three-levels of critical discourse analysis focus on discursive practices and connections to wider societal structures and processes to identify how such practices are socially situated and arise from specific historical, social, and/or political ideological discourses. Additionally, Fairclough's (2003) three-dimensional framework was developed to study discourses by compiling the three different levels together: the micro-level analysis of spoken or written texts; the meso-level of analysis of discourse practices and/or the processes of text production, distribution, and implementation; and the macro-level analysis of discursive events as socio-cultural practices. Fairclough's three levels of critical discourse analysis were used because combining the micro, meso, and macro levels of analysis generate comprehensive explanations of discursive practices and phenomena in policies.

**Level 1:** The first level or micro-level of critical discourse analysis examines the internal relationships that exist within texts (Fairclough, 2003). This level focuses on the description of the selected text and/or on the lexical choices by using a linguistic analysis to study word frequency and/or the use of prominent words to suggest links between words and associations to reveal views and beliefs that emerge from the lexical analysis of the selected texts.

**Level 2:** Fairclough's second level or meso-level of critical discourse analysis considers the construction of the text and external influences and factors, including associations to other texts. This level examines the relationships between the linguistic choices and repeated patterns of meaning in common words and/or phrases to understand the ideological assumptions and/or discourses embedded within the texts that occur from the context and purpose of the text.

**Level 3:** Fairclough's third level or macro-level of critical discourse analysis studies the social, cultural and/or historical meanings from which the text emerged and that are reproduced across other texts and/or contexts. The third level explores the values, beliefs, functions, traditions, and ideologies that are recreated as well as the behaviours and/or outcomes that the text conveys.

Figure 3 displays a visual representation of Fairclough's (2003) three levels of critical discourse analysis.

Figure 3

*Fairclough's Three Levels of Critical Discourse Analysis: Visual Representation*



**Level 1: Micro-level**
Examining the lexical choices and internal relationships that exist in a written or spoken text
Choice of words used to describe a specific attitude toward a subject
Identifying links between the frequency of words or phrases and associations and/or outcomes

**Level 2: Meso-level**
Process: discursive practice or the way a text is produced and/or constructed and/or interpreted
Examining links between linguistic choices and repeated patterns of meanings in words/phrases
Identifying references and associations to other discourses or texts (e.g., comparing policy texts)

**Level 3: Macro-level**
Implications of the meaning of the text as a social practice: outcomes and consequences
Social contexts: values, beliefs, traditions, and ideologies from which a text emerged
Social practice: macro level analysis interprets links, associations, and relationships across texts

**4.3.    Critical Narrative Inquiry Methodological Approach for RQ2 and RQ3**

Critical narrative inquiry complements critical discourse analysis by addressing one of the main criticisms of critical discourse analysis, namely that it primarily emphasizes the wider social and/or institutional discourse and narratives. Since critical discourse analysis focuses on language as a social practice and analyzes discourses in specific social contexts and linguistic situations (Fairclough, 2003), it can "fail to simultaneously and systematically consider micro- and macro-linguistic realms" (2014, p. 162). While discourse analysis is ideally suited to explore the broader societal, and institutional narratives that affect the lives and experiences of particular groups of people, critical narrative analysis concentrates on the micro-level analysis of individual narratives because it entails the inter-relationship between critical discourse and narrative analysis (Souto-Manning 2014). Hence, critical narrative inquiry provides a way to explore how social and institutional discourses manifest themselves at the personal level to highlight how individual interpretations can discern social issues and practices that can remain unnoticed or unquestioned. As a methodology, it helps to understand assumptions and beliefs about the lived and/or educational experiences of people (Clandinin & Connelly, 2004), and documents or "gives voice" (Chase, 2005) to those whose stories have been previously unheard and/or overlooked by interconnecting individual personal narratives and broader social and/or institutional narratives. By concentrating on individual narratives and the "stories everyday people tell" (Souto-Manning, 2014, p. 163), critical narrative inquiry also investigates ideological assumptions embedded in dominant discourses and "focuses on how people make sense of their experiences in society though language; [whereas] critical discourse analysis is concerned with power and language in society" (Souto-Manning, 2014, p. 161). Including personal narratives combines the micro-level or personal situations with the macro-level or social and institutional situations or contexts to understand how these discourses are generated and perpetuated (Souto-Manning, 2014). Subsequently, it is also important to include the narratives of those who engage with these dominant discourses to examine links between macro and micro levels of hierarchical inequities in different social or institutional settings (Kemmis, et al., 2014). The goal is to examine participants' perceptions, opinions, feelings, knowledge, and their lived experiences of personal situations in specific social and/or institutional contexts (Patton, 2014) to elucidate and to provide insights into the experiences of people who have been marginalized, excluded, and/or silenced in social and/or institutional contexts. The micro-level perspective of

critical narrative inquiry informs the macro-level approach of critical discourse analysis to explore how larger social issues and power inequities are produced and circulated such as in the adoption of institutional discourses and policies in the narratives shared by college English teachers in my PhD study.

Teachers' perceptions regarding how ministerial policies influence the creation and implementation of English Department policies reveal how institutional discourses about language, writing, and assessment practices position and impact students who have diverse linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds and experiences in English-medium colleges. Ultimately, it is useful to combine critical narrative inquiry and critical discourse analysis. Merging critical discourse analysis of ministerial and English Department policies with critical narrative inquiry reveals how teachers interpret and implement these policies provides a hybrid analytical approach that offers a more in-depth method to study larger social issues (Iannacci, 2007; Souto-Manning, 2014). Additionally, critical narrative inquiry investigates social issues related to power, language, and culture to identity, to critique, and to address social injustices (Iannacci, 2007; Souto-Manning, 2014) by referring to critical theories (e.g., raciolinguistics, critical interculturalism, or critical multiculturalism) to inform the analysis of the data sources (Iannacci, 2007; García et al., 2021). Such a framework utilizes various social and linguistic theories to examine ways in which dominant discourses emerge, impact, and maintain ideological assumptions and social issues, problems, and norms that regulate social and/or institutional settings. Critical narrative inquiry also relates to critical thinking and the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking about what to do and/or what to believe (Lau & Van Viegen, 2020) to make social change possible by inciting discussion and action. For these reasons, I focused on teacher narratives about ministerial and institutional (e.g., English college) policies to study questions about plurilingualism and plurilinguals in academic settings. Consequently, critical narrative inquiry is a complementary extension of critical discourse analysis, and it can positively inform the study of ministerial and institutional policies.

## 4.4. Data Sources

The following section will detail the data for the research questions, which relied on two main data sources: policy texts and interview transcripts from twelve college English teachers.

Table 3 lists the research questions, data sources, and data analysis that I will describe.

Table 3

*Summary: Research Questions, Data Sources, and Data Analysis*

| Research Questions | Data source(s) | | Data analyses |
|---|---|---|---|
| **RQ1:** How are *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for English courses represented in college English Department policy? | **English Department Policy (main data source):** English Department course framework policy text for the first-year English course from one English-medium college | ***Ministry of Education and Higher Education (Levels 2 and 3 Critical Discourse Analysis):*** *(1) Language of Instruction and Literature; (2) Remedial Activities for Secondary V English;* (3) *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* rubric | **Critical Discourse Analysis:** Fairclough's three level framework: (1) the micro-level (lexical analysis) (2) meso-level (discourse practices), (3) macro-level (sociocultural practice of discourses). |
| **RQ2:** What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform language, writing, and assessment practices of plurilingual learners? | **Interviews:** college English teachers (*n* = 12) | | Inductive and Deductive: **Critical narrative inquiry,** (including a policy analysis process adapted from Johnson (2009) policy analysis process approach) |
| **RQ3:** To what extent do college English teachers align themselves and/or resist the language and writing criteria mandated by ministerial and college English Department policy? | **Interviews:** college English teachers (*n* = 12) | | Inductive and Deductive: **Critical narrative inquiry,** (including a policy analysis process adapted from Johnson (2009) policy analysis process approach) |

## 4.5. Data Collection

For RQ1—*How are provincial Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy texts for English courses represented in college English Department policy?* I selected an English Department policy from one English-medium college as the main policy to provide consistency and uniformity during the interviews since, at one point during their careers, ten out of the twelve teachers had worked at the same college. Most of the teachers interviewed are still working at the same English college, but some of the teachers currently work at other English or French-speaking colleges, or at other academic institutions. Teachers could reference policy texts from the different colleges at which they had taught and/or were teaching at the time of the interviews. College English Departments produce policy documents such as model course outlines, equity guidelines, and recommendations for language and writing based on *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies.

Institutional policy texts propose pedagogical practices and approaches for teachers to implement in the classroom. Since English-medium colleges have a high percentage of plurilingual students who have diverse linguistic repertoires and educational experiences, colleges create streams for the first-year English course to address students' perceived deficiencies for those who do not comply with the mandated standards for language and writing. The selected policy text for RQ1 includes three streams for the first-year English course. The different streams contain the performance criteria, elements of competency, course descriptions, writing guidelines, student profiles, and the methodology for language, writing, and assessment.

The English Department policy texts produced at each college are available and accessible on the college websites, and English Department webpages. However, the names of the colleges at which the teachers worked will not be named to protect their confidentiality. Individuals and institutions are points of articulation and reproduction of specific discourses and, as a result, they do not necessarily come up with any specific discourse; rather, individuals and institutions inherit and reproduce discourses that have evolved historically. Therefore, this PhD research examines the interaction and convergence of discourses specific to Quebec language politics and discourses about language in English-medium colleges. The intention is to study discursive representations and practices as well as the possible consequences or professed "truths" about language and writing that are socially, culturally, and historically situated. To analyze the data, I used Fairclough's (2003) three levels of critical discourse analysis. The English Department policy excerpts are included with the data results and in Appendix F.

### 4.5.1.  Data Collection for RQ1: Ministerial Background Policy Texts

RQ1 also referred to three background data sources for the second and third levels of Fairclough's critical discourses analysis: policy texts from the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* for English courses in English-medium colleges. The second and third and levels of Fairclough's critical discourses analysis (2003), namely, the meso-level and macro levels show how discourses are reproduced; for instance, they reflect how *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies influence the creation and implementation of English Department policy in English-medium colleges. For example, in this PhD research, the meso and macro-levels entailed comparing three selected *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy texts to the main data source: one college English Department policy for first-

year English courses. The objective is to study how discourses on language, writing, and assessment at the ministerial level are reproduced at the institutional and classroom levels.

I chose the three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies as background texts to analyze RQ1 because they provide insights into the hierarchical ideological contexts from which views, beliefs, and standards on language and writing emerged, and the possible consequences for plurilingual students. The three background policies that I selected are available on the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* website and Appendix F. The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies are as follows:

**(1)** *Language of Instruction and Literature,* the mandatory first-year college English course (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2009).

**(2)** *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts*, a non-credit preparatory course for students who do not meet the requirements for a program leading to a college diploma (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2018).

**(3)** *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature Rubric,* from the mandatory exam students need to write to obtain a college English diploma (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2021).

**(1)** *Language of Instruction and Literature* is the mandatory first-year college English course (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2009).

I selected the first-year English course policy document, *Language of Instruction and Literature,* for the first background policy text for the second and third level of critical discourse analysis for RQ1 (see 4.4.1 and Table 5). The first-year English course is crucial to understand the historical context from which language and writing requirements and standards in North American colleges and universities have developed. First-year English courses play an important role in higher education in English-medium language classes around the globe and in my research context, English-medium colleges since all students are obliged to take a first-year English course and most English teachers teach first year English courses. Furthermore, first-year English courses are a point of entry to college for plurilingual students.

There are four mandatory English courses that students need to take and pass to fulfil part of the criteria for their General Education courses in English-medium colleges. Students also

need to take three Humanities courses (known as *Philosophie* in French colleges), three Physical Education courses, and two French, Second Language courses. The combination of these courses ensures that students complete the General Education criteria as part of their college studies. The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the first-year English course, *Language of Instruction and Literature* is a one-page document that outlines the learning outcomes and performance criteria that students need to acquire and produce to pass the course and proceed to post-introductory English courses.

The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the course, *Language of Instruction and Literature* is included in Table 4.

Table 4

*Language of Instruction and Literature: Ministry of Education and Higher Education*

| Policy | The *Language of Instruction and Literature* policy text from the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education*: http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/en/contenus-communs/enseignement-superieur/college-education/general-education-components/ |
| --- | --- |
| **Elements of the Competency** | |
| **Performance Criteria #1:** Identify the characteristics and functions of the components of literary texts. | Analyze and produce various forms of discourse Accurate explanation of the denotation of words Adequate recognition of the appropriate connotation of words Accurate definition of the characteristics and function of each component |
| **Performance Criteria #2:** Determine the organization of facts and arguments of a given literary text | Clear and accurate recognition of the main idea and structure Clear presentation of the strategies employed to develop an argument or thesis |
| **Performance Criteria #3:** Prepare ideas and strategies | Appropriate identification of topics and ideas discourse. Adequate gathering of pertinent information Clear formulation of a thesis Coherent ordering of supporting material |
| **Performance Criteria #4:** Formulate a discourse | Appropriate choice of tone and diction Correct development of sentences Clear and coherent development of paragraphs Formulation of a 750-word discourse |
| **Performance Criteria #5:** Revise the work | Appropriate use of revision strategies Appropriate revision of form and content |

(**2**) *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* is a non-credit preparatory course for students who do not meet the requirements for a program leading to a college diploma (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2018).

The second text I chose for the background policy text for the second and third level of critical discourse analysis for RQ1 was the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* course. This non-credit preparatory course is for students assessed as not being proficient enough in English to take the first year credited English course (see 4.4.2 and Table 6). The course is a 60-90-hour non-credit preparatory course for students who are evaluated as not prepared and not qualified for the first-year English course, *Language of Instruction and Literature*. The policy is a one-page document that outlines the learning outcomes and performance criteria to acquire a standard proficiency in English for students to be eligible to register for the first year credited English course, *Language of Instruction and Literature*. The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* website for college remedial courses outlines the purpose for remedial courses for English and French Quebec colleges. (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2018).

The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy text for the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* course is included in Table 5 and Appendix F.

Table 5

*Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts*

| Policy | *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* **policy text from the** *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/fileadmin/site_web/documents/enseignem ent-superieur/collegial/Activites-mise-a-niveau-VA.pdf |
|---|---|
| **Statement of the Competency** | Use basic techniques and rules in the comprehension and communication of various forms of discourse |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #1:** Comprehend oral and written discourse | Appropriate recognition of the meaning of words, word groups and idioms Appropriate recognition of central ideas Appropriate recognition of supporting ideas and details Appropriate understanding of techniques used |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #2:** Plan various forms of oral and written discourse | Appropriate use of preparation strategies Clear statement of a central idea Effective planning for the development of a central idea Clear organization of supporting ideas and details |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #3:** Produce a discourse | Production of a 500-word written discourse Clear formulation of a thesis statement Consistent development of supporting ideas Appropriate use of grammar and syntax Appropriate use of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization Appropriate choice and use of words Appropriate development of sentences and paragraphs |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #4:** Edit the discourse | Appropriate use of revision strategies Accurate correction of the discourse |

**(3)** *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature Rubric,* from the mandatory exam students need to write to obtain a college English diploma (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2021).

I selected the *Ministerial Examination of College English and Literature* rubric for the third background policy text for the second and third level of critical discourse analysis for RQ1 (See 4.4.2. and Table 6). I chose the rubric because it provides a "book end" to the mandated first-year college English course (see Table 6) and because students attending English colleges in Quebec must write this exam before graduating to demonstrate their proficiency in English, language of instruction, to receive their Diploma of College Studies (DCS).

The *Ministerial Examination of College English* rubric outlines the competencies in English language proficiency that students need to be able to produce to succeed in their college studies and to qualify for university. The rubric is included in Table 6.

Table 6 presents a chart showing the criteria and corresponding objectives that students are required to meet to pass the examination.

Table 6

*Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature Rubric*

| **Policy (Rubric):** | *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature:* https://www.quebec.ca/en/education/cegep/language-examinations/english |
|---|---|
| **Statement of the Competency** | *Ministry of Education and Higher Education* Rubric for the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature Rubric* Comprehension, Organization, Expression |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #1:** Comprehension and Insight | Recognition of a main idea from the selected reading Identification of techniques and/or devices as employed by the author. Evidence of critical or analytical interpretation of the selection References which demonstrate understanding of the reading |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #2:** Organization of Response | Statement of a thesis about the text Structured development of the essay Use of supporting details |
| **Performance Criteria Standards #3:** Expression | Appropriate use of words Varied and correct sentence structure Correct grammar Conventional spelling, punctuation, and mechanics |

### 4.5.2. Data Sources for RQ 2 and RQ 3: English College Teacher Interviews

The main data source for RQ 2 and RQ3 were interviews with 12 college English teachers used to answer RQs 2 and3.

RQ2: *What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices of plurilingual learners?*

RQ3: *To what extent do college English teachers align themselves and/or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy texts*?

Following the interview guide (see Appendix F) that I designed for this PhD research, I wished to investigate how policy may impact or may have impacted language, writing, and assessment practices for plurilingual students in English courses in English-medium colleges in Quebec. As explained in the data collection for RQ1, the policy text excerpts in the interview guide came from the same college from which ten out of the twelve teachers had worked. However, during the interviews, irrespective of the policy excerpts in the interview guide, the teachers referred to their experiences teaching at different educational institutions in Quebec, other provinces in Canada, and in other countries. The semi-structured interviews allowed the participants' "voices" to emerge, to share their thoughts, ideas, and experiences more comfortably and in more detail than with structured or close-ended questions (Creswell, 2012). The teachers' vast and diverse teaching experience in different academic settings added to the depth and richness of the results.

### 4.6. Recruitment Process of Teacher Participants

I recruited 12 college English teachers in Montreal. To be a participant, teachers needed to currently work as an English teacher at an English-medium college in Quebec and have at least 5 years of teaching experience. The recruitment process entailed a purposive sampling where I relied on my discretion, and knowledge of the research context to incite responses that fit the specific objectives and purposes of the PhD research as well as to compile precise insights and results (Palys, 2008). I sent recruitment letters by email to small groups of English teachers at different English-medium colleges, beginning with teachers who were known to me and/or with whom I had worked on committees, projects, or met at college conferences. The teachers'

emails were accessed from the staff directory webpage available on college websites. Some teachers forwarded the recruitment emails to colleagues whom they felt might be interested in participating and Dr. Angelica Galante, my supervisor, posted the recruitment announcement on the Plurilingual Lab website and the lab's social media networks such as Facebook and Twitter. Potential participants who responded were sent a follow up email with the invitation letter and consent form. After teachers signed and submitted the consent forms, I sent them a demographic questionnaire to complete and submit via email or in person and I also sent teachers the interview guide to review prior to the interviews. The goal was to provide teachers with the opportunity to become familiar with the questions and policy excerpts to ensure that they felt at ease with the subject matter. This phase entailed the recruitment process and the preparation for the interviews.

**Interview Process and Location**

I conducted the interviews in two rounds: one face-to-face and one online due to COVID restrictions. The first round of interviews occurred between January 2020 and March 2020. I interviewed six participants at a reserved room or at my supervisor's research lab at the Faculty of Education at McGill University, or the library, or at other public spaces on campus such as Thomson House. These locations provided quiet and private rooms to conduct the interviews. None of the interviews were conducted on the participants' college property. Since the interviews took place off-campus, it was not necessary to obtain Ethics Review approval from the selected colleges at which the participants worked. The second round of interviews occurred after colleges closed in Quebec due to Covid 19, in March 2020. I submitted a Research Ethics application form with an addendum to request to switch to online interviews. In April 2020, permission was granted to conduct the online interviews. Then, I sent a follow up email with the revised invitation letter and the addendum to the teacher participants who had confirmed that they would like to participate in the PhD research and who had not yet been interviewed.

Regarding the interviews, the conversations were not confined to the interview guide, nor did teachers answer all the questions in the guide. Sometimes it was because the teachers did not feel that they had enough knowledge or experience to answer the questions; other times, it was because the conversation diverged to other topics. Once the interview started, if teachers wanted to discuss issues not closely related to the study, the conversation progressed naturally, going back and forth to the research topic, to the various policy texts, and returning to the interview

guide questions, as applicable. Teachers focused on the topics that they were interested in discussing such as the languages that they were studying or had studied, courses that they were teaching or had taught, or other issues related to plurilingualism, language, writing, or assessment. Other times, teachers talked about the social, political, and/or historical context in Montreal, their perceptions of language in the city, or their perspectives of plurilingual students' experiences with language and writing. One advantage of having teachers review the guide before the interviews is that it provided them with the opportunity to focus on topics with which they felt comfortable and with which they wanted to discuss. Allowing teachers to consult the interview guide before the interviews contributed to establishing trust and transparency. The data collection included data sources, recruitment, and the interview process to analyze the selected policy documents as well as the interview transcripts from the teacher participants.

### 4.6.1. Teacher Participants

The teacher participants had worked at three different English-medium colleges in Montreal as well as had taught at other academic institutions, including French colleges as ESL instructors; some also taught at English high schools and universities in Quebec, other provinces in Canada, or in other countries. All the teachers had a Master of Arts in English literature and their teaching experience ranged from 12 years to 35 years of experience. Ten out of the twelve teachers self-identified as Anglophone even though some spoke other languages, and/or had studied other languages during their studies, travels, or for personal reasons. Most participants said that they had studied or were studying French. Two teachers self-identified as plurilingual, that is, they self-identified as speaking and writing more than two languages fluently.

Table 7 provides a table with a profile of the teacher participants, their pseudonyms, their linguistic and professional background, and their teaching experience.

Table 7

*Background and Profile of Teacher Participants*

| Participant pseudonyms | Teaching years | Highest degree | L1: self-identified | Additional Languages |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Anne | 10 | M.A. Literature | English | |
| Barney | 30 | M.A. Literature | English | |
| Rachel | 22 | M.A. Literature | English French Italian | Spanish |
| Marina | 19 | M.A. Literature | English French Greek | Italian |
| Adam | 12 | M.A. Literature | English | French |
| Hugh | 17 | M.A. Literature | English | French |
| Alexis | 15 | M.A. Literature | English | |
| Eva | 21 | M.A. Literature | English | French |
| Sophia | 22 | PhD Sociology | English | French Spanish |
| Elizabeth | 17 | PhD Education | English | French |
| June | 35 | M.A. Literature | English | French |
| Anabelle | 32 | M.A. Literature | English | French Italian |

## 4.7. Data Analysis

This section of the chapter describes the two data analysis processes that I used to answer the research questions: (1) critical discourse analysis for RQ1, and (2) critical narrative inquiry for RQ2 and RQ3. Below, I explain the two processes.

### 4.7.1. Critical Discourse Analysis for RQ1

For RQ1, Fairclough's (2003) three levels of critical discourse analysis were used to trace issues related to language learning and teaching in English courses in English-medium colleges in Quebec as well as how these discourses inform pedagogical practices in the classroom and the potential outcomes for plurilingual students. I analyzed the chosen English Department policy for the three levels of Fairclough's critical discourse analysis: (1) the text, micro-level (the description or text analysis), (2) the process or discourse practice, meso-level, and (3) the socio-

cultural practice, macro-level. Specifically, I analyzed: (1) the description (text analysis), (2) the interpretation (processing analysis), and (3) the explanation (social analysis).

**Level 1: Description**

For RQ1, I used Fairclough's Ten Question Model (1989, p. 110-112) which is organized into three categories (1) vocabulary, (2) grammar, and (3) textual structures. Table 8 details Fairclough's list of 10 questions and sub questions (1989, p. 110-112).

Table 8 includes Fairclough's list of 10 questions and sub-questions.

Table 8

*Fairclough's list of 10 questions and sub-questions*

| Categories | Fairclough's list of 10 questions and sub-questions (1989, p. 110-112) |
|---|---|
| **A. Vocabulary** | **Question #1: What experiential values do words have?** <br> What classification schemes are drawn upon? <br> Are there words which are ideologically contested? <br> Is there rewording or overwording? <br> What ideologically significant meaning relations are there between words? <br> **Question #2:  What relational values do words have?** <br> Are there euphemistic expressions? <br> Are there markedly formal or informal words? <br> **Question #3: What expressive values do words have?** <br> **Question #4: What metaphors are used?** |
| **B. Grammar** | **Question #5: What experiential values do grammatical features have?** <br> What types of processes and participants predominate? <br> Is the agency unclear? <br> Are processes what they seem? <br> Are normalizations used? <br> Are sentences active or passive? <br> Are sentences positive or negative? <br> **Question #6: What relational values do grammatical features have?** <br> What modes are used? <br> Are there important features of relational modality? <br> Are the pronouns *we* and *you* used and if so, how? <br> **Question #7: What expressive values do grammatical features have?** <br> Are there important features of expressive modality? <br> **Question #8: How are (simple) sentences linked together?** <br> What logical connectors are used? <br> Are complex sentences characterized by coordination or/ subordination? <br> What means are used for referring inside and outside the text? |
| **C. Textual Structures** | **Question #9: What interactional conventions are used?** <br> Are there ways in which one participant controls the turns of others? <br> **Question #10: What larger scale structures does the text have?** |

For the first level of critical discourse analysis, I applied the ten questions from Fairclough's list (1989) to determine which ones were the most relevant to analyze the selected policies. The policy excerpts and questions used for RQ1 are included in the Findings chapter and Appendix F.

Using the first level of critical discourse analysis allowed me to investigate data at the micro-level by considering the content, structure, grammar, and/or vocabulary to provide a framework from which to study how the features and characteristics of texts are linked to broader social practices: how a text is produced, reproduced, and used in social and/or institutional settings. As a methodology, critical discourse analysis has been used to analyze discursive language use in written texts such as policy texts, interview transcripts, and/or speeches.

**Level 2: Interpretation**

To interpret the policy data, for the second level, Fairclough (2003) argues that it is important to consider how people interpret and reproduce a text in relation to the context: the time-period, social and/or historical setting of the text production. It is also important to understand when the text was produced, by whom, and why as well as how the text is supposed to be interpreted and implemented to ensure specific outcomes. I compared the English Department policy to three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies to gain an understanding of the links and the interconnections between the policies. For instance, I examined how specific social situations and historical contexts inform, shape, and play a role in producing and reproducing dominant discourses about language education that regulate pedagogical and assessment practices for students in English-medium settings.

Fairclough's (2003) second level of critical discourse analysis considers the creation and construction of the text and how it is redistributed, interpreted, and implemented by teachers and administrators in educational settings. This level of analysis examines relationships between the linguistic choices and the repeated patterns of meaning in common words and phrases to understand the ideological assumptions and discourses embedded within the policy text or borrowed from other policy documents. Therefore, the second dimension of analysis includes an exploration of the relationship between the policy text and external influences or factors that influence the creation and circulation of common values, ideas, beliefs about language and plurilingual students across policy documents.

**Level 3: Explanation**

Fairclough's (2003) third level of the critical discourse analysis focuses on the social function or the historical and/or socio-cultural meanings from which a text emerged and then is

reproduced across other texts, in this study, the selected *Quebec Ministry Education and Higher Education* policies. More importantly, the third level moves beyond a "local" focus, i.e., Montreal, Quebec, to make global comparisons, for instance, to other provinces in Canada, or in other predominantly English-medium countries such as the United States, England, or Australia. According to Fairclough (2003), the third level of critical discourse analysis serves to combine and to collate the information collected in the analysis to better comprehend the relationship between the texts, the processes from which the texts are created, and how the texts are replicated in other settings. The goal is to consider the wider societal ideological discourses and the discursive practices, outcomes, and consequences that the policies reproduce. During this stage, I compiled the information acquired from the text analysis (level 1) and the process analysis (level 2) to examine the historical context from which the policies emerged. This procedure provided an understanding of the ideological assumptions that were generated and then reproduced in *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for English-medium colleges and the English Department policy for the first-year English course. The third level, or the social level of critical discourse analysis explored the socio-historical values, beliefs, and ideologies that are reproduced across texts. This level of analysis also entails what is implied and not directly written—or said—such as who is not being represented and why, for example, plurilingual students. As well, the third level of critical discourse analysis studies the implicit connotations, expected behaviours, and outcomes for the recipients. The third level of analysis focused on the reproduction and movement of meaning across policies, such as the replication and contextualization of language proficiency, writing genres, and assessment practices in the main data source for RQ1, the English Department policy excerpts and the three selected *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* background policies. This stage of analysis provided a way to link historical perceptions of monolingualism in English-medium college settings and the possible implications in wider social contexts: other provinces and other countries. The third level of analysis identified common and recurring discourses associated to how plurilingual students were—or were not—represented in the policies for RQ1 and how English teachers interpret policies about language education, writing, and assessment.

To begin coding the data, for Fairclough's (2003) first level of critical discourse analysis, I divided the policy texts for RQ1 into specific units composed of paragraphs, sentences, or specific words. I coded the data in the selected policy text by marking all the sentences, phrases,

and words in the initial categories that related to the first research question, specifically to what extent provincial *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for English courses are represented in college English Department policies. Subsequently, I compiled all the discourse strands into preliminary themes that related to RQ1. For Fairclough's (2003) second and third level of critical discourse analysis, the meso and macro levels, the results were collated and superimposed to examine the links between the English Department policy text and the three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies to analyze the second and third levels of Fairclough's (2003) critical discourse analysis. The second and third levels provided an understanding of the social context that influences the repetition of discourses associated to language and writing in ministerial policies, how these discourses are reproduced and transported to English Department policies, and how they inform pedagogical and assessment practices.

Overall, the three levels of critical discourse analysis helped to identify the discursive and ideological constructs about language education and plurilingual students in the selected policies. The findings revealed how specific ideas, beliefs, and values about monolingualism were repeated across policies as well as how these texts were created, reproduced, and interpreted by teachers, which leads to RQs 2 and 3—how discourses about plurilingual learners are reconceptualized in English Department policy by interviewing 12 college English teachers.

Figure 4 illustrates the stages for the critical discourse analysis.

Figure 4

*Critical Discourse Analysis*
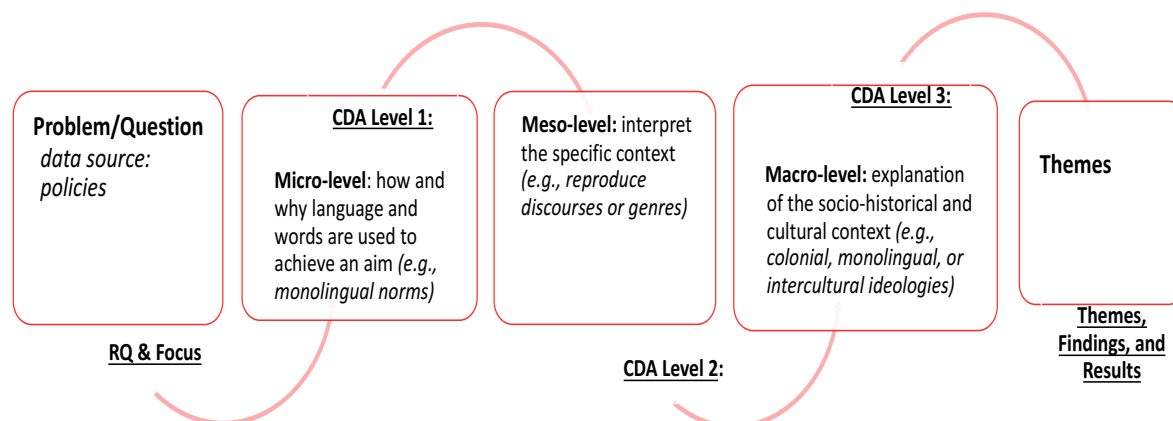
### 4.7.2. Critical Narrative Inquiry Data Analysis

For RQs 2 and 3, critical narrative inquiry was used to analyze the teacher interviews. Concurrent to the critical narrative analysis of the interview transcripts, I incorporated Johnson's (2009) policy process: (1) policy creation, (2) policy interpretation, and (3) policy appropriation. I used these three initial categories for the first stage of the data analysis process to organize the transcripts under these three headings. For example, teacher narratives that related to policy creation, policy interpretation, or policy appropriation were classified under each of these three categories for the initial coding. Initially, this helped me to structure the hierarchical process from which policies circulate, and then are reproduced: ministerially, i.e., *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education*, and at the English Department levels. Next, I studied each of the categories to identify patterns and to code teachers' perceptions about how policies are created, interpreted, and implemented. Therefore, I used the initial categories for a deductive analysis in the first stage of the data analysis process. Then, I used an inductive approach by relying on critical narrative inquiry to compile categories and themes to code and to analyze the interview transcripts. To sum up, I used the predetermined categories (i.e., policy creation, policy interpretation, and policy appropriation) as overarching categories and later I applied an inductive analysis to find themes for each of the three categories adapted from Johnson (2009).

Table 9 is an adaptation of the policy process defined by Johnson (2009), summarizing a three-part process for analyzing policies: (1) creation, (2) interpretation, and (3) appropriation.

Table 9

*Process for Policy Analysis (adapted from Johnson, 2009)*

| Policy Process | Data Sources | Data Generated |
|---|---|---|
| **Policy Creation** | Teacher interviews | references to the social and/or historical context of the policy creation |
| **Policy Interpretation** | Teacher interviews | how policy texts are interpreted and how they regulate language, writing, and assessment practices |
| **Policy Appropriation** | Teacher interviews | data from teachers about teaching and pedagogical practices and the outcomes from implementing policies |

**First stage:** The interview transcripts were noted to identify relevant phrases, sentences, or sections with annotations related to teachers' insights, interpretations, and thoughts about how policy texts influence language, writing, and assessment practices. Following Johnson's (2009) processes for policy analysis, the initial annotations were organized according to the following:

**(1) Policy Creation**

The teachers' responses relating to the creation of the English Department policy for RQ2 and RQ3 were identified and annotated. Examples from questions in the interview guide that linked to policy creation served as a guide to organize the transcripts before coding for the initial categories. The following are two sample questions from the interview guide (see Appendix F).

1. *How relevant are the competencies and performance criteria in the ministerial policy for the first-year English course in English colleges in defining how you choose to teach language, writing, and assess students?*

2. *What information do you think this policy could (or should) provide to help you plan your courses and/or develop pedagogical and assessment practices for students?*

Policy creation relates to the creation of the English Department policy, including the purpose, objectives, elements of competency, and performance criteria in the English Department policy.

**(2) Policy Interpretation**

Next, teachers' responses relating to the policy interpretation for the English Department policy for RQ2 and RQ3 were identified and annotated. Again, excerpts from questions in the interview guide that linked to policy interpretation served as a guide to initially organize the transcripts before coding for initial categories. The following is a sample question from the interview guide (see Appendix F).

1. *How do you think the elements of competency and performance criteria integrate (or not) students' linguistic background and prior educational experiences?*

Questions from the interview guide about policy interpretation were selected because they signified how English Department policy is interpreted and implemented in the classroom: teacher narratives relating to pedagogy and curricula planning for language education, writing instruction, and assessment practices.

**Policy Appropriation**

Then, teachers' responses that related to policy appropriation for the English Department policy for RQ2 and RQ3 were identified and annotated. Once again, examples from questions in the interview guide that linked to policy appropriation served as a guide to originally organize the interview transcripts before coding for the initial categories. The following are two sample questions from the interview guide (see Appendix F).

1. *In your experience, how do you believe teachers implement the competencies and performance criteria for language, writing, and assessment?*

2. *What are the positive and/or negative impacts of the policy for students?*

Sections from the transcripts that related to how English Department policy is appropriated were identified: the extent to which policy informs language, writing, and assessment practices. In addition, teachers' perceptions regarding the possible consequences for students were annotated in the interview transcripts.

**Second Stage: Data Analysis Coding**

After the initial organization of the interview transcripts into segments by adapting Johnson's (2009) policy analysis process: (1) policy creation, (2) interpretation, and (3) appropriation, the second phase entailed reviewing the transcripts to identify connections to create categories and sub-categories. In the second stage, I coded categories that reflected teachers' responses to the interview guide: the course descriptions, methodology sections, writing and equity guidelines, evaluation criteria, and student profiles in the English Department policy. At this stage, the goal was to classify teachers' personal experiences in a specific context and place (Clandinin and Connelly, 2004).

**Third Stage: Creating Themes**

In the third stage of analysis, I examined the categories identified in the second stage to create themes. Recurring concepts were systematically labelled and grouped in the coded categories in the interview transcripts. The goal was to come up with key themes that emerged from teachers' stories, experiences, thoughts, and feelings about the role that English Department policy plays in informing and influencing language education, writing, and assessment practices.

The themes described patterns in the categories that related to the specific research question. For example, for RQ3, initial coding identified categories that contained quotes about different stereotypes for students; one such category was "accenticism" and included quotes about students' accents such as, "*I think people make assumptions, and they have biases when they hear an 'accent' so I don't know how fair students would be assessed.*" Some categories were coded according to personal stereotypes about plurilingual students, for instance, "*... teaching in a way that we think that a student is coming in knowing nothing—you know like 'those backward natives' or 'those backward ethnics'—it is problematic that we have these perceptions that are very limiting*" and *"... the way language is taught—the policies—makes students think that if they do not get it, they are dumb."* Other categories included quotes that described students' language use as deficient and in need of remediation, for instance, teachers who pointed out that students "*sometimes also have challenges that would not classify as 'ESL,' but they might end up in this group, so it is kind of inappropriate."* These categories were then combined into the following theme: *Raciolinguistics: Racial Inequities and Stereotypes.* In the end, the coding and categories identified common links that developed into specific themes.

Table 10 illustrates an example of the critical narrative inquiry data analysis process.

Table 10

*Critical Narrative Inquiry: Data Analysis Process*

| Johnson (2009) | Interview Transcripts | Coding/Categories | Theme |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Policy Creation** | *... the streaming process [it is] limiting. How do we stream? Why do we stream? What are we streaming for? ... [these are] questions we should ask.* | deficit/deficient policy (purpose) | raciolinguistics: racial inequities and stereotypes |
| **Policy Interpretation** | *People make assumptions, and they have biases when they hear an "accent," so I don't know how fair students would be assessed.* | accenticism | |
| | *... have challenges that would not classify as 'ESL,' but they might end up in this [remedial] group.* | language use ESL/remedial | |
| **Policy Appropriation** | *... the policies ... how language taught ... students think ... that they are dumb.* | personal stereotypes (characteristics) | |

## 4.8.    Chapter Summary: Data Analysis Summary

This chapter outlined the research for the data analysis for the three research questions: RQ1—*How are Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy texts for English courses represented in college English Department policy texts?*

For RQ1, critical discourse analysis studied connections between policy at two different scales: (1) *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies that govern language standards in English-medium colleges, and the main data source for RQ1 (2) English Department policy from one English-medium college. The three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies were used as background texts for the second and third level of critical discourse analysis to compare how these policies are represented in English Department policy: (1) *Language of Instruction and Literature;* (2) *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English;* (3) *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature Rubric.*

The data analysis for RQ2 and RQ3 relied on critical narrative inquiry to study college English teachers' conversational narratives on the research questions. RQ2—*What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices of plurilingual learners?* RQ3—*To what extent do college English teachers align themselves with plurilingual practices and/or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy?*

The purpose was to record teachers' insights and the extent to which English Department policies inform language, writing, and assessment practices as well as the extent to which teachers align themselves and/or subvert mandated policies. As a methodology, critical narrative inquiry helped to explore teachers' perceptions about the extent to which policy informs language pedagogy, writing, and assessment as well as how it may impact plurilingual students.

The next chapter presents the findings and the discussion for the three research questions.

**Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion**

**5. 1.    Introduction: Findings and Discussion**

This chapter provides the findings along with a discussion for the three research questions. The three research questions that guided the study were: RQ1—*How are Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy texts for English courses represented in college English Department policy texts?* RQ2—*What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing and assessment practices of plurilingual learners?* RQ3—*To what extent do college English teachers align themselves and/or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policies?*

I present the findings along with the discussion for each research question separately.

**5.2.    RQ1: How Policy Texts are Represented in English-Medium Higher Education**

The first research question asked: *How are Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy texts for English courses represented in college English Department* policy texts? The main data source for RQ1—the English Department policy from one English-medium college was examined at the lexical level, the first level of critical discourse analysis, and then compared with the three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy texts for the second and third levels of critical discourse analysis. Three main findings were identified: (1) replication of Anglocentric, monolingual genres and standards, (2) remedial discourses and systemic marginalization of plurilingual students, and (3) deficit discourses for plurilingual students: conflating negative assumptions and attributes with language and writing proficiency. This conflation can be two-fold: (1) between the assumptions about proficiencies, and (2) the assumptions made between the French policy and the construction of English Department policy.

The findings are presented below.

**5.2.1.  Replication of Anglocentric, Monolingual Genres and Standards**

The first finding for the selected English Department policy reflects a replication of Anglocentric and monolingual genres and standards for language, writing, and assessment.

***First Level of Critical Discourse Analysis for the English Department Policy***

The first level of the critical discourse analysis for the English Department policy primarily entailed a lexical analysis. The lexical choices and phrases state the language and writing learning outcomes and the performance criteria that students need to produce. The lexical interpretation denotes that students are expected to *"differentiate"* the mandated criteria. For example, students need to *"differentiate between ideas and supporting details" (e.g., facts, examples, explanations, definitions)* and to *"differentiate between more and less important ideas and details in a literary text"* (see Table 11, Element 2). The lexical analysis of the words and phrases used to define the language and writing criteria stress the actions of the students as participants. Students need to *"demonstrate correct sentence structure, appropriate use of tone, and correct terminology," "correct development of sentences; clear and coherent development of paragraphs,"* with an *"appropriate choice of tone and diction"* and the ability "*to write a basic college-level essay with adequate content, organization and expression"* (see Table 11, Element 4). The students' lack of agency is based on a series of synonymous words such as to *"identify," "recognize," "determine," "show," "understand," "formulate,"* (see Table 11, Elements 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), or to write *"a well-structured and cohesive 750-word college-level discourse"* (see Table 11, Element 4) to pass their English courses. Students, as activated subjects, are mandated to perform and to produce specific skills; they are also assessed on their ability to *"formulate paragraphs demonstrating correct terminology"* and to *"revise a text according to feedback and assessment criteria"* (see Table 11, Element 4). The policy depicts the most important experiential values through the repetition of specific words such as *"correct," "clear," "accurate," "adequate,"* "articulate," "coherent," *"appropriate," "identify," "show," "recognize," "formulate,"* to create a framework from which to evaluate students' language and writing by reflecting the ideological significance, meaning, and the expressive values for the policy (see Table 11, Elements 1, 2, 3, 4, 5). Discourses that regulate language and writing in education environments perpetuate monoglossic ideologies that position monolingualism as the norm (Marshall, 2020) and maintain a monolingual bias (Ortega, 2014; Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). Therefore, the first finding emerges from the frequency of words that can reinforce the belief that a standard speaker is monolingual.

Table 11 includes excerpts from English Department policy and word frequency results.

Table 11

*Word Frequency for RQ1: English Department Policy*

| Policy | Words | Frequency | Phrases: Related Words to Project Meaning |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Element 1:** Identify the characteristics and functions of the components of literary texts | Accurate<br>Adequate<br>Appropriate<br><br>Define<br>Identify | 2<br>1<br>1<br><br>2<br>2 | **Performance Criteria:**<br>**Accurate** explanation of the denotation of words<br>**Adequate** recognition of the **appropriate** connotation of words<br>**Accurate** definition of the characteristics and function of each component<br>**Learning Outcomes:**<br>**Define** assigned vocabulary from a literary text<br>**Identify** figurative meaning in a literary text<br>**Identify** and **define** literary and rhetorical techniques and devices in a literary text |
| **Element 2:** Determine the organization of facts and arguments of a literary text | Clear<br>Accurate<br><br><br>Identify<br><br><br>Differentiate | 2<br>1<br><br><br>3<br><br><br>2 | **Performance Criteria:**<br>**Clear** and **accurate** recognition of the main idea and structure<br>**Clear** presentation of the strategies employed to develop an argument or thesis<br>**Learning Outcomes:**<br>**Identify** the structural components of a literary text<br>**Identify** the theme, central idea, focus or thesis of a literary text<br>**Identity** the main ideas of different subsections of a literary text<br>**Differentiate** between ideas and supporting details (e.g., facts, examples, explanations, definitions)<br>**Differentiate** between important ideas and details in a literary text |
| **Element 3:** Prepare ideas and strategies for a projected discourse | Appropriate<br>Adequate<br>Clear<br>Coherent<br><br>Determine<br>Identify<br>Develop<br>Articulate<br>Organize | 2<br>1<br>1<br>1<br><br>2<br>1<br>1<br>1<br>1 | **Performance Criteria:**<br>**Appropriate** identification of topics and ideas<br>**Adequate** gathering of pertinent information<br>**Clear** formulation of a thesis<br>**Coherent** ordering of supporting material<br>**Learning Outcomes:**<br>**Determine** suitable topics and ideas in a text as support for a discourse<br>**Identify appropriate** textual evidence as support for a discourse<br>**Develop** and **articulate** a valid thesis about a text<br>**Organize** supporting arguments in a logical and cohesive manner<br>**Determine** a logical sequence of supporting textual evidence within supporting arguments |
| **Element 4:** Formulate a discourse | Appropriate<br>Correct<br>Clear<br>Coherent<br>Formulate<br>Accurate<br>Develop<br>Write<br>Cohesive | 2<br>6<br>1<br>1<br>3<br>2<br>4<br>2<br>2 | **Performance Criteria:**<br>**Appropriate** choice of tone and diction<br>**Correct** development of sentences<br>**Clear** and **coherent** development of paragraphs<br>**Formulation** of a 750-word discourse<br>**Formulate** paragraphs demonstrating **correct** sentence structure, **appropriate** use of tone, and **correct** terminology.<br>**Develop** paragraphs with textual evidence, **accurate** quotation and/or paraphrase, and **correct** documentation.<br>**Write** a well-structured and **cohesive 750-word college-level** discourse.<br>**Learning Outcomes:**<br>**Formulate** paragraphs demonstrating **correct** terminology<br>**Develop** paragraphs with textual evidence, **accurate** quotation and/or paraphrase, and **correct** documentation<br>**Write** a well-structure and **cohesive** 750-word college-level discourse |

| Element 5: | | | Performance Criteria: |
|---|---|---|---|
| Revise the work | Appropriate | 2 | Appropriate use of revision strategies |
| | | | Appropriate revision of form and content |
| | Recognize | 1 | Learning Outcomes: |
| | Understand | 1 | Recognize and understand the assessment criteria (e.g., comprehension, organization, and expression, including MLA style |
| | Show | 1 | Show understanding of feedback |
| | Revise | 1 | Revise a text according to feedback and assessment criteria |

Moreover, monolingual policies impact the assessment of language and writing (Piccardo & Galante, 2018). For instance, directives on editing and revising describe *"appropriate use of revision strategies," "appropriate revision of form and content"* (see Table 11, Element 5), and learning outcomes that *"recognize and understand the assessment criteria (e.g., comprehension, organization, and expression); show understanding of feedback, revise a text according to feedback and assessment criteria"* (see Table 11, Element 5). The elements of competency perceive literacy as a generative process that focuses on repetitive practices such as outlines, drafts, revisions, and editing of oral and written tasks that regulate generic assumptions about literacy in the policy construction. The presumption is that perceived errors are identifiable and that there is a single standard for students to acquire by counting "correct" or "incorrect" uses of language and writing to assess proficiency. The literacy requirements are reduced to grammar, spelling, and punctuation, and include: (1) basic parts of speech; (2) subject-verb agreement; (3) pronoun reference and agreement; (4) verb tense consistency; (5) basic sentence structure; (6) sentence completeness; (7) basic spelling confusions; and (8) basic punctuation (see Table 12).

Table 12 includes the minimum English literacy competencies in the Department policy.

Table 12

*Minimum Literacy Competencies for the First-Year English Course*

| Policy | |
|---|---|
| English Department policy for the first-year English course | A basic set of standard elements may include the following: (1) basic parts of speech; (2) subject-verb agreement; (3) pronoun reference and agreement; (4) verb tense consistency; (5) basic sentence structure; (6) sentence completeness; (7) basic spelling confusions; (8) basic punctuation. The Department agrees that all sections will include a final grammar test, evaluating editing skills and points of grammar covered. |

The construction of the policy indicates that if students can master grammar, spelling, and punctuation, they are considered standard monolingual speakers and writers. Focusing on grammar and skills approaches as if these are autonomous processes, limits the view of language

and writing as belonging to a specific social context. Cummins (2007) states that "monolingual approaches do acknowledge the role of prior knowledge, limiting what students can express through their L2" (p. 67). There is no sense or mention of how to speak and write for a particular audience in mind to fulfil a specific social purpose to be entirely reliable or to provide an equitable assessment, especially for linguistically and culturally diverse students. One way that they are associated with linguistic inequity occurs in the streaming process at the college level, and in the creation of policies to regulate English courses in English-medium colleges.

### Second and Third Levels of Critical Discourse Analysis for the English Department Policy

The second and third levels of the critical discourse analysis encompassed an exploration of how policies are replicated, specifically discourses on language and writing standards in other policies such as *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies. Institutional policies drive curricular and assessment practices and classify the placement of students. For instance, colleges create their own streams and assign their own internal course numbers and titles for the first-year English course. To regulate the criteria established by the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* for proficiency in the language of instruction, English-medium colleges conduct entry-level placement tests for students entering college. Placement tests may include some grammar, but they mainly assess students' ability to write an essay based on a reading or a specific topic. In practice, the streaming of students is carried out locally, at the college-level. According to the results from the placements tests, students are placed in a specific stream for the first-year course. Students who are deemed not to adhere to the standards outlined in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the first-year English course are placed in remedial streams as described in the English Department policy.

Table 13 lists the descriptions for the 3 streams of the first-year college English course.

Table 13

*Descriptions: 3 Streams of the First-Year College English Course*

| | |
|---|---|
| **Stream #1:** | This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate a **standard entry-level competency in college English.** |
| **Stream #2:** | This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate **notable problems with college-level English reading and writing.** |
| **Stream #3:** | This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate **significant ESL problems** with college-level English reading and/or writing. |

The first stream is for students who are deemed to have shown a "*standard entry-level of English.*" Students who are assessed as not producing a "*standard entry-level of English*" are placed in one of the two remedial credited sections of the first-year college English course. The second stream is described for students with *"notable problems with college-level English reading and writing" and the third stream is for students who have "significant ESL problems with college-level English reading and/or writing"* (see Table 13). The criteria appear to be tacit and require producing *"standard"* spoken or written English without *"notable problems,"* or *"significant ESL problems,"* to be considered competent in English (see Table 13). The policy classifies language and writing into two main categories: (spoken) language and (written) language; the related words and phrases denote the experiential and expressive values associated with the ministerially mandated literacy standards to evaluate proficiency. The elements of competency and performance criteria in the English Department policy for RQ1 replicate the criteria in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the first year L1 English course that, in turn, has been translated from the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the first year L1 French course.

The English and French *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for the first year L1 French and L1 English courses demonstrate how language, writing, and assessment criteria are translated and then transported from one educational context to another. The criteria for first year L1 English courses in English-medium colleges have not been created specifically for L1 English courses or for the specific student population who attends English colleges, most of whom are plurilingual (Office de consultation publique de Montréal, 2020; Statistics Canada, 2022). In the translation process of the policies from French to English, the lack of consideration of the different educational settings can create issues with accuracy in the terminology as well as in the interpretation and implementation of the policies. Translating policies for different contexts comprises knowing the languages involved and understanding the cultural background to translate policy accordingly and accurately. Literal translations from one language to another do not always work because each language possesses its own linguistic and cultural competencies to interpret and to adapt the meaning and aim to a specific target audience. As a result, it is important to keep the purpose of the policy in mind as well as the social and cultural factors that can affect those for whom the policy is geared.

Table 14 includes the English and French *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies for the first-year L1 French and L1 English introductory courses.

Table 14

*Language of Instruction and Literature and Langue d'enseignment et litérature*

| Policy: *Language of Instruction and Literature* (First Year L1 English course) | *Language of Instruction and Literature*: http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/en/contenus-communs/enseignement-superieur/college-education/general-education-components/ |
|---|---|
| **Elements of the Competency** | Analyze and produce various forms of discourse |
| **Performance Criteria #1:** Identify the characteristics and functions of the components of literary texts. | **Accurate** explanation of the denotation of words<br>**Adequate** recognition of the appropriate connotation of words<br>**Accurate** definition of the characteristics of each component |
| **Performance Criteria #2:** Determine the organization of facts and arguments of a given literary text | **Clear** and **accurate** recognition of the main idea and structure<br>**Clear** presentation of the strategies employed to develop an argument or thesis |
| **Performance Criteria #3:** Prepare ideas and strategies | **Appropriate** identification of topics and ideas discourse.<br>**Adequate** gathering of pertinent information<br>**Clear** formulation of a thesis<br>**Coherent** ordering of supporting material |
| **Performance Criteria #4:** **Formulate** a discourse | **Appropriate** choice of tone and diction<br>**Correct** development of sentences<br>**Clear** and **coherent** development of paragraphs<br>**Formulation of a 750-word discourse** |
| **Performance Criteria #5:** Revise the work | **Appropriate** use of revision strategies<br>**Appropriate** revision of form and content |

| Policy: *Language d'enseignement et litérature* (First-Year L1 French course) | *Langue d'enseignement et litérature:* http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/en/contenus-communs/enseignement-superieur/college-education/general-education-components/ |
|---|---|
| **Éléments de la compétence** | **Critères de performance** |
| **Performance Criteria #1:** Reconnaître le propos du texte. | Formulation **juste** des éléments importants du propos du texte. |
| **Performance Criteria #2:** Repérer et classer des thèmes et des procédés stylistiques. | Relevé des principales manifestations thématiques et stylistiques.<br>Classement **approprié** des principales manifestations thématiques et stylistiques. |
| **Performance Criteria #3:** Choisir les éléments d'analyse. | Liens pertinents entre le propos du texte, les manifestations thématiques et les manifestations stylistiques. |
| **Performance Criteria #4:** Élaborer un plan de rédaction. | Choix judicieux des idées principales et des idées secondaires du plan de rédaction.<br>Pertinence et cohérence du plan.<br>Structure du plan de rédaction en trois parties: introduction, développement et conclusion. |
| **Performance Criteria #5:** Rédiger une analyse littéraire, un commentaire composé ou une explication de textes. | Utilisation **appropriée** des éléments d'analyse.<br>Organisation logique du paragraphe et des paragraphes entre eux.<br>**Précision** et richesse du vocabulaire.<br>**Respect** du registre de langue **approprié.**<br>**Respect** des règles de présentation d'une production écrite.<br>**Respect** des règles orthographiques, grammaticales, syntaxiques et de ponctuation.<br>**Rédaction d'un texte d'au moins 700 mots.** |
| **Performance Criteria #6:** Réviser et corriger le texte. | Utilisation **appropriée** de stratégies de révision.<br>Correction **appropriée** du texte. |

In equating the original French policy to the translated English version, even sections that are translated literally from French to English do not distinguish how to evaluate the performance criteria in French, for example, *"règles orthographiques, grammaticales, syntaxiques et de ponctuation"* (see Table 14) from how to enforce *"appropriate choice of tone and diction; correct development of sentences," "accurate recognition of the appropriate connotation of words"* and *"accurate definitions of the characteristics of each component"* in English to be considered a standard speaker and writer of college-level English and to be able to pass the course. Furthermore, problems can also arise when considering different educational systems and socio-cultural conventions and genre expectations such as translating the French essay to an English-language setting. To pass the L1 French course in French-speaking colleges, students must *"rédiger une analyse littéraire, un commentaire composé, ou une explication de textes"* (see Table 14, Performance Criteria #5). For the L1 English first-year course in English-medium colleges, the policy translated from the French states that students need to *"formulate a discourse"* (see Table 14, Performance Criteria #4). Even though the policy criteria for English-medium college courses are adapted from the policy criteria for French-speaking college courses, they do not address the different educational context of English-medium colleges or the specific student population who attend them, most of whom have diverse and complex linguistic and cultural backgrounds and prior educational experiences. The literacy requirements in the policy do not refer to the specific social situation of the audience or the participants to which the policy is directed by referring to the plurilingual and pluricultural reality of students. Moreover, the literacy criteria and assumptions stem from the colonial history of North America, specifically the essay as the main form of assessment (Kalan, 2021; Motha, 2020).

Historically, the essay as a dominant genre serves to socialize and integrate students to mono-cultural and monolingual ideologies in language and writing that reinforce Anglo-centric ways of thinking, speaking, and writing in higher education (Kalan, 2021). As reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.5., genres are embedded with ideologies, ways of thinking, and ways of being that may not align with learners' linguistic, cultural, and experiential backgrounds. When students are learning how to produce a genre, they are also learning how to produce a particular kind of identity (Kalan, 2022). The focus on genres such as the essay can limit students' ability to integrate their own voices in their writing, and how they construct their identities within academic communities, by constraining how and what they write (Brannon et al., 2008;

Womack, 1993). Prioritizing privileged genres can play a determining factor in learners' academic success, since the genres that students are expected to produce inform how educators evaluate them. It is the discounting of how genres are situated in disciplines with common criteria and outcomes that facilitates assessing students as remedial. Adhering to genre conventions can also serve to exclude learners' diverse languages and cultures. In contrast, intercultural rhetoric asserts that language and writing are social actions that occur in specific contexts and between individuals with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Intercultural rhetoric considers the interactions of languages, writing, and cultures in particular social situations, which necessitates a process of negotiation, cooperation, and accommodation (Connor 2011; 2018). Therefore, it contests a binary or remedial view of writing to consider the individual rhetorical situation between different spoken and/or written discourses and cultures. To apply current mandated criteria necessitates embracing the personal, social, and cultural reality of speakers and writers who possess diverse and complex language and writing backgrounds and prior experiences. For instance, empirical studies on plurilinguals' writing practices reviewed in Section 3.5. (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Payant, 2020; Payant & Maatouk, 2020; Séror & Gentil, 2020) found that learners use other linguistic and cultural traditions during the writing process. These studies also highlighted that writing is a social practice and necessitates an awareness of the socio-historical nature of writing. Understanding how students speak and write can help them to draw upon their linguistic, and cultural identities in different disciplinary settings. Effective speaking and writing incorporate the full range of learners' speaking and writing knowledge and experiences. As Kalan (2021; 2022) argues, teaching a new genre necessitates recognizing and adjusting to learners' dialectical, linguistic, and cultural competencies to a new disciplinary context to utilize the skills that students already possess to produce mandated genre criteria. Acknowledging learners' speaking and writing competencies by including plurilingual perspectives can also challenge conventional linguistic hierarchies.

Plurilingualism does not compartmentalize communicative practices for specific purposes in distinct settings (Piccardo, 2013), and so it is defined in opposition to those whose literacy practices are regarded as normative and standard. Furthermore, plurilingual approaches can facilitate an exploration of the intersection between language, culture, and identity, since learners rely upon multiple and complex communicative and cultural competencies (Cummins, 2019; Marshall, 2020). Galante et al. (2022) and Piccardo et al. (2022) reveal that students become

effective speakers and writers when they are engaged with the tasks that they are assigned. In practice, however, implementing plurilingual pedagogies can appear difficult due to the emphasis on monolingual methods in L2, and L3 classroom situations (Galante et al., 2020; Payant, 2020; Payant & Galante, 2022). The textual structure and the expressive values of the words in the policies for RQ 1 were classified into two categories: (1) positive values for those who comply and (2) negative values for those who do not adhere to the criteria in the English Department and *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policies. The lack of adequate integration of plurilingual students in college curricula and policies can contribute to the use of remedial discourses to describe and to evaluate plurilingual students that may have implications for language, writing, and assessment practices, which highlights the next finding: remedial discourses and systemic marginalization of plurilingual students.

### 5.2.2. Remedial Discourses and Systemic Marginalization of Plurilingual Students

The second finding relates to the systematic marginalization and exclusion of plurilingual students. Standard beliefs about language proficiency can propagate remedial discourses by focusing on what students lack instead of the competencies that they have already acquired. Such views can lead to misunderstanding students' use of language, specifically how they speak and write because they are assessed as having linguistic deficiencies and needing to acquire a standard level of proficiency as outlined in mandated policy.

***First Level of Critical Discourse Analysis for the English Department Policy***

As explained in the first finding for RQ1, colleges create their own streams for the first-year English course based on placement test results that classify students according to perceived standardized criteria for English proficiency. The selected college English Department policy has three streams for the first-year course, two of which are considered remedial streams. The first level of critical discourse analysis entailed a lexical analysis for the three streams for the first-year English course in the chosen English Department policy for English-medium colleges.

Table 15 outlines the descriptions for the three streams of the first-year college English course, including the descriptions of students who are placed in each stream and that also serve to organize and to classify plurilingual students according to linguistic categories.

Table 15

*Description for the 3 streams: first-year college English course*

| Stream #1: | This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate a **fairly high level of competency in writing English.** |
|---|---|
| Stream #2: | This course is directed to students whose Placement Test results indicate a less proficient level of competency in writing English. **These are often *Allophone* students who speak English well but who have not focused much on improving their writing abilities.** Some students may also be stronger in English as Second Language (ESL) students who write with about the same level of competency as *Allophone* students but who may not have as much fluency in speaking English […] more time would be given over to improving problems with written expression and essay organization. |
| Stream #3: | This course is addressed to students whose Placement Test results indicate a **generally problematic level of competency in writing English.** Most **[…] are ESL students who write with typical second language errors** […] these students […] **are also often more motivated to improve their skills and recognize that they are facing a significant challenge in attending an English college**. In some cases, less proficient *Allophone* students may also be placed in [this] course […] more time would be focused on improving problems with written expression, particularly common second language errors. |

### First stream of the first-year English course

The first stream is designated for students *"whose results in their entry-level Placement Test indicate a fairly high level of competency in writing English"* (see Table 16). These students are not explicitly identified, and the implication is that they adhere to standards outlined in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy for the first-year English course* (see Table 14 and/or Appendix F) and that are reproduced in the English Department policy.

### Second and third stream of the first-year English course

The English Department policy for the second and third streams of the first-year English course concurrently relate to remediation and to *"Allophone"* and/or *"ESL students."* In these two streams, there are direct and explicit references to plurilingual students. Yet, in the selected college policy text, plurilingual students are referred to as *"Allophone"* and/or "*ESL"* students. For example, the second stream is designated for *"students whose Placement Test results indicate a less proficient level of competency in writing English"* (see Table 16, Policy #2). The students in the second stream are explicitly referred to as *"Allophone"* students *"who speak English well but who have not focused much on improving their writing abilities"* (see Table 16, Policy #2). Therefore, *"Allophone"* students are directly linked to having a "*less proficient level of competency in writing English*" as well as being conflated with negative value assumptions because they have not *"focused much on improving their writing English"* (see Table 16, Policy

#2). *"Allophone"* students as subjects or participants are compared to the standard stream of the first-year English course and are described as *not* speaking, *not* writing, *not* knowing, or *not* producing monolingual language and writing expectations in the college English Department policy (see Table 16, Policy #1 and Policy #2). Additionally, students are described as *not* having *"as much fluency in speaking English,"* and teachers are advised that *"more time would be given over to improving problems with written expression and essay organization"* (see Table 16, Policy #2). The English Department policy excerpt for the third stream of the first-year English course states that it is *"addressed to students whose Placement Test results indicate a generally problematic level of competency in writing English"* (see Table 16, Policy #3). Students placed in this stream are those *"who write with typical second language errors,"* and are defined as *"ESL"* students who decided to attend English college (see Table 16, Policy #3). The categories *"Allophone"* and *"ESL"* demonstrate that the distinction along linguistic lines is not necessarily transparent or equitable. As Inoue (2017) states, "Judging everyone by the same standard is not an inherently fair practice in a writing classroom" (p. 58). Consequently, institutional policies serve to separate students' L1 and L2 languages.

Separating heritage or home (i.e., "first") language(s) and a new target language or the language of instruction of an academic institution can have consequences for students identified as *"Allophone,"* a term that has become synonyms with plurilingual students. The vocabulary and grammar groupings in the policy reflect the ideological, experiential, and expressive value of language and writing criteria that students need to produce in the three streams of the first-year English course. *"Allophone"* students are defined in terms of how they are viewed as passivated subjects who cannot fulfil the mandated elements of competency and performance criteria due to their cultural and/or linguistic backgrounds. Plurilingual students are identified as different from monolingual speakers and writers, facilitating their placement into one of the remedial streams for the first-year English course. Since the literacy practices and prior education experiences of plurilinguals are often classified as deficient, the language and writing criteria in college English Department policy texts can promote and propagate inequities in academic settings.

The English Department policy excerpt for the second stream states that it is for *"Allophone"* students who *"have not focused much on improving their writing abilities"* (see Table 16, Policy #2). Although *"ESL"* students who are placed in the third stream are described as having *"more fundamental problems with writing English"* than *"Allophone"* students, they

are portrayed as being *"more motivated to improve their skills and recognize that they are facing a significant challenge in attending an English college"* (see Table 16, Policy #3). There are different personal value assumptions ascribed to *"Allophone"* students than to *"ESL"* students even when they are placed in the same stream (see Table 16, Policy #3). The distinction between *"ESL"* and *"Allophone"* students is shown in the description for the third stream by stating that, at times, "*less proficient Allophone students may also be placed"* in the third stream along with *"ESL"* students (see Table 16, Policy #3). *"Allophone"* students are explicitly differentiated from *"ESL"* students even though these students are assumed to have more *"problems with written expression, particularly common second language errors"* than *"Allophone"* students (see Table 16, Policy #3). The description for the second stream for the first-year English course states that *"Allophone"* students, along with *"'ESL' students who write with about the same level of competency as 'Allophone' students, but who may not have as much fluency in speaking English"* (see Table 16, Policy #2) may be placed in the second stream. Again, this practice divides *"Allophone"* students from *"ESL"* students who are placed in this stream and who are described as having *"not focused much on improving their writing abilities"* (see Table 16, Policy #2). The descriptions in the policy seem to hold *"Allophone"* students responsible for their professed inadequacies in speaking and writing and suggest that these behaviours were expected only of *"Allophone"* students, in effect, "Othering" them twice. First, *"Allophone"* students are perceived as not conforming to the criteria for the standard level of the first-year English course. Second, they are differentiated from *"ESL"* students, who are defined as having *"second-language problems,"* while *"Allophone"* students are portrayed as not *"focusing on improving their writing"* (see Table 16, Policy #2 and Policy #3). Students in the two remedial streams are described as linguistically different from standard learners, attributed with negative assumptions and expectations about their spoken and written English, and labelled as linguistically different from standard learners. In other words, plurilingual learners "are engaging in dynamic linguistic practices that do not conform to monolingual norms" (Rosa & Flores, 2020, p. 153), which is an outcome of assessing learners as failing to master the mandated literacy standards and relegating them "to a place outside the school norm, resulting in their subjection to remedial educational approaches" (García, et al., 2021, p. 209). Furthermore, the use of the imperative delineates what students must do in a series of synonymous words and declares what they need to *"produce, formulate, explicate, identify, recognize, determine,*

*prepare, use, plan*, and/or *comprehend"* to demonstrate the criteria in the English Department policy text (see Table 16), which is contrary to scholarship that advocates for the validation of students' language and writing repertoires (Galante, 2021b; Lau, 2020). Contrarily, standardized literacy criteria that negatively evaluate plurilingual learners can play a role in reproducing and perpetuating discriminatory practices.

Discriminatory practices emerge from the fact that monolingual standards limit the discursive spaces from which plurilinguals can draw upon their language and writing resources. These students are more likely to be delegated to remedial streams for the first-year English course. Since language and writing standards in policies undervalue the linguistic and cultural competencies of plurilingual and pluricultural learners, policies can authorize and regulate deficit discourses and remedial practices for plurilingual learners.

These findings show that the policy clearly distinguishes between L1 and L2 students. Concurrently, such notions negate and/or ignore the possibility that these students might not fit either categorization, which is a practice that emerges from absolutist attitudes that do not situate language use in a specific social or educational context. Rosa and Flores (2015) explain how "the ideological construction and value of standardized language practices are anchored in what [they] term *raciolinguistic ideologies* that conflate certain racialized bodies with linguistic deficiency" (p. 150). This distinction manifests itself in deficit ideologies that negatively classify the semiotic and communicative practices of non-standard English speakers and writers (e.g., Charity-Hudley et al., 2020; Rosa, 2020). For example, classifying learners along binary terms such as standard and non-standard perpetuates the perception that those labelled as L1 learners are "appropriate" speakers and writers and those labelled as L2 learners are remedial (Flores, 2020). Cummins (2000) states that the primary aim entails implementing approaches that focus on learners acquiring a so-called standard proficiency in English. The "implied linguistic assumption that undergirds these efforts is that students must lose the linguistic practices with which they were raised in order to acquire proficiency in Standard English" (Flores & Rosa, 2015, p. 152) to acculturate students to monolingual standards by devaluing their plurilingual and pluricultural competencies.

García et al. (2021) clarify that when plurilingual students' repertoires are assessed as diverging from a supposed standard, the evaluation is not purely linguistic; it is viewed as a deviation from an idealized perception of standard-speaking subjects. The findings show how

ministerial and English Department policies regulate and perpetuate monolingualism in language learning and teaching as the norm, refuting the notion of inclusion as not applicable to everyone by segregating those who do not fit normalized assumptions about language and writing (Marshall, 2020) such as delegating them to remedial and/or non-credit courses English courses.

### *Second and Third Level of Critical Discourse Analysis for the English Department Policy*

The second and third levels of the critical discourse analysis for the English Department policy examined references to language and writing in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the remedial course, *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2018). This is a 60-90-hour non-credit preparatory course for students assessed as not qualified to enroll in the first-year English course. The purpose for the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* course is in the introductory section of the policy:

> *Remedial activities allow students to meet certain admission requirements for a program leading to a Diploma of College Studies or to an Attestation of College Studies. They are focused on the knowledge considered essential to meet these requirements. Activities conducive to success enable the students to acquire competencies that the college deems essential for pursuing their college studies.* (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, p. 1, 2018).

The goal is to enable students to be eligible to register for the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* first-year English course, *Language of Instruction and Literature* (see Table 15). The *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* website for college remedial courses outlines the purpose for all remedial courses in the Quebec higher education system, including for the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* (see Table 16).

Table 16 lists the elements of competency and performance criteria for the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Languages* Arts (see Appendix F or Table 16 for the link).

Table 16

*Compulsory Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts*

| Policy: *Compulsory Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* | Le programme du secondaire peut être consulté sur le site Internet du ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport: http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/en/references/tx-solrtyperecherchepublicationtx-solrpublicationnouveaute/results/detail/article/uniform-examinations-english-language-arts-reading-612-520-production-612-530-secondary-v/ |
|---|---|
| **Statement of the Competency** | **Performance Criteria** |
| **Element of Competency #1:** To comprehend oral and written discourse | **Adequate** recognition of the meaning of words, word groups and idioms. **Adequate** recognition of central ideas. **Adequate** recognition of supporting ideas and details. **Adequate** understanding of techniques used. |
| **Element of Competency #2:** To plan various forms of oral and written discourse | **Appropriate** use of preparation strategies. **Clear** statement of a central idea. Effective planning for the development of a central idea. **Clear** organization of supporting ideas and details. |
| **Element of Competency #3:** To produce a discourse | **Production of a 500-word written discourse.** **Clear** formulation of a thesis statement. Consistent development of supporting ideas. **Appropriate** use of grammar and syntax. **Appropriate** use of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. **Appropriate** choice and use of words. **Adequate** development of sentences and paragraphs. |
| **Element of Competency #4:** To edit the discourse | **Appropriate** use of revision strategies. **Accurate** correction of the discourse. |

The *Preparation for College English: Remedial Secondary V Language Arts* policy outlines that students need to produce *"appropriate use of grammar and syntax," "appropriate use of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization," "appropriate choice and use of words," "adequate development of sentences and paragraphs"* (see Table 16 or Appendix F) to be evaluated as proficient speakers and writers of English. The intent of the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* course, *Preparation for College English: Remedial Secondary V Language Arts* is to ensure that students can demonstrate an *"adequate recognition of the meaning of words, word groups and idioms," "adequate recognition of central ideas," "adequate recognition of supporting ideas and details,"* and an *"adequate understanding of techniques used"* (see Table 16 or Appendix F). In general, the phrases that are used in the excerpts from the ministerial policy are declarative with a positive attitude for those who adhere to the mandated criteria. The declarative and imperative formal grammatical structures signify the authority of the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and the position of power and influence over the intended audience, namely, educators and administrators. The belief is that the targeted

audience will understand the learning outcomes and performance criteria to ensure how the policy will be interpreted and implemented in institutional settings. The declarative phrases and sentences express the official tone of the ministerial policy to mandate and regulate language and writing in English-medium college classrooms for students and, as such, the statements in the policy are presented as unquestionable and uncontested. The problem is that the propagation of language and writing as standard or universal skills tacitly inscribe and protect dominant language and writing genres and assessment practices to pass the ministerially mandated course(s). The analysis highlights how language, writing, and assessment practices privileged by academic institutions can disadvantage students who are perceived not to conform to the mandated literacy criteria. The supposition is that plurilinguals are not standard speakers and writers of English, and not suitable for academic higher education. Flores (2020) argues that "academic language is a raciolinguistic ideology that frames racialized students as linguistically deficient and in need of remediation" (p. 22). The outcome of such attitudes is to label plurilinguals as deficient and to relegate them to English instruction outside of disciplinary classrooms, for example, by placing them in non-credit preparatory courses or remedial courses (Makmillen & Norman, 2019; Sterzuk, 2015), including in Quebec.

In a Quebec context, a report entitled *Racial Profiling and the Systematic Discrimination of Racialized Youth* (Eid et al., 2011) by the *Commission des droits de la personne et des droits de la jeunesse* (Human Rights and Youth Commission), a government agency that promotes and protects the rights of youth as mandated by the *Youth Protection Act* and the *Youth Criminal Justice Act,* addressed systemic discrimination in the public sector among racialized, immigrant and/or "*Allophone"* youth. The section in the report on the education sector concluded that there is a link between students categorized as racialized, immigrant and/or "*Allophone"* and an increase in these students being misdiagnosed as having learning disabilities, social maladjustments, labeled as "special needs," being "at risk" or placed in remedial language classes. The report on institutional discrimination of racialized, immigrant, and/or *"Allophone"* learners highlights the need to question standardized discourses about plurilingual learners in academic institutions (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020).

Institutional monolingualism can marginalize languages learned at home, in social and/or school settings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017), for instance, by mandating a separation between L1, L2, and/or L3 language practices. As reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.5., plurilingual learners do not

compartmentalize their languages and cultures (Canagarajah, 2018; Galante, 2021a; Marshall & Moore, 2013). Instead, they are interconnected with their personal, cultural, social, and lived experiences (Marshall, 2020). For example, a study by (Galante, 2022) found that plurilingual instruction benefits students' cognition, empathy, and criticality during the learning process. The findings indicate that plurilingual pedagogies can be more efficient and effective than monolingual methods. As a result, plurilingualism combines inclusive and critical pedagogies to address inequities and linguistic discrimination in educational and social settings.

Additionally, plurilingual pedagogies can enable teachers to develop a critical perspective and a metalinguistic awareness regarding students' plurilingual and pluricultural competencies and repertoires (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Lau et al., 2020). However, integrating plurilingual pedagogies can present challenges for teachers who have difficulty overcoming or resisting monolingual practices in language teaching (Galante, 2020). To implement a change requires a shift in ideologies related to monolingual policies, language learning, and pedagogical practices that can assess students as deficient, which leads to the third finding: conflating language and writing proficiency with negative personal value assumptions and attributes.

### 5.2.3. Deficit Discourses for Plurilingual Students: Conflating Negative Value Assumptions and Personal Attributes with Language and Writing Proficiency

The third finding relates to deficit discourses for plurilingual students, conflating negative value assumptions and personal attributes with language and writing proficiency.

***First Level of Critical Discourse Analysis***

Findings from the first-level of critical discourse analysis found that students categorized as *"Allophone"* were subject to deficit descriptions in the English Department policy text and often labelled as remedial. Additionally, for the third finding, *"Allophone"* students were also ascribed with deficient individual characteristics and traits.

Table 17 lists the methodology descriptions for students in the English Department policy for the three streams for the first-year college English course.

Table 17

*Methodology Descriptions for English Department Policy*

| | |
|---|---|
| **Stream #1:** | **Methodology description for the first stream English introductory course:**<br>*"While this course is currently addressed to students with **standard** entry-level competency in college English, these students do not necessarily have much experience with careful literary analysis. Critical reading and analytical-essay writing should be incorporated and highlighted in this course … teachers should not assume that these students have mastered the basics of writing and should include appropriate instruction in fundamental essay writing, sentence, and grammar skills."* |
| **Stream #2:** | **Methodology description for the second stream of English introductory course:**<br>*"This course is currently addressed to students with **notable problems** with college-level English reading and writing. Students in this level often struggle with reading comprehension, critical thinking, and/or organization … more time needs to be devoted to improving written expression and essay organization … students in this course may be more likely to display significant difficulties with motivation, general study skills, and time management."* |
| **Stream #3:** | **Methodology description for the second stream of English introductory course:**<br>*"This course is currently addressed to students with **significant ESL problems** in college-level English reading and/or writing. Critical reading and analytical-essay writing will be important in this course, but more time will be focused on improving written expression, particularly common second-language errors … students are more likely to display significant difficulties with motivation, general study skills, and time management."* |

In the English Department policy for the first-year English course, students are placed in one of the three different streams according to their professed proficiency. Teachers are informed that they *"should not assume that these students have mastered the basics of writing and should include appropriate instruction in fundamental essay writing, sentence and grammar skills"* (see Table 17, Level 1) and that they may *"struggle with reading comprehension, critical thinking, and/or organization"* (see Table 17, Level 1). Specifically, the second stream is predominately designated for *"Allophone"* students; aside from stating that these students have *"a problematic level of competency in writing,"* they are also described as not having *"focused on improving their writing"* and on having *"a problematic level of competency in writing"* in English (see Table 17, Policy #2). The stream is "*currently addressed to students with notable problems with college-level English reading and writing. Students in this level often struggle with reading comprehension, critical thinking, and/or organization"* (see Table 17, Level 2). Deficient academic descriptions can lead to negative personal expectations about *"Allophone"* students who are defined as more likely to display *"significant difficulties with motivation, general study skills, and time management,"* and as being *"not prepared"* (see Table 17, Level 2). These suppositions suggest that *"Allophone"* students cannot possess a standard level of proficiency simply because they are *"Allophone."* Therefore, *"Allophone"* students are simultaneously

described as having *"significant difficulties"* and *"notable problems"* with English, in addition to being *"not prepared," "not motivated"* and possessing problems with "*time management"* and *"general study skills"* (see Table 17, Level 2). The policy relies on specific terminology to describe *"Allophone"* students by focusing on the competencies that they *should* possess as opposed to the competencies that they already *do* possess (Van Viegen & Lau, 2020).

For the third finding, when students' repertoires are deemed to deviate from the mandated criteria, they are concurrently blamed and condemned for their apparent language and writing differences. The categorizations for the remedial streams for the first-year English course are created for students who are judged as not standard, in other words, as not being monolingual. The lack of integration of plurilinguals' repertoire reflects the prevalence of "prescriptive ideologies, which dictate that there is one correct way of using languages and arbitrarily privilege particular linguistic practices while stigmatizing others" (Flora & Rosa, 2015, p. 150). Students who cannot produce the criteria in mandated policies are assessed as remedial. These students are ostracized by being placed outside academic spaces and are also attributed with deficit personal qualities. The main outcome is that plurilinguals are considered to be unqualified to participate in academic communities such as English courses in English-medium colleges.

For instance, the English Department policy describes *"Allophone"* students as having difficulties with *"motivation," "general study skills," "time management"* and being *"not prepared,"* conflating language competency with negative individual value assumptions (see Table 17, Level 2 and Level 3). The implication is that they are responsible for their lack of proficiency in English because the way that they speak and write is assessed as divergent from normative linguistic standards. Subsequently, *"Allophone"* students are depicted as *passivated* subjects who cannot comply with the mandated literacy requirements. Furthermore, concepts of language and writing that differ from monolingual criteria can relegate plurilinguals' language and writing outside of the norms outlined in mandated policies and, possibly, outside of the norms of the college, resulting in their personal and academic subjugation.

### *Second and Third Levels of Critical Discourse Analysis*

The second and third levels of critical discourse analysis identified how language and writing proficiency are conceptualized from one policy to another, interpreted in academic settings by administrators and educators, and implemented in institutional and classroom

contexts. Mandated genres are shaped by the values and beliefs of particular social groups that position speakers and writers as participating in these interests and practices (see Kalan, 2020). In a Quebec context, these values and beliefs emerge from a social environment that is monolingual (i.e., French) and mono-cultural (i.e., Francophone) and that is reproduced in the English education system. The competency and performance criteria in the ministerial and department policies state that students must demonstrate language proficiency by writing an essay with "*appropriate choice of tone and diction; correct development of sentences; clear and coherent development of paragraphs; explication of a 750-word discourse*" (see Table 14, Performance Criteria #4). The essay is also the privileged genre for the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature*. This exam evaluates English proficiency in English-medium colleges before assigning students their college diploma. (Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur, 2021).

The *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* policy is for English-medium colleges because French colleges write a different exam, *"L'épreuve uniforme de français"* (see Table 18, Policy #4). Since the essay genre is the main learning outcome for all four English courses, it appears in other policy texts to evaluate language proficiency, including the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* document. The description states that the main aim is for students to prove that they have acquired *"a sufficient level of competence in reading and writing to understand literary texts and to express a relevant critical viewpoint using correct English"* according to the criteria in the rubric (see Table 18, Policy #3). In English-medium colleges, the essay is theme-based, with literary techniques and devices as support, whereas for the French Exit Exam, the French essay is a *"critique"* that asks for an opinion, arguments, and examples (see Table 18, Policy #2). In comparing the two texts, they require different competencies that are not so easily connected to what English teachers do to prepare students to write the English Exit Exam (see Table 18, Policy #1). There is an overlap because the competencies and performance criteria are similar (i.e., the English ones are translated from the French), but the two texts describe two different sets of competencies that are not easily translated from one language to another or transferred from one education setting to another. The essay, as a dominant genre, serves as a way to acculturate students to language and writing practices that reinforce Anglo-centric or Francocentric ways of thinking, speaking, and writing (Kalan, 2021).

Table 18 includes excerpts from the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policies for first-year English courses as well as the goals and rubrics for the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* for English-medium colleges and *"L'épreuve uniforme de français"* for French-speaking colleges.

Table 18

*Writing Guideline Excerpts: Ministry of Education and English Department Policies*

| Policy #1 *Language of Instruction and Literature* | **Elements of the Competency:** To explicate a discourse |
| | **Performance Criteria:** Appropriate choice of tone and diction; correct development of sentences; clear and coherent development of paragraphs; explication of a 750-word discourse |
| Policy #2 English Department policy | **Guidelines: The English Department agrees that:** <br> - All students should write at least **two major essays** in every 101 course <br> - The major essays should constitute at least **50% of the final grade** |
| Policy #3 *The goal and rubric for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* | ***Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature:*** <br> https://www.quebec.ca/en/education/cegep/language-examinations/english <br> The goal of the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* is to ensure that, by the end of the three English courses of language of instruction and literature that are part of the general education component common to all programs, students have acquired a sufficient level of competence in reading and writing to understand literary texts and to express a relevant critical viewpoint using correct English. Students have four hours to read the three texts provided and write a <u>formal essay of 750 words</u> (p.1). <br> ***Rubric: Criterion objectives to be met*** |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | **COMPREHENSION AND INSIGHT** | 1. recognition of a main idea from the selected reading <br> 2. identification of techniques and/or devices as employed by the author <br> 3. evidence of critical or analytical interpretation of the selection <br> 4. references which demonstrate understanding of the reading |
| | **ORGANIZATION OF RESPONSE** | 1. statement of a thesis about the text <br> 2. structured development of the essay <br> 3. use of supporting detail <br> 4. unified paragraph structure |
| | **EXPRESSION** | 1. appropriate use of words <br> 2. varied and correct sentence structures <br> 3. correct grammar <br> 4. conventional spelling, punctuation, and mechanics |

A grade of D, E, or F in any criterion means that the student has failed the examination.

| Policy #4 *Le but pour l'épreuve uniforme de français et le grille d'évaluation* <br><br> (*The goal and rubric for the Ministerial Examination of College French*) | **L'épreuve uniforme de français:** <br> https://www.quebec.ca/education/cegep/epreuve-langue/francais <br><br> L'épreuve uniforme de français a pour but de vérifier que l'élève possède, au terme des trois cours de formation générale commune en langue d'enseignement et littérature, les compétences suffisantes en lecture et en écriture pour comprendre des textes littéraires et **énoncer un point de vue critique** pertinent, cohérent et écrit dans une langue correcte. L'élève doit démontrer qu'il possède les compétences suivantes: comprendre des textes littéraires; énoncer et justifier de façon **convaincante un point de vue critique** pertinent et cohérent; rédiger un texte structuré; écrire dans un français correct. […] La dissertation critique est un exposé écrit et raisonné sur un sujet qui porte à discussion. Dans cet exposé, l'élève doit prendre position et soutenir son point de vue à l'aide d'arguments cohérents et convaincants, de preuves tirées des textes proposés et de ses connaissances littéraires (p. 1). |

The mandated rubric for the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* evaluates *"appropriate use of words," "correct grammar," "correct sentences," "conventional spelling,"* and *"mechanics"* (see Table 18, Policy #3). Comparably, the rubric for *L'épreuve uniforme de français* assesses whether students can use "*un vocabulaire précis et varié, et sa façon de s'exprimer est claire,"* or construct *"des phrases correctes et place adéquatement les signes de ponctuation,"* or respect, *"l'orthographe d'usage et l'orthographe grammaticale"* (see Table 18, Policy #4). The underlying notion is that language and writing are specific skills to be assessed. The expectation is that students need to show a sufficient level of proficiency in English or French, according to the criteria in the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* and *L'épreuve uniforme de français* rubrics to obtain their college diploma (see Table 18, Policy #3 and Policy #4). Nonetheless, neither the English nor the French texts reflect empirical studies with students who speak more than one language that detail how plurilinguals rely on their prior knowledge to become more engaged with speaking and writing (e.g., Galante, 2019; 2020a; 2022; Lau et al., 2020). Depending on the specific social situation (e.g., Galante, 2021; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020), learners make personal, cultural, and/or linguistic connections that serve as valuable resources during the language learning and writing process (e.g., Ballinger et al., 2020; Payant & Galante, 2022; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). As a result, policies that mandate and regulate monolingualism can affect how learners are assessed academically and personally.

In the English Department policy, *"Allophone"* students are described as not having *"focused on improving their English skills,"* and as having *"significant difficulties"* and *"notable problems"* with English. Not only are "*Allophones"* (i.e., plurilinguals) often labelled as remedial when compared to monolingual learners (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Makmillen & Norman, 2019; Marshall, 2020), they are also associated to deficit personal qualities along with their deficient academic abilities (Kalan, 2022). For example, *Allophones* (i.e., plurilinguals) are concurrently portrayed as being *"not prepared,"* or *"not motivated"* as well as having problems with *"general study skills"* and with *"time management"* (see Tables 15 and 17). Therefore, the findings for language, writing, and assessment criteria in ministerial and department policies can promote and perpetuate personal and academic inequities for *Allophones* (i.e., plurilinguals). Contrarily, contesting concepts of an idealized monolingual speaker supports pluralistic perspectives that embrace different varieties of language learning and teaching, and include cultural and linguistic diversity in policy and curriculum planning. Empowering teacher agency can disrupt monolingual methods, challenge arbitrary distinctions between the L1 and L2 language use, and address deficit discourses about plurilinguals that will be explored in the findings for RQ2.

The three findings for RQ1 are shown in figure 5.

Figure 5

*Findings for RQ1*



| Finding #1 | • Replication of Monolingual Genres and Standards |
| Finding #2 | • Remedial Discourses and Systemic Marginalization and Exclusion of Plurilingual Students |
| Finding #3 | • Deficit Discourses for Plurilingual Students: Conflating Negative Assumptions and Attributes with Language and Writing Proficiency |

The next section in this chapter contains the findings and discussion for RQ 2.

**5.3.    RQ2 Findings and Discussion: Teachers Perceptions of Policies**

For the second research question — *What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform language pedagogy, writing, and assessment practices at the college level?* — I present the results from critical narrative inquiry analysis of English teacher interviews (*N* = 12). Specifically, RQ2 focused on teachers' views about how policies inform their pedagogical practices. The teachers' perceptions and responses were framed by two main factors: (1) pervasive institutional discourses that view students' plurilingualism in terms of a deficit rather than an asset, and (2) a divergence between plurilingualism and mandated monolingualism in language and writing instruction. The findings for RQ2 entail: (1) myth of monolingualism; (2) challenging arbitrary distinctions between L1 and L2 concepts; (3) Anglo-centric genres as gatekeepers; (4) raciolinguistics: inequities and stereotypes; (5) deficit discourses: misconceptions and deficient personal attributes.

Next, I present each of the five findings along with the discussion.

**5.3.1.   Myth of Monolingualism**

The first finding detailed teachers' perceptions about the "myth of monolingualism." During the interviews, most teachers stated that ministerial and department policies reinforce that the only valid linguistic practices are those enacted according to monolingual criteria. As well, they discussed the inconsistencies between monolingual language policies and the reality of plurilinguals' practices inside and outside the classroom, which has been documented in research studies in Quebec (e.g., Dagenais et al., 2017; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Groff et al., 2016; Lamarre, 2013; 2015; Lau et al., 2020). The findings reveal that plurilinguals use languages interchangeably as opposed to language policies that mandate monolingualism, disproving the myth that the perfect speaker is monolingual (Marshall, 2020). Teachers explained that such practices can develop teachers' biases toward plurilingual learners by evaluating language and writing through a monolingual lens. In fact, one of the teachers, Rachel, summarized how monolingual methods, mandated genres, and standardized assessments create constraints for teachers and their pedagogical choices. As we sat drinking tea in a café on a cloudy and rainy afternoon, Rachel shared her definition of plurilingualism, and explained that due to the language policies in Quebec, students are technically bilingual. The categories are difficult to define since students have completed most of their studies in a Francophone educational environment.

Rachel based her views on her own background, since she was born, raised, and educated in Quebec. As she informed me, *"I have spent my whole life here, in Quebec, and this is what I know; I do not need someone to tell me; I know what they teach in the French high schools, and I understand what a French essay is; I have a degree from a French university."* The reason that she shared her personal and educational background was to explain how her own perceptions about students' plurilingualism were formed and how they shaped her views on how and why *Quebec Ministry of Education* and English Department policies perpetuate the "myth of monolingualism" in contrast to the plurilingual reality of most classrooms. Rachel specified, *"Fundamentally, this is what I am mandated to do […] I think when you correct an essay because it has a particular format […] they are looking for thesis structure; they are looking for a conclusion; they are looking for follow-through in the analysis; they are looking for things that are not related to English; they are looking for things related to essay writing."* Rachel questioned how the focus on English-medium language instruction has been reduced to "simplified genre lessons in standardized forms of English" (Kalan, 2022, p. 67).

Later, Rachel professed her concerns about the purpose for mandated genres as a mode of assessment. She asked, *"So, what are we checking? Are we checking English proficiency or are we checking essay proficiency?"* Kalan (2022) explains that assigned Anglocentric genres can serve to maintain monolingual English standards "as a 'lingua franca' needed to be adopted as the … language of success" (p. 67). Rachel mirrored Kalan's statement when she referred to the academic consequences of mandated genres by summing up, *"If your essay is the genre that you are asking them to write in, then their proficiency in that genre will dictate whether or not their English sounds good or looks good or is written well."* She explained how students can struggle to learn privileged genres and how ideological assumptions about genres are tacitly conventionalised in discipline-specific communities, thus evading consideration and discussion. Once again, Rachel's views reflect Kalan's (2022) who stated that "in a globalized English education market, the industrial compartmentalization and commercialization of English has also contributed to packaging writing classes in simplified genre lessons" (p. 64). The outcome is that culturally and linguistically diverse students can encounter challenges when trying to produce the conventions of required genres that can also cause them to be evaluated as "weak" or "remedial" speakers and writers. Becoming proficient in the language of instruction requires conforming to compulsory genres and to monolingual language and writing standards. Rachel elucidated that

teachers implement competencies in policies *"based on their lens."* She clarified *"that a monolingual lens is going to change how you relate to the students who might have interferences from other languages in their writing."* A *"monolingual lens"* perpetuates concepts of the "native" monolingual teacher as the idealized conduit for language learning.

Furthermore, favouring teachers who are so-called "native" speakers of English emerges from the belief that these teachers will be able to correct students because they have a sense of what sounds right or wrong. Ellis (2016) argues that one cannot assume "that the native speaker makes a better teacher because they provide a better model of the language (more fluent, more idiomatic, more correct and with 'better' pronunciation). They have more experience as language users, but non-native teachers have better experience as language learners" (p. 73). Questioning the view of the idealized "native" speaker also highlights how language policy at the macro or societal level affects pedagogical policies and practices at the micro or institutional level. Most teachers mentioned that the English college system exists as an outlier in Quebec's monolingual landscape, since students need to attend French school unless they are historically Anglophone or receive special permission to attend school in English due to the *Charter of the French language* (1977). As a consequence of Quebec's monolingual policy, there is an increasing number of plurilinguals attending English-medium colleges.

Over half of the teachers referred to incongruences between students' plurilingual repertoires and mandated monolingualism in English-medium colleges, including Sophia who shared her views about the Quebec education system and how it had changed over the years. Although we met early in the morning via Zoom, she thoughtfully detailed her vast and varied personal and professional lived experiences. As I sat at my desk in my office, next to a window overlooking the sidewalk and street, Sophia summarized some of the questions from the demographic questionnaire and her thoughts on Quebec policies on language education; from the corner of my eye, I could see young students walking in in rows—with facial features that represented countries from all over the world—a parade of United Nations marching to the local French elementary school. In contrast, Sophia had not attended school in Quebec, and she had completed all of her schooling in English. As a graduate student, she had begun to travel to different countries and continents and study other languages. Sophia said that her experiences travelling and learning languages had helped her to understand how plurilinguals use languages as well as how policies shape different social and educational settings, including in Quebec.

She also discussed how ministerial policies had altered the French and English education systems in the past few decades and, as a result, how teachers and administrators need to adapt to this new reality. Sophia stated that the government views the English college system as if it exists in an imaginary world where all the students entering the college system have attended English language secondary schools; however, in actuality, *"they are coming in with a huge range of linguistic ability"* (Sophia). Therefore, the perception that English-medium colleges reflect French-speaking colleges and French L1 courses is not correct. Sophia clarified,

> *And when you speak to our colleagues in the French system [...] their experience is very different in that they are able to have much more of a shared understanding of language entering into the college system. Most students in the French system come from French secondary schools; that is not the case with the English college system; maybe it was in 1975 or in 1980, but absolutely it is not in 2020 and it has not been the case—I would say—in the last 20 years. When I started teaching in the college system, the idea was that what was in the ministerial document was matching what was happening in the classes— no—it was not* (Sophia).

Sophia summarized how language education policies do not reflect the linguistic diversity in English-medium higher education. Previous empirical studies have contested monolingualism by examining plurilingual pedagogies for culturally and linguistically diverse learners (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Marshall, 2020), ways to include plurilingual learners' repertoires (Galante, 2020a; Galante, 2022), exploring the interconnection between plurilingual identities and learning a new target language (Kalan, 2022; Lau et al., 2020), and supporting more inclusive approaches to develop learners' cultural and linguistic competencies (Galante et al., 2022; Lau et al., 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). Despite these studies, ministerial and department policies reproduce literary standards that mandate the compartmentalization of plurilingual students' repertoires. Assessing literacy through a monolingual lens promotes the view of plurilingual students as second language learners or speakers, which does not reflect the linguistic complexity and diversity of plurilingual learners (Cummins, 2019). Van Viegen & Lau (2020) contend that "the monolingual, monocultural assumptions that tend to dominate education are predicated on a narrow perspective of the purpose of education and the resources available for teaching and learning" (p. 327), since

plurilinguals rely on multiple linguistic and semiotic competencies. Canagarajah (2011) discloses that "even the so-called 'monolinguals' shuttle between codes, registers and discourses" (p. 4). Marshall & Moore (2018) propose moving away from the "view of languages as separate, parallel, autonomous systems based on discourses of complete competencies to a view that recognises hybridity and varying degrees of competence between and within languages" (p. 3) to support plurilingual and pluricultural students.

Overall, the first finding reveals the complexity and fluidity of learners' speaking and writing practices, and highlights how monolingualism in policies and pedagogical practices produces an arbitrary distinction between L1 and L2 concepts.

### 5.3.2. Arbitrary Distinctions Between the Concept of L1 and L2

The second finding emerged from the fact that most teachers reported barriers and challenges to implementing the performance criteria and learning outcomes in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and the English Department policies due to the "arbitrary distinctions between L1 and L2." Most teachers reported that they could not implement all the guidelines in the English Department policy of their respective colleges. They specified that students often struggle to fulfil the language and writing standards in ministerial and department policies for English courses in English-medium colleges. Several teachers stated that they assume most of the responsibility for addressing the difficulties that students face when encountering new language, writing, and assessment criteria as outlined in ministerial and department policies. These teachers also expressed an understanding that they have been socialized into conventional assumptions of what constitutes "good" language and writing. At the lexical level, the word choices in policy texts, such as the description of students, create the framework for the "arbitrary distinctions between L1 and L2 concepts," which can shift according to one's personal and educational experiences.

Teachers, who self-identified as plurilingual, and who had attended school in French, in Quebec, cited their personal and educational experiences as influencing how they interpreted policies, how they categorized L1, L2 and/or L3 learners, and how they planned their courses. For example, Marina, whom I met in person, disclosed how her own personal, cultural, and linguistic background had influenced her pedagogical practices. During our discussion, she reminded me that she came from a plurilingual background and that she had spoken only Greek

until the age of four. Informally, she learned English by watching television and speaking to her friends. Formally, she attended French school because—in her own words—she was *"a product of Bill 101."* After French elementary and high school, she attended university in English for her undergraduate and graduate degrees. For the past 20 years, she has been teaching L1 English to students at one English-medium college. She summarized that *"you can be somebody whose first language is other than English and you can perfect it and learn it if you have the skills in another language to do well and to do what is required to pass an English course and to write an essay and to write properly and to express yourself properly. It is just a matter of using your strengths and building on those things"* (Marina). Marina's personal and education experiences played a pivotal role in her use of plurilingual pedagogical approaches. Marina also articulated how policies continue to separate language and writing genres due to monolingual expectations regarding language proficiency. She explained,

> *For francophone students you see it all the time because they do not write in the five-paragraph way—they have a totally different way of expressing themselves, which is logical and, you know—I am sure some francophone students write amazing essays and then when you try to get them to conform to the 5 paragraph essay, their essays are not as good or are not as interesting; they have a totally different way of writing* (Marina).

Marina's narrative exposes the inconsistencies and inaccuracies of applying arbitrary distinctions between L1 and L2 speakers, since plurilinguals use the communicative competencies that they have acquired in personal and academic settings synchronously in social and classroom contexts.

Rachel, another teacher who self-identified as plurilingual, concurred with Marina's views. Rachael had grown up in Montreal speaking three languages concurrently from an early age—Italian, French, and English, reflecting the reality of many trilingual citizens and residents in North America (Statistics Canada, 2022). In contrast, she attended monolingual educational systems (i.e., French and English) that strictly limited her language use, something that did not occur in her home environment where she spoke all three languages interchangeably. Van Viegen & Lau (2020) propose that "students' identities or identifications are neither fixed nor static, plurilingual pedagogies accommodate dynamic, fluid understandings of not only language use but also language learners" (p. 327). Therefore, literacy criteria need to reflect the speaking and writing reality of student populations. One way to incorporate learners' prior knowledge,

lived experiences and education backgrounds entails implementing plurilingual tasks. In contrast, standardized English criteria promulgates the notion of a single or monolingual view of literacy that discourages or excludes plurilingualism (Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020). Rachel's own experiences of being "Othered" as a student in both French and English school systems had affected her insights on the role that monolingualism plays in determining language categories for plurilinguals. Rachel asserted,

> *I think we really have to stop putting the students in categories. […] I think that in the current context where students from Anglophone primary school, go to French high schools and then go back to English college and then go to French university […] we need to not categorize and classify the students in this way; we can't; there are students in the class who have gone to English elementary school; French private French high school and have come back to an English environment for college and will probably go to a French university […] so that is misleading* (Rachel).

Rachel's self-reflections enabled her to reimagine her plurilingual identity as a valuable resource. By re-examining her own schooling experiences, Rachel was able to see herself as a teacher who subverts rather than reproduces inequities for linguistically minoritized learners. Her narrative also references the relevance of developing an understanding of the particular social and educational circumstances that assess literacy standards as well as the importance of integrating students' diverse and complex linguistic and cultural competencies. At one point during our conversation, as we sipped our tea, Rachel reviewed her copy of the interview guide and policy excerpts. Between sips of tea, she confidently announced,

> *The categories are all problematic; multilingual implies that students speak more than one language. In Montreal, by virtue or the fact that the Ministry has set up the program in a particular way, all students from Grade 5 forward have a second language, so in the French public system, from Grade 5 forward—for all intents and purposes—they are learning English. […] Do they have a third or fourth language? I would say 3/4 of them do; some of them because they come from another linguistic background and some of them because they have Spanish in high school […] They **are** multilingual; they **all** speak French. […] but to categorize them? It is almost impossible. I couldn't categorize the people that I know* (Rachel).

"Neither could I," I thought as Rachel spoke. I scribbled my thoughts on my notepad, including the fact that I had realized that I could not *"categorize the young people that I know,"* especially if I followed her reasoning regarding the contrast between official classifications as they appear in policies and the reality of what she told me that she had experienced in trying to implement the criteria in her classroom. Rachel's response also elucidated how current categories perpetuate language separation and aligns to Marshall and Moore (2018) who explain that the concept of languages as independent systems does not reflect the reality of how plurilinguals speak and write and does not recognize the fluidity and hybridity of languages.

Another institutional practice that illustrated arbitrary linguistic distinctions entailed the topic of streaming English courses in English-medium colleges. Several times, teachers clarified that, at the institutional level, colleges create streams for the first-year English course to address the perceived deficiencies of students who do not comply with the ministerial standards for language and writing. To manage this conflicting reality, teachers explained that they are, in essence, teaching a Composition and Rhetoric and/or an English Second Language course, in addition to adhering to the ministerial criteria for language and writing proficiency. These teachers also expressed their apprehension about the issue of streaming at the college level. While discussing L1 and L2 categorizations, Rachel identified sections in the interview guide that she wanted to discuss; she leaned over, looked at me intently, and inquired,

> *What category do I fit into? I went to a French university for my graduate degree—*
> *McGill University for my undergraduate degree. I went to English high school my whole*
> *life; I spoke Italian my whole life. I am proficient in English and French at a unilingual*
> *level coming out of high school; so, what does that make me? I do not know; but who*
> *cares, really, is my question?* (Rachel).

Thankfully, Rachel did not wait for me to answer. She thought for a few moments and then added, *"It is very hard to put the students in those categories"* (Rachel). This prompted me to ask her to describe the problems and difficulties that students have with English. After pausing and looking at the interview guide on the table, Rachel continued in more detail; she explained,

> *For example, if you have a Haitian student—just to pick a Francophone country—a*
> *Haitian student will speak Creole, will speak French at home and a bit of Creole and will*
> *also speak English rather proficiently. So, my experience has been—there is no point in*

*categorizing the students' linguistic abilities in this way; a Haitian student would technically be a Francophone student, but they are not because they also speak Creole, and so that has a different impact on their linguistic knowledge. Many of the Middle Eastern students are also technically Francophone because they have studied mostly in French if not 100% in French and their parents as well most likely have studied in French, but they speak Arabic in one dialect or another, oftentimes mixed with French and we joke about that in class. How can I categorize students? Does the Egyptian student not fall in the Francophone category because he speaks Arabic as well? How about the Lebanese student who does not speak anything but French and English? He is Lebanese and does not speak a word of Arabic, but he is Lebanese; does he fall into the multilingual category because his French has a Lebanese inflection? I do not know which students you are asking me to talk about* (Rachel).

Her question was rhetorical, but it made me feel a little uncomfortable; yes, which students was I talking about? I looked outside the window from where we were sitting and tried to think of what to say next; a light rain had begun to fall, creating little puddles of water on the street and, as cars drove by, the tires splashed water on to the sidewalks; the water and dust created a mist, swirling around the café and spreading across the city landscape and sky like a diaphanous veil. As I stared at the misty haze clouding the street outside the café, I thought about how her comments had served to obfuscate the strict divisions between L1 and L2 learners in policies that adhere to monolingual criteria and practices. In contrast, plurilingual perspectives incorporate students' entire linguistic repertoire (Galante et al., 2020). Plurilingual theory does not view languages and cultures as "fixed and discrete entities" (Taylor & Snoddon, 2013, p 440). Instead, it treats learners' languages and cultures as interconnected and interrelated (Coste et al., 2009). I began to realize the complexities and challenges of categorizing plurilingual students.

Rachel's comments also prompted me to recall how Marina had often made connections to her personal and cultural, and linguistic trajectory from Greek to French to English. During our discussion, she also referred to institutional practices that she had encountered in the classroom, specifically how a grammar and skills-approach to language learning obliged students to compartmentalize their language use. Marina announced,

*I have a problem with the streaming to begin with; I do not understand why you cannot have a student in a class who is having trouble with some grammar also benefit from the student who does not have the same grammatical issues but might benefit from the other students' analytical skills. I do not see why grammar and the ability to analyze a text are necessarily equated. So, the student who might display difficulties with grammar—some basic grammar issues—because of "ESL" issues or other problems—that is not for us to diagnose, I think; whatever the grammatical issues are, and whatever the writing issues are, the student might have a really good grasp of the text and might be able to analyze it at a level that the student who is able to write a grammatically correct sentence cannot; and so, the streaming itself is problematic* (Marina).

Flores (2020) asserts that it is difficult to categorize languages and to label the linguistic characterizations of idealized concepts of standard English. Additionally, García et al. (2021) articulate how "purported linguistic deficiencies—including pronunciation patterns, grammatical constructions, and orthographic conventions" (p. 207) keep shifting for plurilingual learners in educational contexts, thereby questioning "the fundamental nature of linguistic mastery, skills, and targets" (p. 207). This poses problems for teachers who are instructed to correct perceived deficiencies in language and writing as defined in ministerial and institutional policies.

During the conversations, many teachers affirmed that they assume most of the responsibility for identifying and addressing the challenges that students experience with language, writing, and assessment practices as outlined in *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policies. Due to the fact that most students transition from French high schools and from a French social setting to an English educational system and an English social setting, English instruction often entails more difficulties for students attending English colleges than for their French counterparts. Eva, like most of the teachers interviewed, was not originally from Quebec. However, she had spent much of her adult life living and working in the province. Her personal and professional experiences had provided her with experiential knowledge that helped her to articulate the complexity of the social context in which most students in English-medium colleges find themselves. Although we met on Zoom, she kindly spent much of the morning explaining how her teaching had evolved over the past 20 years to shape her current understanding of her students. She told me,

*Half of our students have come from a French educational system up until now; they are studying in English for the first time […] and then we have others who have been studying in either private or public systems; we have those who have been working with tutors and they come into our classroom and we don't know what they already know; we do not know what they have been exposed to and that includes the fact that we do not know what educational or personal traumas they have had to deal with, right? … because they have been told throughout their high school by various teachers, for whatever reason, that they are not good enough* (Eva).

Eva's insights on the complexity of students' prior knowledge: personal, cultural, social, and educational, reminded me of Cummins (2021) who articulates how the quest to have students acquire standard English does not acknowledge or value the linguistic practices and experiences that they bring with them to new educational environments. The implicit assumption is that students who *"are not good enough"* need to disregard their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires to be assessed as proficient in standard English. Flores and Rosa (2015) put forth the notion of a "critical heteroglossic perspective to question the exclusion of plurilingual learners' linguistic repertoires by "raising awareness about issues of language and power" (p. 67) and binary concepts that categorize students as standard or non-standard speakers and writers. Examining and challenging how language and writing criteria in policies are implemented and assessed allows for a critical reflection of monolingual practices.

Irrespective of the fact that most of the teacher-participants self-identified as Anglophone and had educational experiences that were monolingual, I realized that, over time, they had developed an understanding of the linguistic complexity in English-medium colleges that was mostly due to having spent several years living and working in Montreal. Some teachers explicitly referred to Canada's colonial history and to the complications of adapting to the reality of teaching English in English-medium colleges in a legislated French linguistic landscape. Adam who had grown up as an Anglophone in Montreal expressed that *"the reason that we are teaching English is because we were an English colony with an English heritage and we are teaching the English way of thinking, so it is perfectly fine to have come from other experiences and other cultural ways of organizing thoughts, but we are going to teach you the English way of organizing thoughts."* Although Adam's insights were shaped by his personal experiences as a monolingual Anglophone, nonetheless, his views had also been influenced by living in Montreal,

and his experiences teaching at an English-medium college in Montreal, a plurilingual city where most of the students are plurilingual and pluricultural. Adam's statement points to the fact that even though the explicit purpose of policies is not to overtly perpetuate power and authority over students, the political and social structures from which they emerge, end up propagating a hierarchy that devalues plurilingual and pluricultural practices. Such views trace back, as Adam stated, to colonial concepts that conflate language with a sense of belonging and citizenship. Adam's reference to the colonial legacy of language also links to García et al. (2021) who suggest that the "marginalization of racialized language practices connects to broader colonial histories that have questioned the linguistic competence of racialized communities" (p. 210). Adam, and other teachers I interviewed, often referred to how their views and perceptions had changed and evolved from the beginning of their careers to the present. I realized that it takes several years before teachers, including those who have grown up in predominantly monolingual and Anglophone settings, begin to question policies and pedagogical practices.

The importance of self-reflection and critical meta-awareness came up during my conversation with Hugh via Zoom. Hugh made time to meet with me as he sat in his home office, behind a desk with wall-to-wall bookcases behind him that were packed with books of all shapes and sizes. Referring to his thoughts on teaching English at various English-medium colleges for over 15 years. He told me, *"I think as a teacher, you should always be learning. The way that you teach should always be evolving. I find that the system is problematic because it forces you to sort of freeze in time."* I was curious to follow up on his comment, so I asked him to discuss his views on the role of policies and how they informed pedagogical and assessment practices—or not. Hugh answered by making an analogy to non-canonical writers. He explained,

> *I think of China Achebe—he grew up with Nigerian education and British education and the way that he wrote Things Fall Apart was not a traditional European way of writing a novel. And he was criticized for it and people did not think it as serious literature for many years and now it is considered to be part of the Canon. […] I mean you do have to teach rules and structure, but we also have to make people understand that grammar is descriptive and prescriptive. It is changeable and why we have rules. In everything that we do, we are just in a time warp; there is not enough meta-instruction—meaning that we do not explain the way that we are teaching, which I think is important to explain to students where we are coming from and why we are doing what we are doing* (Hugh).

Hugh's analogy and explanations helped me to understand that teachers are left to unpack students' linguistic and cultural knowledge on their own and develop a critical meta-awareness or *"meta-instruction,"* as Hugh put it, to help students achieve the language and writing standards mandated in the policies. Hugh's comments also referenced how the criteria do not consider the fact that language and writing norms are constantly changing and evolving, but institutional power structures seem to remain the same. Other teachers, including Sophia, referred to similar insights. She summarized,

> *In English, in standard academic English, there is wrong and there is right and that is something that needs to be explained to students. But it needs to be explained in the context of what makes something wrong and what makes something right is not the be all and the end all and it does change over time. It is what we have decided for right now and the people who have made that decision are those who are in power* (Sophia).

Sophia believed that assessing *"what makes something wrong and what makes something right"* does not consider the specific social and rhetorical function of academic English or learners' linguistic and genre knowledge. To develop an understanding of plurilinguals "requires identifying and making sense of experiences that diversify plurilingual writers' exposure to and interactions with multiple semiotic systems, and with the discourse communities" (Kalan, 2022, p. 71). If teachers do not consider the range of students' linguistic and cultural repertoires when assessing proficiency, they can end up "judging their cultural, ideological, discursive, and rhetorical existence, although at the surface they seem to be accessing their use of English" (Kalan, 2022, p.82). Therefore, it is important to study language and writing within a specific social and rhetorical situation. For instance, Sophia brought up how post-colonial, anti-racist, and social equity perspectives situate *"the colonial history of English as the language of instruction and French as the language of instruction in our educational institutions."* She rationalised,

> *It is challenging when you have these learning outcomes that need to be achieved; the first step would be recognizing the arbitrariness of, and the colonial history of English as the language of instruction and French as the language of instruction in our educational institutions [… ] I think the discussion that's happening about antiracism and anti-oppression is important because it's opening up a conversation about why it is that we feel that certain things are better than other things and certain histories are more*

*important and certain languages and certain ways of communicating more effective or superior to others [...] acknowledging the challenges of acquiring another language and gaining proficiency in the other language and recognizing that it is a process; I think that is something that needs to be recognized at the local level* (Sophia).

Sophia's views point to the limits of language ideologies that mandate monolingualism for students who possess plurilingual and pluricultural competencies. In referring to their experiences teaching at different English colleges, some teachers described the challenges of fulfilling mandated monolingual language and writing genres, specifically, the essay.

Several teachers discussed the essay as a privileged genre, including Anne, one of the teachers who was born and educated outside of Canada. We met in person at the Plurilingual Lab at McGill University. Similar to my discussion with Sophia, I learned how living and working in various countries had influenced her views on the impact of colonialism on language education. Anne's country of origin is located in Africa, and it has a long and complicated colonial history that has affected the cultural and linguistic integration of other racial, cultural, and linguistic communities, including Indigenous communities. Once again, I realized that the issues that I was exploring related to other educational contexts in countries with similar colonial histories. When discussing the mandated assessment practices embedded in policy texts, Anne deduced,

*They want us to get students to write a 750-word essay and to look at literature in a formalist way. They have very fixed expectations and it is—it is like the person who always changes the first person as a compliment and changes it as a subject because he or she believe that that is the way it is supposed to be—that is what our education system is—it is based on a policy that we follow blindly, so people are more worried about replacing "me" with "I" than **why** do we replace "me" with "I"?  I think our criteria is based on criteria that is at least 20 years old, if not older, you know. Pedagogical theory has changed just like literature has changed* (Anne).

To address how *"pedagogical theory has changed"* necessitates confronting the colonial history of language education that continues to produce linguistic hierarchies and inequities to "help teachers to put themselves in a democratic relationship with students to not only teach the students but to learn from their perspectives. Such a move can facilitate teachers' and students' resistance against prescriptive curricula" (Kalan, 2022, p. 83). In fact, many teachers disclosed

how their interactions with students had caused them to reconsider the cultural, linguistic, prior educational experiences that influence students' speaking and writing. Marina articulated,

> *I tend to believe that the students who do not speak English as their first language or who do not have English as their "mother tongue," so to speak, tend to use English as their first language, even though technically it is not their mother tongue. I think a lot of them have these skills; they are able to write a thesis; they are able to argue something; they are able to communicate clearly. I do not discriminate between students* (Marina).

Challenging the arbitrary distinctions between L1 and L2 speakers and writers, in addition to contesting the myth of monolingualism—how students speak and write—leads to the next finding: how the propagation of privileged genres can serve as gatekeepers.

### 5.3.3. Genres as Gatekeepers

The third finding related to the restrictions caused by the promulgation and replication of mandated genres in ministerial and institutional policies. Most teachers mentioned the constraints that they encounter trying to integrate students' linguistic and cultural competencies in the classroom to realize the literacy requirements (e.g., grammar, spelling, vocabulary, etc.), to teach literary analysis as outlined in department and ministerial policies, and to prepare students to write an essay to pass the *Ministry of Education and Higher Education Exit Examination.* Hugh, who had over 25 years of experience teaching English, shared his views about the limitations of mandated language and writing standards. His insights were formed by living in Montreal, in addition to his professional experiences teaching at various English-medium colleges. Hugh pronounced, *"Well, because you are supposed to be teaching them, but you are really just limiting them—it is not, and they are not really; they are just learning one style."* Aside from Hugh, almost all the teachers referred to the complications of adhering to language and writing genres in ministerial and college policies in a context where students have very different language, writing, and prior educational experiences and backgrounds. Hugh continued,

> *The problem is that the essay is the main form of assessment and so it is very limiting. […] So, we have to be careful; if the competencies are heavily weighted in favour of the essay according to the Ministry, then that is what we have to do, but if the Ministry says that we have to teach them language, then the essay cannot be the only way to assess*

*that. The current perception is that if a student can write a 5-paragraph essay […] that*
*they have somehow shown us the they are good English students and good in English and*
*proficient in English and get a high mark in English because they know how to write an*
*essay, but I do not know if that is really showing us a full picture because the ministerial*
*competencies are limited to the essay* (Hugh).

Most of the teachers interviewed said that it does not matter which genre students are asked to write. The problem is the fact that students end up believing that the language and writing requirements in ministerial and department policies are the only way to speak and to write.

Additionally, Sophia stated that students should understand that the policies dictate one form of writing that has been established as a standard, but it is *"no better or no worse"* or *"no more legitimate"* than any other kind of genre. Sophia continued to explain that the problem is not necessarily the essay genre, but how it is taught—where it is placed in a position of authority *"like this is the best way to communicate an idea,"* which she explained *"is ludicrous*." Instead, Sophia proposed that if the English essay needs to be taught to students in a way that establishes that there are many *"ways to communicate an idea"* and that students should be told that the English essay *"is but one and it is being taught to you because the system is going to make you write this English exit exam […] and if you do it you will have the best chance of passing."* She also stressed the significance of situating genres *"in the context of a wider colonial system that has decided that this is a representative way of engaging in—of communicating."* Sophia's comments support Kalan's (2022) explanation that writing in most English-medium classrooms is "the result of hegemonic monoglossic language ideologies that explain using English as the only language of instruction in schools as normal and/or most beneficial" (p. 64). The notion that there is only *one* English standard can contribute to teachers feeling bound by the criteria and genres privileged in policies, which emerge, as Sophia stated, from *"a wider colonial system."* Kalan (2022) contextualizes Sophia's comments when he writes about the fact that the "supremacy of English, as the language of colonizers in these settler colonial countries, has happened in tandem with the dominance of essayist literacy as the form of the academic communication" (p. 64). Privileging certain genres (e.g., the essay) in discipline-specific settings (e.g., English-medium classes) perpetuates the view of literacy as universal, unquestioned, and uncontested. Students who cannot replicate the required genres can be excluded from academic communities. As a result, "monorhetorical monolingualism has, thus, helped the colonial agenda

of eradicating the languages and genres of 'the other,' speakers of other languages and learners from different races and social classes" (Kalan, 2022, p. 64). Several teachers spoke about the limitations that the mandated genres and criteria in policies impose on language teaching and writing instruction.

Feeling constrained by ministerial and department policies alludes to empirical research in Chapter 3, Section, 3.5., that stresses the need to include teachers' voices and to increase their participation in curricula and policy planning for plurilingual learners (e.g., Blesta et al., 2014; Ng & Boucher-Yip, 2016). One of the outcomes refers to the importance of empowering teachers to include pedagogies that allow students to use their personal, linguistic, and cultural knowledge and repertoires. Some teachers, including Rachel, talked about how students have a wide range of linguistic abilities whether they are from Quebec, from another province in Canada, or another country. Furthermore, most teachers disclosed that when it comes to writing, the stereotype that plurilinguals are weaker is not always true. For example, Rachel revealed that she had a class *"where the majority language was Creole and Arabic, and they were really excellent."* In contrast, Rachel also shared that she *"had courses where the majority of students were anglophone, where the larger percentage of students had serious challenges on all levels."* Later, in the same conversation, she went on to discuss the reasons why students might receive lower marks, especially when writing the essay. She explained that *"students might get lower marks in an essay if they are not aware of the changes that they need to make in terms of what they already know. So, they might be weak in terms of language skills, but it is not a question of ESL or second language issues […] anglophone or francophone or multilingual, you will have trouble writing an essay."* The emphasis on the essay supports concerns about what Kalan (2022) terms "the industrialized nature of North American writing education" (p. 76) and how "centralized curricula, drills-based mass instruction, and rubric-centered industrial assessment— has resulted in a genre hierarchy with the English essay, refined and simplified, at the top" (p. 76). Therefore, the "centralized curricula" mandate specific genres such as the essay as well as rubrics that govern assessment practices. Kalan (2022) goes on to clarify that rubrics "are used as an industrial assessment tool that homogenize rhetorical practices for mass production of assignments […] It, however, comes with a price: A monogenre mentality that, wittingly or unwittingly, (1) eradicates the organic diversity of genres, and (2) promotes lack of interest in complex analysis, and the rhetorical flexibility that it often requires" (p. 67). While the essay is

one way to evaluate language, it cannot be the only method of assessment, excluding other writing genres to test students' proficiency. Several teachers stated that it is important to learn more about students' language and writing experiences other than how they structure the essay. They told me that how students write an essay does not inform them about students' level of English; the genre simply reveals what students *know* about the English essay—as a genre.

Teachers' views about genres as gatekeepers echo Kalan's findings (2022) that "in a globalized English education market, the industrial compartmentalization and commercialization of English has also contributed to packaging writing classes in simplified genre lessons in standardized forms of English, which is marketed as a 'lingua franca' needed to be adopted as the international language of 'success'" (p. 67). Results from other empirical studies reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.5., on the writing practices of plurilinguals (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Payant, 2020; Payant & Maatouk, 2020; Séror & Gentil, 2020) detail the advantages of integrating students' complex and diverse genre knowledge and experiences in classroom contexts. Consequently, implementing plurilingual perspectives provide a framework from which to critically question the genres privileged in policies and that influence how educators assess students' literacy. Furthermore, mandated genres can limit learners' language and writing choices and facilitate discriminatory practices for those who do not or who cannot adhere to these standards which, in turn, can cause racial inequities and stereotypes—and that is the next finding.

### 5.3.4. Raciolinguistics: Racial Inequities and Stereotypes

The fourth finding revealed misconceptions about students' academic abilities. Some teachers recounted how interpreting and implementing the proficiency standards in policies can perpetuate inequities and stereotypes. Results from my PhD research also show how current institutional assessment and remediation practices can serve to marginalize students' diverse and complex writing practices. For instance, Hugh questioned, *"… the streaming process, [it is] very limiting. How do we stream? Why do we stream? What are we streaming for? I mean these are all questions that we should ask."* Hugh's comments allude to Kalan's (2002) findings about the rhetorical function of writing, including learners' multiple literacy and genre competencies. Kalan (2022) explains that aside from the fact that language writing courses are separated from skills such as grammar, writing classes are streamed into various levels such as introductory, intermediate, and advanced. He clarifies that the main consequence of "compartmentalized

educational structures [is that] writing education has turned into refined content and pedagogical packages that limit learners' experiences with genre and rhetorical freedom, experimentation, and exploration" (Kalan, 2022, p. 66). Some teachers mentioned that linguistic categorizations are misleading and can reinforce misconceptions about plurilinguals that propagate and perpetuate biased attitudes about standard academic English (Kubota & Bale, 2020). For example, Marina shared her thoughts about accentism: *I think people make assumptions, and they have biases when they hear an accent, so I don't know how fair students would be assessed; to be honest, it depends on who is doing the assessing and the marking and that is also something that you have to think about. Who are the people who are going to listen and mark the students on proficiency?"* Linguistic categorizations reinforce ideologies that separate L1 and L2 use and perpetuate *"assumptions"* and *"biases"* by conflating deficient speakers and writers with plurilingual learners and plurilingualism (Hurwitz & Kambel, 2020; Marshall, 2020). Moreover, the view of language as a resource to attain "obscures and rearticulates the 'deficiency perspective' that continues to perpetuate structural inequalities" (Mena & García, 2020, p. 343). During our discussions, several teachers, including Marina, brought up concerns about linguistic and structural inequalities.

To support her claim, Marina referenced her own lived experiences: she spoke Greek until she started kindergarten; then, she attended primary and secondary school in French; she switched to English for her college studies, and she studied a fourth language at university. Her history as a plurilingual is similar to most students in English-medium colleges. Marina's experiences as a trilingual and her educational criss-crossing provided her with important opportunities to develop her own identity as a plurilingual teacher and to inform her dislike of how students are labelled in department policies. As she assertively announced, *I do **not** like the labels."* Over half of the teachers acknowledged that even though most plurilingual students are placed in remedial streams, they are able to discuss literature and to do well in their English courses. These teachers also added that viewing linguistic diversity as a problem and classifying plurilinguals as deficient, encourages the devaluation of plurilingual competencies (e.g., Marshall, 2020; Preece & Marshall 2020). Since language and writing standards shape how academic institutions—and those working in them—think and teach, several teachers, including Marina, cautioned against making *"global assumptions"* about students' literacies. She stated,

*My experience is that you cannot make these global assumptions because all students have strengths and if you are streaming, let us say that the student even makes it to the "standard" stream; you wrote the placement test, you made it to the "standard" level, but you have this long Greek name, for example, I think they are going to assume that you are going to be weaker or not as strong or that you are going to struggle a bit more than a student with an English last name and that bothers me; that bother me. I have seen way too many students who have the long ethnic names who are better writers, better speakers, better at every skill in terms of analysis, literary devices, etc., than some first language English named individuals* (Marina).

In essence, Marina was referring to the fact that *"global assumptions"* about plurilingual students can lead to inequities and stereotypes that label plurilingual learners as deficient, irrespective of their language use. García et al. (2021) define how raciolinguistic ideologies serve to label learners as being linguistically deficient. Similarly, Marshall (2020) describes how students who are compared to monolingual learners are often assessed as deficient speakers and writers. Teachers conveyed concerns about discriminatory and prejudicial practices, stemming from department policies. Marina continued to share some of these concerns,

*This idea that students who come from English high schools automatically are going to be "standard" students. The understanding is that you are coming from an English high school, so you are going to be in the "standard" stream; if you are coming from a French high school, you might be in a remedial stream and, of course, if you are coming from another country, you can't make it to the "standard" stream. I have a student now in my class who is going to be tutoring who came from Saudi Arabia and he has passed all the exams and he is really good in English. He is really good. And this is his fourth language. It is not even a second language. […] I do not think it is appropriate to have these terms because people just make assumptions because of these terms* (Marina).

Aside from the possibility of inaccurately classifying plurilingual students, several teachers mentioned their apprehension about the long-term effects of streaming English courses. Elizabeth had taught for over 15 years at an English-medium college before moving on to teach at another higher education institution in Quebec. Referring to the reasons why colleges create

streams for the first-year course, she began by explaining that every college tries to find ways "*to get it right in such a way that it supports the most students.*" Then, she went on to inquire,

> *If you have 6000 students attending college, you have six thousand individuals who are going through our classrooms and you have three streams and after 15 weeks, you have one stream, so how do you continue to support the students on that spectrum of ability, achievement, skill, background, and prior knowledge? How do you continue to support students from top to bottom—as it were—even beyond that first semester? (Elizabeth).*

Most teachers felt that placing students in remedial streams is insufficient without including pedagogical practices to address their academic needs, for instance, plurilingual approaches.

Plurilingual theory challenges linguistic hierarchical structures that regulate monolingual and monocultural methods (Van-Viegen & Hollman, 2020). As well, plurilingual pedagogies are equitable and inclusive, since they incorporate learners' linguistic and cultural competencies (Galante et al., 2020). Some of the teachers questioned the accuracy of current department policies. Rachel put forth a series of rhetorical questions to re-examine student descriptions and classifications. She asked,

> *How about if you are writing at a standard level and you have some ESL slip-ups? How about if you are writing at a standard level and you are ESL? I do not understand. ESL does not have anything to do with your competency in English […] the fact that it is worded this way leads teachers to believe that the "remedial" course is only for second language students and that it is the second language course […] I just think the language in the descriptions is too vague […] I have real problems with that* (Rachel).

Rachel's questions highlight how grouping students according to terms such as *"standard"* or *"ESL"* no longer represents the entirety of learners' linguistic or educational realities (Chiras & Galante, 2021; Lau et al., 2020). Subsequently, teachers mentioned the need to revise the definitions and descriptions in English Department policies for the first-year English course.

Several teachers thought that the remedial categories for the first-year English course were *"kind of vague,"* or *"nebulous,"* or *"not clear."* Specifically, they communicated the need for the descriptions for each of the remedial streams to be revised for more clarity. For example, almost all the teachers stated that terms such as *"ESL"* are no longer appropriate in plurilingual

English-medium settings because their classrooms are not technically *"ESL"* classes; they are L1 English courses. Anne, who relied on her experience teaching plurilingual students at the college-level and at the university level, offered her insights on labelling plurilingual students:

> *The important one for me is the "significant ESL problems" one because I have taught ESL, so I understand what that means, but I also feel that a lot of Anglophones who do not have an "ESL problem," they sometimes also have challenges that would not classify as "ESL," but they might end up in this group; so, it is kind of inappropriate in some cases; like what if you are Anglophone and you end up in this group? So, I think it is maybe inappropriate because it is not technically "ESL." Not everyone is good at writing an essay or reading literature, so it could just be challenges with a lack of experience with something, but it might not be an "ESL problem"* (Anne).

Overall, teachers explained that department policies focused more on students' academic differences and weaknesses rather than on their linguistic and cultural competencies, which leads to the next finding: deficit discourses: misconceptions and deficient personal attributes.

### 5.3.5. Deficit Discourses: Misconceptions and Deficient Personal Attributes

The fifth finding conveyed teachers' thoughts about the complex sociolinguistic factors that conflict with language teaching and writing instruction and can lead to negative personal and academic consequences for students. Additionally, the prevalence of monolingual policies preserves and circulates stereotypes about students' literacy that can underserve plurilingual students whose academic success is predicated on their mastery and understanding of the language of instruction in academic settings (Marshall & Moore, 2018; 2020). For instance, Hugh stated that *"the way language is taught—the policies—makes students think that if they do not get it, they are dumb. But you have to make them realize that, no, they are **not** dumb."* When I requested that he elaborate, he added,

> *What we are teaching them is a certain type of writing; it is the way that we are told that we have to teach them how to write and what they know has merit, but we have to figure out how to make a hybrid of what they know and what they have to know and the way the language evolves through a hybridity of different cultures mingling with each other* (Hugh).

Then, I asked Hugh how he had come to view languages as evolving *"through a hybridity of different cultures mingling with each other,"* since it was an interesting observation to make, especially for someone who had been educated only in English. He answered by referring to one of his English courses, stating, *"that it is always something that [he] talk[s] about in one of [his] classes"* because he wanted his students to *"realize that the things that are being taught are just reproducing a social hierarchy. [..] I think that it is something that should be looked at…".* Hugh was one of several teachers who communicated an understanding of the role that the colonial history of the country had played in shaping their beliefs about what constitutes standard language and writing. Many teachers suggested that it is important to evaluate students' cultural, linguistic, and educational backgrounds and experiences as opposed to associating them with flawed characteristics and/or categorizing them as incompetent. For example, Rachel talked about why the *"implication that all 'ESL' students are weaker"* is incorrect. She clarified, "*I have had students from French private colleges who ended up in my 'ESL' class who had some issues with transferring their knowledge from what a French essay and what French writing is like and how to do that in English, but their English was not at a 'significant problem' level."* Specifically, Rachel said that the *"problem is that teachers who read this document equate ESL students with 'problem' students."* She then added*, "We are making a blanket statement about students' motivation, general study skills and time management; they are just anecdotal information that does not belong in a methodology description policy document; it should not even be there."* As reviewed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4., deficit discourses about plurilingual learners' language and writing facilitate deficient descriptions about these students as individuals or, as Rachel stated, characterizing them as *"problem students."* Standards for language and writing in policies are used to assess students as remedial and not suitable for academic higher education (Bethany, 2017). Traditionally, literacy criteria have played a crucial role in marginalizing students who do not conform to these standards by focusing on what students are lacking (Kalan, 2022, Motha, 2020). Classifying students in policies creates, regulates, and perpetuates personal and academic consequences for students by equating deficient speakers and writers with plurilinguals and plurilingualism (e.g., Marshall, 2020). As a result, some teachers brought up the need to revise policies and pedagogical practices.

Toward the end of my conversation with Hugh, he explicitly referred to the ossification of department policies. He stressed that *"we should do more,"* and added, *"that any department*

*or any policy should be something that would need to be more alive; I think that we should not allow our structures to ossify."* When I asked what he meant by being more *"alive,"* he elaborated that we need to be more *"in tune with the student body"* to avoid perpetuating stereotypical and discriminatory practices, academically and personally. Hugh explained that *"we need to be more in tune with the student body that we are teaching and teaching in a way that we do not think that a student is coming in knowing nothing—you know like 'those backward natives' or 'those backward ethnics'—it is problematic that we have these perceptions that are very limiting."* Some of the teachers specified that the portrayal of students in department policies influence assumptions and expectations about them, from undervaluing their speaking and writing, to attributing them with negative personal traits and characterizations. Most teachers repeatedly emphasized how policy influences each stage of the language learning process: curricula planning, pedagogical choices, and assessment, which can stigmatize the language practices of plurilinguals, leading to punitive practices such as being placed in remedial streams.

In discussing the remedial streams for the first-year English course, Adam, who had been teaching for over 10 years, referred to his experiences grading placements tests to articulate the nuances of linking language proficiency and personal stereotypes about students. He recounted,

> *I used to do the placement testing. From what I understood, students placed in the second stream—it might very well be your first language, but you are Italian or Greek or something like that and so you do not know how to create an English sentence that works […] Significant Francophone problems—students with these types of problems are placed in the third stream. The second stream—to me—sounds like someone who does not read enough, maybe their parents do not have books in the house and so they do not have a relationship with literature and with reading and writing that would have allowed them to learn over the years how to coherently write […] like the bad students, through no fault of their own possibly, it could be a cultural thing; it could be a cultural capital thing; the problems are that they do not read enough; they do not write enough, so they have not had to practice it. My stereotype is that they tend to be weaker students, in general, with weaker student attitudes. This is a stereotype* (Adam).

Adam's references to common misconceptions about plurilinguals focuses on the linguistic and cultural competencies that students have *not* acquired and what they *cannot* do as opposed to the

competencies that they *have* acquired and that they *do* possess. As explored in Chapter 3, Section, 3.3., policies and pedagogical practices often conceptualize linguistic and cultural diversity as a problem to be solved, instead of as a resource in language instruction (Lau & Van Viegen, 2020). Other teachers also shared their thoughts on the definitions that label students, in addition to sharing their recommendations to revise college English Department policies.

For instance, Marina, conveyed her insights regarding the descriptions and definitions of plurilingual students in institutional policy texts. She argued,

> *I do not like the descriptions. […] The "standard" description should not be "standard" because I do not like the term "standard." […] I would prefer: "Students are proficient and comfortable in the language." And the second stream, I think it could be: "Students are comfortable in the language, but they struggle with some of the writing and maybe have some expression issues." No reference to ESL or any language. To me, it would just be that "students are comfortable with the language" versus "proficient." And the last one would be: "Students who have some difficulty with full expression and maybe some difficulty writing proficiently in the language and need some extra help to get to that level." Because, again, I do not like the labels. […] I do not like "standard." I do not like "notable problems" and I do not even like "significant ESL problems" because English can be a second language—that is what ESL means, but it can also be a third, fourth or whatever language, and again I bring up the idea that someone can be Allophone or be considered someone who has learned English as a second, third, or fourth language, but their level of writing […] can be better than some "standard" English people or students. So, I do not like "standard." So, I think maybe we need new definitions* (Marina).

Marina's comments refer to scholarship that states that terms such as ESL (English as Second Language), EFL (English as a Foreign Language), FSL (French as a Second Language) no longer reflect how plurilinguals speak and write. As empirical studies have found, the main problem with these terms is that they are not specific enough to describe the reality or the complexity of current language and writing practices in educational contexts in Quebec (e.g., Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Lamarre, 2013; 2015; Lau et al., 2020). Several teachers suggested changing how plurilingual students are identified and defined in department policy texts. For instance, instead of *"labeling them something that they are not,"* Eva suggested,

*I think that changing something like "notable problems" to "notable difficulties"—to me that just feels more like—the difficulty is something that you can overcome; a problem is something that you're causing for somebody else. So, the emphasis is that these are "difficult" students or that they're creating difficulty in terms of teaching. I do not love that language, so that might be something that I would change. I think "ESL" should probably be changed to multi-language learners […] so maybe there's a need to describe in more detail what these "notable problems" are as opposed to just calling them "problems" or "difficulties," but to say here are the earmarks of someone who goes into this class without necessarily labeling them something that they are not* (Eva).*

To address labelling students as *"something that they are not,"* many teachers expressed the need to update department policies to accurately describe students' personal, cultural, and educational experiences and realities. Eva stressed that it is important to know *"who students are,"* so that teachers and administrators can *"shape policy based on those demographics."* She specified that it is important for *"students who perhaps, their English is not the currently accepted standard of English, have other ways of communicating their ideas to demonstrate to us that they have mastered some competencies or to rephrase those competencies, so that they do not feel that they come with a disadvantage but rather that they come in with an advantage."* Eva concluded by reiterating that policies need *"to reflect the populations in our classrooms."* While the end goal for many teachers entailed revising institutional (e.g., department) policies to include plurilingual perspectives, they also emphasized collaborating on curricula and policy planning to address the incongruencies between students' plurilingualism and mandated monolingualism. Generally, for the third finding for RQ2, the teacher narratives showed how linguistic and cultural diversity often conflict with the hierarchical reality of academic institutions that legislate and dictate language and writing in classroom settings.

Figure 6 includes the main findings for RQ2.

Figure 6

*Findings for RQ2*

| RQ2: Finding #1 |
|---|
| Myth of Monolingualism |

| RQ2: Finding #2 |
|---|
| (Challenging) Arbitrary Distinctions Between the Concept of L1 and L2 |

| RQ2: Finding #3 |
|---|
| Anglo-centric Genres as Gatekeepers |

| RQ2: Finding #4 |
|---|
| Racolinguistics: Racial Inequities and Stereotypes |

| RQ2: Finding #5 |
|---|
| Deficit Discourses: Misconceptions and Deficient Personal Attributes |
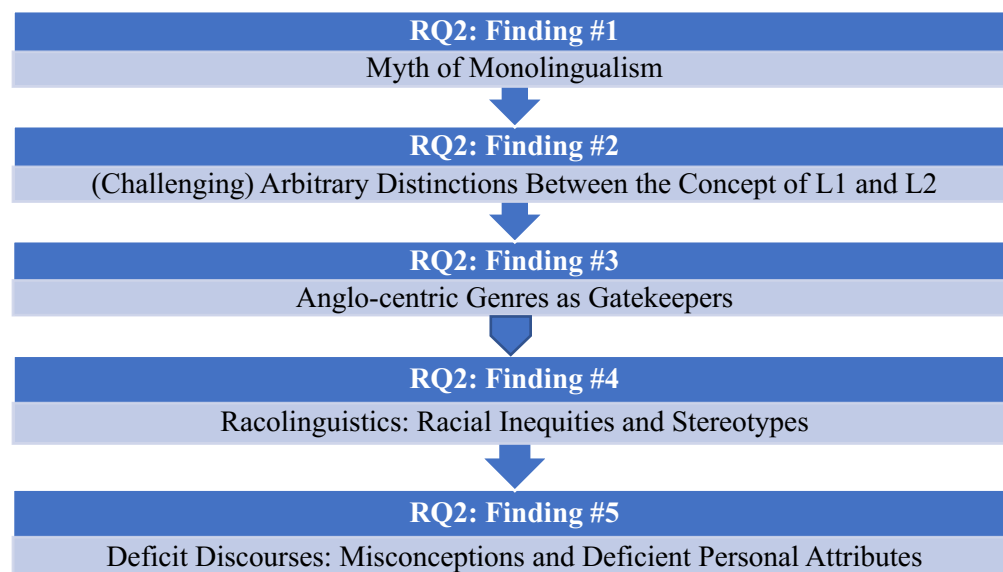
The findings from the interview data found that English teachers in English-medium colleges are increasingly questioning the role that policies play in shaping language, writing, and assessment in institutional settings. The teacher narratives also show how teachers affirm, negate, or resist criteria in policies that govern pedagogical practices. Overall, the results for RQ2 reveal the contrast between policies at the macro-level (e.g., *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education*), the interpretation of ministerial policies by administrators and teachers, the creation of department policies at the meso-level (e.g., college-level), and the implementation of department policies at the micro level (e.g., classroom level). The creation, interpretation, and implementation of policies reflects teachers' perceptions about what they think, what they do, and how policies inform pedagogy, which leads to the findings for RQ3.

## 5.4.     RQ3: Findings and Discussion: Teachers' Alignment and/or Resistance to Policies

The third research question asked—*To what extent do college English teachers align themselves and/or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy texts?* I present the results from critical narrative inquiry analysis of English teacher interviews (*N* = 12). Teachers shared how they support students pedagogically and how they unofficially acknowledge and/or include students' plurilingual and pluricultural

repertoires overlooking, disregarding, and/or "disrupting" monolingual and standard English practices. The findings for RQ3 entail: (1) teachers using their agency to support students' non-monolingual agency and ways of working; (2) teachers subverting assumptions of students as monolingual learners; and (3) research data: information on students; pedagogical development and policy revisions. In the next section, I present the findings and discussion for RQ3.

### 5.4.1. Teachers Using their Agency to Support Students' Plurilingual Agency and Ways of Working

The first finding for RQ3 found that teachers use their agency to support student's plurilingual agency and ways of working. Additionally, teachers confirmed that, increasingly, students speak French and other languages in the classroom. Even though ministerial and institutional policies do not recognise or incorporate plurilingualism, students use their linguistic repertoires to complete tasks. Alexis, who had lived in another province most of her life before moving to Quebec, talked about how her views about students speaking other languages during classwork had changed over the years. She clarified,

> *I have definitely heard students speaking to each other in French during group work and it does not bother me. Maybe at the beginning, I would say something like, 'Well, we are in English class, maybe we should practice speaking English,' but for me it is a sign that they are being direct with each other; they still have to write the answer in English; it doesn't bother me anymore* (Alexis).

Most teachers reported that they did not discourage students from speaking other languages, for example, during group work. Since Barney had grown up outside of Canada and had travelled extensively before moving to Montreal, he felt that living and working in diverse social and cultural contexts had provided him with another perspective about using multiple languages in the classroom. Barney explained that if the students were speaking other languages in class, he never said anything. He admitted that *"if I hear them in group work—speaking in Italian together, I am not going to bust them up. I am just going to make comments in English about the ideas that they are discussing."* Barney's admission about learners' plurilingual practices align to studies with students mentioned in Chapter 3, Section 3.5., that explored the interrelationship

between students' plurilingual identities and learning a new target language to demonstrate how incorporating plurilingual practices are vital to supporting students' linguistic development.

Indeed, Piccardo (2013) outlines that the practice of "mixing, mingling, and meshing languages is no longer stigmatized, but recognised as a naturally occurring strategy in real-life communication; languages are not seen as kept in separate mental compartments" (p. 11). Plurilingual perspectives encourage the flexibility and fluidity of languages and cultures in language learning that enables learners to use their linguistic and cultural repertoires in the classroom (Piccardo et al., 2022). For example, Rachel often referenced that she speaks several languages in her daily life, at home, and at work; she also repeatedly brought up that she had attended school in French and in English, and that she had taught English as a Second Language at French colleges and L1 English courses at English colleges. She stressed the importance of *"being aware of what you know and what you do not know"* to approach how students speak and write with *"a different set of eyes."* She felt that teachers must include self-reflection as part of their curriculum planning, and she underscored this belief by sharing how she refers to her own plurilingual and pluricultural competencies to include students' prior knowledge. She explained,

> *We start with the premise, "how many of you did this in French school? How many of you did that in French class? How many of you speak another language?" We talk about it because we are here to learn English and I can't teach them English if I do not know what other languages are interfering with their current desire to learn English. Interference is not a problem [...] If we view it as a problem and pretend that it is not there, then they are not learning what they can learn, and we are not understanding where they are coming from; we are not teaching them in the right way* (Rachel).

Rachel's comments suggest that students cannot be expected to learn the mandated criteria in policies, nor can they be expected to understand the spoken and written genres that they are asked to produce without guidance and without providing ways for them to incorporate their prior language and genre knowledge, comprising those associated to their peers, family, and/or cultural communities. For instance, Galante (2020) and Lau & Van Viegen (2020) detailed how plurilingual learners use all the languages and/or varieties of their linguistic repertoires as well as the cultural competencies accumulated during their personal, cultural, social, and educational

experiences. Similarly, some teachers advocated methods that replicate how students navigate and negotiate speaking and writing inside and outside of classroom contexts.

Rachel continued by detailing the challenges students face because of the *"home and school linguistic divide."* She disclosed that despite feeling unable to officially use more plurilingual pedagogies in her classroom, unofficially, she did her best to learn about her students' linguistic and cultural repertoires and their prior educational experiences:

> *You need to know what they know and if you know what they know, then you can build on that to make your point […] multilingual means many languages, but we are in Quebec and the majority of our students will have either gone to a French high school or English high school. […] it is just a question of understanding where they are coming from and then building on what they know. It requires a certain effort on the teachers' part—a willingness to understand what it is that the students understand and try to get their perspective instead of pushing down on the students […] It is giving them a hand and pulling them up to where you are—it is **not** top down—it is **bottom up** (Rachel).*

Cultivating a *"willingness to understand what it is that the students understand and try to get their perspective"* provides a *"bottom up"* approach that enables teachers to embrace learners' linguistic and cultural competencies in language classrooms (Galante et al., 2020). The status quo, i.e., the monolingualism in ministerial and institutional policies negates the reality of societal plurilingualism in academic settings. Several teachers communicated the need to revise policies to include more information about culturally and linguistically diverse students as well as to update pedagogical practices. Sophia was one of the teachers who proposed that policies should *"adapt to the reality"* of classrooms because she felt that if *"the ministerial guidelines were just followed exactly to the letter, to the translated letter, it would not work with the population of students in the English college system."* She insisted, *"I am confident in saying that it would **not** work; so, it needs to engage in levels of adaptation […] I would say that might be a positive aspect that by necessity, we have to adapt, so that might encourage other types of adaptations."* Teachers also mentioned creating "plurilingual spaces" to support learners' use of their linguistic and cultural knowledge and experiences during tasks, including in their writing.

Since language and writing are social acts, they involve a negotiation between languages, cultures, and students' identities during the learning process. Galante et al. (2020) found that

students and teachers reported feeling more empowered when they felt encouraged to access their prior knowledge, including language(s), dialect(s), and culture(s). Policies and pedagogies that promote an understanding of the range of language and writing practices can help to move toward a view of literacy as situated in specific social and classroom contexts. Hugh discussed how both ministerial and department policies privileged a formalist structure that is now outdated. For him, *"the problem is that, as a teacher, if you want people to think, you have to make sure that what you are presenting is not over-determined and that it is not didactic; you need to have a certain openness and ensure that your methodology is also current."* Hugh continued by proposing more pedagogical and professional development geared toward the student population attending English-medium colleges. He said, *"I think as a teacher, you should always be learning. The way that you teach should always be evolving. I find that the system is problematic because it forces you to sort of freeze in time."* Hugh's call for more *"openness"* to inspire teachers to cultivate a *"methodology [that] is also current"* supports empirical studies in Chapter 3, Section 3.5. that showed a lack of teachers' voices in policy and curricula planning. Ng and Boucher-Yip (2016) proposed a better understanding of "the agency of the teacher in negotiating educational reforms and policy changes at the local and national levels" (p.2) because teacher input is crucial to revise policies and curricula. As well, Blesta et al. (2014) found that more research is needed to examine how policies are interpreted and implemented. Realising the literacy standards in policies can be challenging and, at times, impossible.

Since the criteria as outlined in ministerial and institutional policies do not always align to learners' diverse language and writing competencies, most of the teachers admitted that they sometimes choose to circumvent the mandated criteria, especially when assessing writing. For example, Barney expressed how the writing components were more difficult for him to evaluate, especially the essays because students often struggle to write the essay and *"there is a lot of language crossover."* As a result, he had decided to overlook students' grammatical errors and/or their use of French in written assignments. Barney admitted, *"… to be fair, if someone wrote something in French, I would just disregard it and carry on. I know what they are trying to say. I write the word in English above it, and they get their paper back."* Other teachers said that they focus on the specificity of language and writing without perpetuating standard guidelines. Adam discussed how he had adapted his assessment practices during his 10 years of teaching. Adam acknowledged that he has given students who wrote a well-organized essay with good

analysis, but *"who have a grammar mistake or two in every sentence an 85%."* He went on to add that *"if the language does not get in the way of my understanding; if it is the kind of mistake where I recognize it; it is there, but it is still compelling writing; I understand the analysis; it is good analysis, then, I kind of ignore it."* Teachers, like Adam and Barney, who admitted to making allowances and tacitly resisting the criteria in ministerial and department policies justified that they wanted to help students to pass their courses and to succeed in their studies. Another teacher rationalized, *"You just kind of have to accept that the word 'competent' is subjective to a certain extent and the ones you think deserve to pass—you pass."* Results from empirical studies cited in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.3., on the writing practices of plurilingual learners (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Payant, 2020; Payant & Maatouk, 2020; Séror & Gentil, 2020) stressed the importance of examining the broader socio-cultural implications that affect how learners speak and write in social and educational environments to assign tasks and assessment practices that incorporate their language and writing repertoires.

Accordingly, most of the teachers stated that it is important to develop innovative pedagogical approaches for language learning and writing instruction in plurilingual and pluricultural educational environments. The findings show that despite mandated monolingual policies, there are teachers who are unofficially and informally recognizing and accepting learners' plurilingualism; in essence, these teachers are resisting and disrupting policies that enforce a strict adherence to monolingualism, which leads to the second finding for RQ3: how teachers are subverting assumptions about students as monolingual learners.

### 5.4.2. Teachers Subverting Assumptions about Students as Monolingual Learners

The second finding for RQ3 found that teachers are subverting assumptions about students as monolingual learners. All of the teachers emphasised that they try to fulfill the standards in the ministerial and department policies, which can present complications for both teachers and for linguistically and culturally diverse learners in English-medium colleges. Even though teachers are not overtly asked to be language teachers, in practice, they assume a major role in helping students learn new target languages (e.g., English) and writing genres; one of the challenges entails the transition from French-medium high schools to English-medium colleges.

Almost half of the teachers disclosed that they try to reference students' previous language and writing knowledge. Rachel recounted how she actively integrates students'

communicative competencies in the classroom by taking *"an integrative approach from the beginning"* to *"build on their scaffolding in whatever languages"* by giving them examples from languages that she knows and even languages that she does not know because it also adds to her own learning. Rachel shared that she was happy to have students explain how their languages are different from English. Piccardo (2013) maintains the benefits of using students' prior knowledge as a "scaffold," to increase their "self-efficacy and autonomy" (p. 13). Including learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires as "scaffolding" acknowledges and values the competencies that students bring with them to the classroom. Rachel detailed the differences between students who have studied in different languages and monolingual misconceptions:

> *A student who comes from a French college will know very well how to write a 750-word essay; however, their way of going about it would be more from a Francophone world, different from how an English essay is structured, so their resulting work—what they hand in—won't be what is required necessarily, but a teacher who is not familiar with the French essay will perceive it as them not being able to write when in reality they are just writing through a different lens* (Rachel).

As Galante et al. (2020), Piccardo (2013), Lau (2020) have outlined, plurilingualism entails utilizing students' linguistic repertoires as well as the range of their semiotic resources. Additionally, Van Viegen and Lau (2020) state that "at the core of plurilingual pedagogies is the idea that teachers can draw on students' communicative resources as both a scaffold and a resource" (p. 331). Similarly, Barney often asks his students to refer to other languages:

> *I bring other languages into my classroom a lot—like onomatopoeia. Like what is the sound of a dog in English? Woof Woof. Okay, what is the sound of a dog in French? Wof. Wof. It is spelled with an O.  What is it in your language? Because onomatopoeia is the sound of things—the sound is the meaning. So, I could bring that in* (Barney).

Barney's classroom practices allude to research by Schissel et al. (2019) who propose more teacher-student collaboration to integrate inclusive teaching and learning strategies for culturally and linguistically diverse students. During the interviews, several teachers referred to the importance of co-operating with students to learn more about their language and writing. Other teachers mentioned using genre transfer and language cross-over approaches to incite more

equitable assessment practices. For example, Eva described how her personal interest in diversity education and her interactions with plurilingual students had influenced her pedagogical choices. She is trying to focus on the *"idea that there are multiple ways to a text to allow students from a diversity of backgrounds to have something to say about a text."* Over the years, Eva realized that some students who do not initially respond to an assignment suddenly show an interest when she assigns *"texts from lots of different viewpoints to try and catch groups of students and to give them that little advantage—that understanding the context gives students."* Eva's efforts demonstrate how teachers can learn from their students and what works for them during the learning process (Ellis, 2016) to confront hierarchical structures that prioritize and privilege some texts and genres over others. As well, Eva's attempts to include *"texts from different viewpoints"* supports research studies (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Payant, 2020; Maatouk & Payant, 2022) that describe how students who associate language and writing practices to their personal and cultural backgrounds feel more engaged.

One way to include "*different viewpoints"* is to employ students' prior genre knowledge and experiences. Anne directly referred to adding genre transfer in the classroom. She was interested in genre theory based on her graduate studies and her teaching experiences at the university-level and college-level. Since she has been studying genre transfer, she feels *"that is one of the things that improves student transfer by being aware of it and using it in an intentional way."* Anne admitted that she tries to *"give very personal feedback—very personalized […] not give generic feedback"* For example, she has been *"asking students to track their learning experiences from assignment to assignment"* because although we *"think of writing as just something that we do, there is actual knowledge that is associated with it."* Her focus on genre transfer highlights how speakers and writers position themselves through a variety of genres.

Reconsidering genres as elements that have purposes can help students to understand them as created by people representing institutions to achieve specific aims as opposed to pre-existing and irrevocable constructs into which they must fit, which can affect their identity-formation and sense of belonging (Kalan, 2022). Alexis explained how her experiences trying to learn French had altered her understanding of the challenges and difficulties that students face transferring their genre knowledge when learning a new target language in a new linguistic community. She explained how she had shifted her views on English and the essay genre:

*I studied French writing. In a French essay, in the title, you capitalize the first letter of the first work, but then nothing else is capitalized. In English, there is capitalization. And I would hand in my essay and the teacher would give it back because I kept messing it up and now I understand why students mess things up like that—because you have been taught a certain convention and you just have the automatic impulse to do it, so I guess I express an awareness that there are different conventions in language and different traditions; there is the English stream and the French stream; in Montreal, there is also the issue of public communication* (Alexis).

Alexis' attempt to learn a second language had changed how she teaches English, including genres such as the essay. Specifically, her experiences trying to write in French had taught her that learners access their linguistic knowledge when speaking and writing. According to Van Viegen & Lau (2020) "students' identities or identifications are neither fixed nor static [and] plurilingual pedagogies accommodate dynamic, fluid understandings of not only language use but also language learners" (p. 327). Understanding language and writing as social practices within specific contexts helps learners develop into multidisciplinary and cross-cultural speakers and writers. Another teacher, Rachel, said that she integrates genre transfer in her classrooms by comparing the writing genres that students have learned in French high school when she teaches the English essay genre. She asserted that *"students just need to know how to transfer their knowledge."* She explained that the fact that she knows how to write a French essay helps her *"thesis statement explanation by 75%"* because she asks her students, *"'Is this what a French thesis statement looks like?'"* And then, she told me that they *"talk about different ways that they learned how to do this in French."* After Rachel discusses the French essay with her students, she tells them, *"'You are probably used to writing an introduction this way; so, now, you just remove this and add this. Or you are used to doing the body paragraph this way, in French; now, you remove this.'"* For example, Rachel refers to the *"sujet posé and the sujet divisé"* when comparing and contrasting the French and English thesis statements and she *"bring[s] up those things, so they can relate."* Relying on her plurilingual and pluricultural identity as a resource allowed Rachel to *"bring up"* genre references from her own personal and educational background so that her students *"can relate"* while learning a new genre in English.

The examples that Rachel and Alexis shared align to research by Galante et al. (2020) who found that teachers felt more invested when they "were able to draw on their experiences as

language learners and users" (p. 14). Galante et al. (2020) describe how teachers gain confidence and feel empowered when they can refer to what they already know. By drawing on her own experiences, Rachel was able to view herself as a teacher who subverts monolingual language, writing, and assessment practices. Maatouk & Payant's (2022) research study in Quebec found that integrating plurilingual approaches depended on teachers' motivation to learn about students' prior linguistic and educational experiences. For example, Eva told me that she gives her *"students a questionnaire to fill out, asking them about their linguistic backgrounds, about things that they might want to tell [her] about themselves—difficulties that they might have had in the past and that might impact their experiences."* Eva's acknowledgment and acceptance of learners' linguistic competencies align with Galante et al. (2020), who reveal that "flexible use of language allow[s] students to freely manipulate their own linguistic repertoire and exercise linguistic agency, challenging teachers' perceptions that an English-only policy [is] necessary for inclusiveness" (p. 21). Accordingly, the perception of language homogeneity is out of sync with the reality of English-medium colleges, including in Quebec.

For instance, Anne's interactions with plurilingual and pluricultural students prompted her to rethink how English Department policies influence curriculum planning. Specifically, Anne described how the wording in policies can cause teachers not to choose challenging material or to make their courses *"easier"* as she phrased it. She was "*sure some teachers do that."* To counteract such practices, she decided to bring in stories that students had not read before; she was pleasantly surprised to learn that *"the students really liked them,"* so she surmised that *"maybe we could be under-serving students by 'dumbing things down' for want of a better word. Or bringing in stories that are not challenging or interesting."* She concluded that such decisions could contribute to students developing negative personal and academic *"perceptions about themselves."* Subsequently, assessing students' linguistic repertoires as deviating from a mandated standard is not only linguistic; it is also a divergence from an idealized Anglo-centric and monolingual model of language embedded in policy (Sterzuk, 2015). Anne and other teachers rationalised that current policies do not incorporate a view of language that is authentically connected to students' linguistic practices.

Eva was one of the teachers who had begun to view language and writing as expressions of knowledge instead of as modes of assessment. For example, she tries to encourage students to become enthusiastic about their writing—*what* they write and *why* they write—instead of being

obliged to speak and to write according to the criteria in policies. She specified that it is easy to make assumptions about students *"whose abilities in terms of their reading and writing appear not to be very strong."* She explained that *"when you give them a text that is about someone or something that is culturally significant to them, all of a sudden, their level of understanding and analysis is 'up here' because something that we don't take into consideration very often is how much cultural knowledge goes into somebody's ability to analyze a text."* Eva now chooses a few texts that are from a background *"either racial or cultural that is not white Anglo-Saxon."* Eva's observations relate to research that supports the need to value and to include students' linguistic and cultural repertoires (Payant & Galante, 2022). Building upon learners' prior knowledge inspires and empowers them to complete their assigned tasks (Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2013). In contrast, compartmentalizing or marginalizing learners' linguistic and cultural competencies can lead to false perceptions about their literacy. As Eva stated, *"… you cannot make generalizations about anyone, really."* Questioning current language and writing criteria is a crucial component in becoming a more critically engaged teacher and one who contests *"generalizations"* about linguistically and culturally diverse students.

Similarly, Barney relied upon his extensive experiential knowledge acquired from teaching ESL and L1 English courses in French and English-medium colleges and universities in Quebec. Barney plans his courses to include *"what students know to make a connection somewhere because teaching is about making connections and language is all about making connections."* Barney summarized that *"to be a stickler about 'this is the way it is taught' and 'this is the way it is done'—seems a little 19th or 20th century. Things should be a lot more open."* Although plurilingualism has been prevalent for decades, Barney's comments reveal that, in practice, integrating plurilingual approaches is not an established practice in language learning and teaching (Cummins, 2019). Some teachers suggested that there should be more of a focus on providing scaffolding and pedagogical support (e.g., Piccardo, 2013), which leads to the final finding for RQ3—research data: information on plurilingual students, pedagogical development, and revising policies.

### 5.4.3. Research Data: Information on Plurilingual Students, Pedagogical Development, and Revising Policies

The third finding for RQ3 revealed that teachers are interested in data about plurilingual students, and the French and English high school systems in Quebec. One teacher, Rachel, explained that it is important *"to take into consideration where students are coming from"* and she worried that *"we do not know enough about where our students are coming from."* She asserted, *"When they come in, we assume that they know things that they might not know. We assume that they do not know things that they might already know. That has been my experience. That is what is problematic."* Another teacher, Alexis, shared Rachel's wish to assemble more information about *"the things that they might already know"* to build on students' prior knowledge. Alexis, who had 15 years of teaching experience, summarized her desire to learn more about *"what is going on in high schools."* Alexis affirmed that she would want to know what is going on in the high schools, especially, in Secondary V. She also admitted that she is *"interested in the conversation about multilingual students—how we can have a more multilingual environment—not such an 'Anglo' environment."* In addition, Alexis wanted to understand *"how essays are taught in different languages and in different traditions, so that we are a little bit more aware."* Alexis strongly believed that *"if you are aware of what you know and aware of what you do not know, then you will approach what the students produce with a different set of eyes. So, there must be self-reflection built into the preparation of courses."* Several times, self-reflection was brought up as a key element in *"the preparation of courses"* to update current curriculum planning and pedagogical practices.

Other teachers provided another way to facilitate self-reflection in curriculum planning, specifically by compiling data and statistics about students. Anne said that it is vital to obtain *"a profile of students' prior knowledge [...] just their prior experiences with different kinds of writing and language [...] getting some basic demographic information about the students."* In the meantime, Anne asks her students to fill out a form to acquire more information; she calls it a *"getting to know you' document."* Additionally, Eva stated that she would like *"to know more about the statistics about who our students are, so that we cannot just make assumptions."* Specifically, she wanted to learn more about students *"coming into [her] classroom with 'this' educational background and 'this' linguistic background and maybe went to 'this' particular school [...] so that [she] can figure out ways to help them."* Requests for data on students to not

*"just make assumptions about them"* echo research on adopting plurilingual approaches to encompass learners' linguistic and cultural resources (e.g., Piccardo, 2013). Many teachers discussed how students' linguistic and cultural positioning plays a crucial role in their literacy development. Since language and writing are social acts, students negotiate and construct their identities through the process of using language and writing (Kalan, 2021). Eva, and other teachers' requests to *"figure out ways to help"* learners might explain why they want more information about students' linguistic and writing repertoires to be included in policies.

Almost all the teachers interviewed expressed a readiness, at the department level, to revise policies to reflect the language and writing knowledge that students already possess. Barney recalled teaching at multiple English and French colleges to explain how he had to unpack various English Department policies and untangle different classifications of students. He proposed that instead of colleges creating policies locally, it might be more useful to rely on plurilingual scholarship for pedagogies that work best because teachers *"are all alone in the classroom struggling away."* As such, Barney felt that *"ideas of how to present certain difficult concepts would be good. More interesting ways to teach grammar"* because he explained that *"the written components are always difficult ... especially the essays."* Barney felt that *"a little subset would be useful"* to clarify what is *"appropriate"* language and writing. Barney stated,

> *There is not enough explanation as to what is **appropriate**. **Appropriate** use of spelling. What is **appropriate**? **Appropriate** use of punctuation. We still have the same lists from the 90s. Has anything changed? And who dictates what is **appropriate**, anyway? It is up to the teacher. I know a lot of students struggle with spelling no matter what level you are for various reasons; it is the word **appropriate**; yes, that is the word* (Barney).

Barney's emphasis and repetition of the word *"appropriate,"* evokes Rosa and Flores (2015), who critique and analyze "appropriate-based approaches ... [that] conceptualize standardized linguistic practices as an objective set of linguistic forms that are appropriate for an academic setting" (p. 149). In Chapter 2, Section, 2.4., Flores & Rosa (2015) link "appropriateness-based approaches" to plurilingual learners, assessing and judging them according to criteria that are interpreted as generic and so they remain undisputed and unchallenged. One of the problems with "appropriate-based approaches" is that they suggest a standard, which excludes learners' languages and cultures and prior educational experiences. Often, teachers explained that when

students are perceived as deficient and/or as remedial speakers and writers, it is because current department policies do not give them credit for the language and writing competencies that they have already acquired. While some teachers shared their thoughts on how to update and revise English Department policies, other teachers such as Marina expressed that it *"would be great to have a little 'Nota Bene,' a side note that says how to work with the strengths and skills of students or maybe a little profile of the students—you know—what they learned in French high schools."* In fact, the majority of teachers emphasized how compiling accompanying texts with research on plurilingualism and plurilingual tasks (e.g., Galante et al., 2022) could be added as appendices to English Department policies to help teachers learn more about their students and to guide them to plan their English courses. Rachel concurred that *"there has to be in a side document that is provided for teachers and that is changed every 3 years or 5 years, like an update: 'these are your students, and this is where they are coming from.'"* She underscored that English-medium colleges *"are dealing with an immigrant population"* and suggested that the *"data needs to be updated as the immigrant populations change. […] And if that document is accompanying the model course outlines and frameworks that the teachers are given, then they will take seriously that this information is important when preparing their classes."* In addition to updating policies, teachers wanted to learn about pedagogies that integrate students' linguistic and cultural competencies as an integral part of language learning and writing instruction (e.g., Galante et al., 2020; Piccardo et al., 2022).

Since language and writing occur within specific academic communities, students should be provided with guidance and support that is *"best suited for the types of students that we have in real life"* (Rachel). Alexis wanted *"to learn if there are pedagogical practices for multilingual students."* Additionally, Alexis conveyed that *"there is a hesitation on some students' parts [when] they write a personal essay, and they say, 'Well, in my country …' But they do not say what country."* Students' discomfort to share from which country they had emigrated made her to wonder *"if they think that they have to be a blank slate or something,"* causing her to be *"interested in finding strategies for allowing students to voice who they are and where they come from and […] to be comfortable doing that."* Wanting to find ways to *"allow students to voice who they are and where they come from"* reflects a willingness to "disrupt" monolingual language teaching by including plurilingual pedagogies (Galante, 2020).

Overall, the findings for RQ3 found that applying plurilingual perspectives necessitates a change in teachers' beliefs towards language teaching as well as a shift in ideologies related to language learning for plurilingual and pluricultural learners. Teachers who were able to question monolingual approaches were also able to use their agency to support students' non-monolingual agency and to subvert assumptions of students as monolingual learners.

Figure 7 includes the main findings for RQ3.

Figure 7

*Findings for RQ3*

| RQ3: Finding #1 |
| :---: |
| Teachers Using their Agency to Support Students' Plurilingual Agency and Ways of Working |

| RQ3: Finding #2 |
| :---: |
| How Teachers Subvert Assumptions of Students as Monolingual Learners |

| RQ3: Finding #3 |
| :---: |
| Research Data: Information on Students, Pedagogical Development, and Policy Revisions |
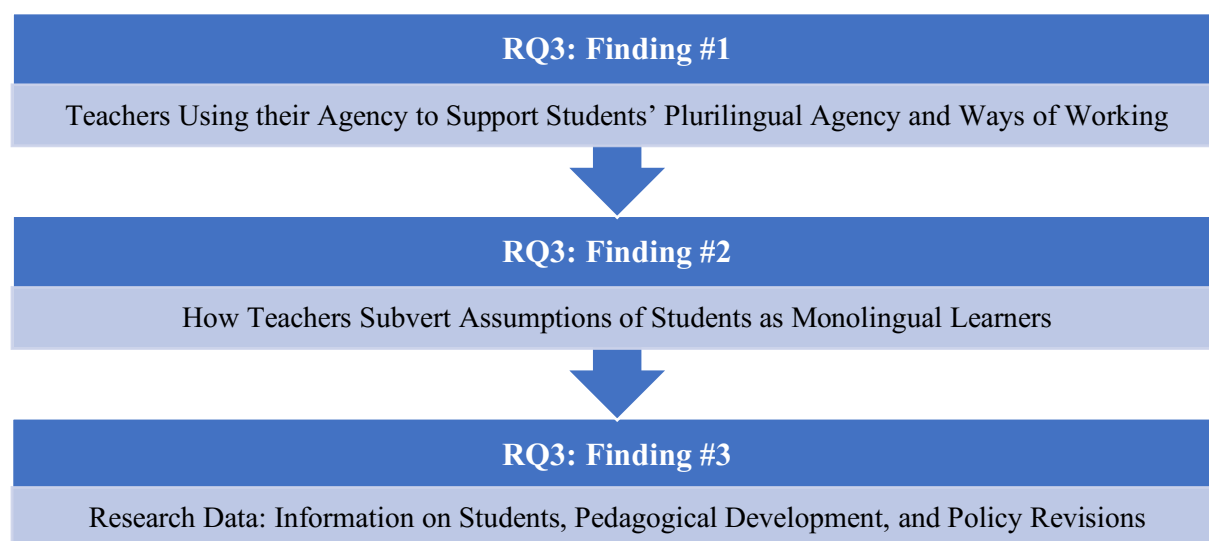
## 5.5.    Summary of Findings and Discussion

Chapter five presented findings and the discussion for the three research questions: RQ1—*How are provincial Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education policy texts for English courses represented in college English Department policy texts?* RQ2—*What are college English teachers' perceptions of the extent to which English Department policies inform the language pedagogy, writing and assessment practices of plurilingual learners?* RQ3—*To what extent do college English teachers align themselves and/or resist the mandated language and writing criteria in ministerial and college English Department policy texts?*

For RQ1, the findings show that discourses and ideologies about language, writing, and assessment are reconceptualized from one policy to another, then interpreted and implemented in academic contexts, for example, from ministerial and department policies. The results found that plurilingual and pluricultural students are not considered or included in policies, which has

created a "space" for unofficial discourses about these students to emerge, including in department policies. The findings suggest that viewing literacy as a basic skill is a reductive concept that influences the decisions and actions of administrators and teachers such as labelling students as deficient and attributing them with negative personal value assumptions. Therefore, policies can lead to the segregation of those who are not so-called native speakers of standard English, thereby conflating proficiency with academic success and with a sense of belonging.

For RQs 2 and 3, the teacher narratives also provided a way to examine how policies influence the teaching and assessment of language and writing in the classroom. In practice, teachers revealed that they often reject monolingualism to recognize students' plurilingualism and pluriculturality to support students—that is—they are doing the work from the "ground up" to challenge criteria that disadvantage plurilinguals.

In reviewing policies, what has been often overlooked is the examination of institutional discourses about language and writing and the ways that these discourses can serve as exclusionary practices for certain groups of students. In this plurilingual and pluricultural landscape with its language politics, there is a need to understand language and writing as socio-culturally situated practices, instead of as generic skills. To shift perceptions of remedial and deficit discourses in English-medium higher education entails including plurilingual pedagogies for culturally and linguistically diverse students in provincial, federal, and international contexts.

The next chapter will present the implications and the recommendations.

## Chapter 6: Implications and Recommendations

### 6.1.    Implications

This PhD research examined the implications of Quebec's linguistic landscape for language education policies and the possible impact on students' language and writing in English-medium colleges. Specifically, the study examined how language dynamics in Quebec are produced discursively, and how assumptions about English-medium higher education and plurilingualism underlie those discourses. The findings have serious implications on teacher agency to implement plurilingual pedagogies in the classroom. These implications are related to language politics in Quebec that have been conceptualized from concepts such as linguistic imperialism, linguicism, and monolingual language ideologies in language policy and planning.

Furthermore, this PhD research has examined the links between language education policies in institutional contexts and the role that policy plays in how teachers implement language, writing, and assessment practices in English courses in English-medium colleges in Quebec. Due to its qualitative design, this PhD research offered two approaches: (1) critical discourse analysis of college English Department and selected *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy texts, and (2) critical narrative inquiry of interviews with 12 college English teachers. I focused on how college English teachers understand and respond to teaching in linguistically and culturally diverse English-medium classes. I employed the theoretical framework of plurilingualism to analyze teachers' perspectives of institutional discourses. As well, I examined the juxtaposition between mandated monolingual methods in language, writing, and assessment in contrast to students' plurilingual and pluricultural practices. The findings detailed the disparity between language education policies and societal plurilingualism that raise questions about the possible outcomes for students as well as how plurilingual theory can inform future research. Even though most plurilingual students do not have access to English language education before they attend college, they are simultaneously blamed, categorized, and marginalized for not adhering to the standard norms in ministerial and college English Department policy texts. In general, this PhD research provided an understanding of the representation—or lack thereof—of students' language and writing in academic environments such as English-medium colleges and proposed the need to continue to include plurilingual perspectives in curriculum and policy reform in local and global contexts.

### 6.1.1 Policy Implications: Institutional Policies and Teacher Perceptions of Policies

In terms of language policy, the findings show that Quebec prioritizes the learning of French and the promotion of Francophone culture, which can limit the possibility for other languages and cultures to survive. In English-medium colleges, the promulgation of Anglo-centric language standards, writing genres, and assessment practices support monolingual and monocultural educational policies in language, writing, and assessment. *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and institutional policies prevent plurilingual and pluricultural perspectives from being integrated in the purpose, context, construction of policies, and this paucity can create several consequences for learners, especially in the discursive representation of how language and writing are assessed in English Department policies. The critical discourse analysis of college English Department policy contributed to current understandings about how monolingual language and writing assumptions dictate teaching in discipline-specific settings and can promote the perception of plurilingual students as second language learners, which does not reflect their linguistic diversity. Additionally, this PhD research explored how teachers interpret policy and, in turn, how policy affects curriculum, and pedagogical planning.

A plurilingual theoretical framework and critical narrative inquiry also focused on how teachers implement and/or subvert normalized expectations about discipline-specific language and writing that can influence how speakers and writers understand, interact, and negotiate their linguistic and cultural competencies. Teachers explained the incongruences between interpreting the criteria in policies and the challenges of implementing them in the classroom, especially for students who have complex and diverse language and writing backgrounds and experiences. As well, teachers described the struggles that learners can encounter producing Anglo-centric genres such as the essay. The problem is that a skills-approach prioritizes accuracy in assessment (e.g., grammar or specific genres) over fluency in other communicative competences. The prevalence of cultural and linguistic diversity in English-medium colleges indicates the need to investigate current criteria for language and writing in policies, specifically institutional policies that mandate language teaching and writing instruction. This PhD research seeks to contribute to a new area of research in understanding the role of linguistic and cultural diversity in English-medium education environments to provide insights into much needed plurilingual pedagogy that considers the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students in global and local contexts such as in English-medium colleges in Quebec.

In Quebec, colleges are a unique innovation, developed specifically to increase inclusion and access to higher education. As such, colleges constitute a particularly important and distinct site for research on plurilingualism and plurilingual students. Examining institutional discourses about language and writing in policies that construct and categorize students provides a way to understand possible implications for these students in English-medium academic settings as well as a means to develop pedagogical practices to assert their cultural and linguistic identities. Aside from policy reform, it is important to develop much needed pedagogy on language and writing that reflects the diversity of plurilingual and pluricultural education environments internationally, nationally, and provincially.

### 6.1.2. Pedagogical Implications

Quebec education institutions, in particular, in Montreal, have an increasingly plurilingual and pluricultural student population from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds and education experiences, so it is urgent to re-assess how plurilingual and pluricultural practices can be recognized and valued in future policy reforms. Students' linguistic abilities are composed of several components that link to each other in different ways and for distinct purposes depending on the specific social or academic situation (Galante, 2019). In English classrooms, for example, learners rely on their linguistic and cultural competencies, choosing between two or three languages during interactions (Ortega, 2013; Rymes, 2014). As well, plurilinguals use their repertoires to negotiate and to construct new varieties in their language practices, which suggests that languages and cultures are interrelated (Canagarajah, 2018; Galante, 2020; Lau et al., 2016). As a result, pedagogical practices that emerge from ministerial and/or institutional policies need to integrate learners' linguistic and cultural competencies, whether learned at home, in social settings, or in classroom contexts (Busch, 2017; García, 2019). In linguistically and culturally diverse environments such as the city of Montreal where many people speak two, three, or more languages (Statistics Canada, 2022), it is crucial that policies include plurilingualism and pluriculturality.

Plurilingual theory and pedagogies can challenge monolingual approaches by encouraging teacher agency and creativity in curriculum planning (Galante et al., 2020). Presently, plurilingual theory has not been broadly implemented in practice, mainly due to the

predominance of monolingual policies that promulgate linguistic uniformity. Shifting current monolingual beliefs about language proficiency to plurilingual perspectives entails including different languages and varieties of languages, which also cultivates cross-cultural and intercultural communicative competencies. The implications from this PhD research provide important insights about how institutional practices might be informed by policy reforms to support plurilingual theory and plurilingual pedagogies in Quebec, Canada, and in English-medium education environments in other countries and in international settings.

## 6.2.    Implications: Summary

Four implications have emerged from the results of the study, detailed in Figure 8.

Figure 8

*Implications Emerging from the Findings*

| Implication #1: | Implication #2: |
| --- | --- |
| The Role of Monolingual and Anglocentric Language and Writing | Exclusion of Plurilingual and Pluricultural Students |

| Implication #3: | Implication #4: |
| --- | --- |
| Role of Language and Writing Discourses in Positioning Students | Role of Genres in Compliance to Monolingual Norms |

### 6.2.1.  Implication 1: The Role of Monolingual and Anglocentric Language and Writing

The first implication entails the social, cultural, and legislative reasons that prevent students from acquiring a standard version of English and the role of Anglo-centric genres such as the essay in ministerial and department policies. Most students are immersed in a French social environment in Quebec due to the *Charter of the French Language* (1977). Such an exclusionary model discounts plurilingual and pluricultural practices by mandating a monolingual and monocultural framework that is reproduced in education environments, including in English-medium colleges in Quebec. Since *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* and English Department policies do not incorporate plurilingual and pluricultural perspectives, students cannot use the range of their linguistic and cultural repertoires, which can affect their identity-formation and academic success.

Table 19 summarizes the discussion of the findings for the first implication.

Table 19

*Summary: The Role of Monolingual and Anglocentric Language and Writing*

| |
|---|
| (1) Policies can reinforce monolingual and Anglocentric or Francocentric values that acculturate participants as members of a particular community (e.g., English and/or French community) |
| (2) Privileging monolingual and Anglocentric language and writing can affect academic success |
| (3) Monolingual language and writing genres can affect students' identity-formation: how they view themselves as speakers and writers |

## 6.2.2. Implication 2: Exclusion of Plurilingual and Pluricultural Students

The results from the text analysis suggest that monolingual policies can systematically exclude and devalue learners' literacies and contribute to language-based discrimination. For example, students can be separated from core credit courses and placed in remedial streams of the first-year English course or delegated to non-credit preparatory classes as defined in the *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy for the *Remedial Secondary V Language Arts* course. The language and writing standards in ministerial policies also facilitate the production of deficit discourses in college English Department policies to describe plurilingual students. The critical discourse analysis of the English Department policy and the critical narrative inquiry of the teacher interviews found that plurilinguals' literacy practices are often portrayed negatively and conflated with deficient personal characteristics. For instance, plurilingual students are described as having *"notable problems"* or *"significant ESL problems."* As well, they are depicted as having issues with *"general study skills," "time management,"* problems with *"motivation"* and being *"not prepared."* Deficit discourses are also counterproductive to the stated goals of inclusion and access for culturally and linguistically diverse students by locating and pointing out perceived differences as well as normalizing standardized ways of speaking and writing. Notions about language and writing often equate access to academic institutions with propagating language and writing criteria that can exclude plurilingual and pluricultural students. These students can be perceived as not conducive to academic higher education. In contrast, plurilingual pedagogical practices can provide a way to question privileged genres that are mandated to evaluate and to classify students.

Table 20 summarizes privileged genres and the possible outcomes for plurilingual and pluricultural students.

Table 20

*Privileged Genres and Possible Outcomes for Plurilingual Students*

| (1) Normalizing standardized discourses about language or writing can marginalize and exclude students who do not conform to those standards and assess them as remedial and deficient |
| --- |
| (2) Institutional discourses on language, writing, and assessment can negatively affect the perception of plurilingual and pluricultural students |
| (3) Monolingual standards can facilitate the labelling of plurilingual and pluricultural students in English Department policy as deficient as well as serve to conflate literacy with personal attributes such as describing students as being "not motivated" or "not prepared" |

## 6.2.3.  Implications 3: Role of Language and Writing Discourses in Positioning Students

The critical discourse analysis also examined how literacy standards in ministerial and English Department policies function in English-medium education environments and how they mandate and maintain discourses about language proficiency, writing, and assessment. In addition, these policies regulate language education by organizing writing workshops, peer tutoring, and/or setting up Writing Centers. At the department-level, examples include implementing non-credit preparatory courses and remedial streams for the first-year English course for students. Institutional policies create and circulate standards for language, writing, and assessment that influence how students are characterized and classified at the institutional level in English-medium colleges in Quebec. In a classroom context, language, writing, and assessment criteria inserted in policies impose a strict adherence to monolingualism. However, mandating monolingual standards for language and writing instruction can disadvantage linguistically and culturally diverse learners, and perpetuate the perception that these students *can* and *should* be taught in comparable ways, namely monolingual standards as native speakers of these languages. This expectation can lead to the devaluation and/or exclusion of students who are not so-called native speakers of standard English and/or who have not been exposed to academic literacy as mandated by ministerial or institutional policies.

Table 21 summarizes the role of language and writing in institutional settings**.**

Table 21

*Role of Language and Writing in Institutional Settings*

| |
|---|
| (1) Language and writing policy texts are embedded with specific ideologies and values that appear to be universal and so they often remain unquestioned |
| (2) A deficit and/or remedial view of plurilingual and pluricultural students can perceive the diversity of languages and cultures in English classrooms as a problem rather than a strength |
| (3) Categorizing plurilingual and plurilingual students as remedial can have negative consequences such as placing them in remedial and/or non-credit preparatory courses |

### 6.2.4. Implication 4: Role of Genres in Compliance to Monolingual Norms

Concepts of compliance and/or acculturation are associated primarily through genres that are rooted in specific historical, political, social, and cultural contexts. The genres that students are asked to produce conceptualize and mediate how genres influence teaching and learning in plurilingual and pluricultural educational environments. Additionally, privileged genres are used to assess language and writing proficiency and the genres chosen for a particular course facilitate the acceptance of students' literacy practices, their participation in linguistic communities, and how they function to inform students' subject positions within those communities. In each academic community language and writing practices change as students move from one discipline to another and from one academic community to another; each academic and disciplinary community possesses its own set of conventions about language, writing, and assessment. Since there is a growing trend toward standardization, investigating the extent to which institutional policies and pedagogical practices affect students' academic success is important. The examination English Department policies, their discursive construction, and how they represent plurilingual speakers defines current pedagogical and assessment practices and the possible implications for students in English-medium classroom contexts.

Table 22 provides a summary for the role of genres in compliance to monolingual norms.

Table 22

*Summary of the Role of Genres in Compliance to Monolingual Norms*

| |
|---|
| (1) Language and writing promote conformity and uniformity to language and writing standards |
| (2) Specific genres (e.g., the essay) serve as an educational tool to assess students' literacy |
| (3) The essay integrated students to monolingual and mono-cultural language and writing |

### 6.3.    The Main Pedagogical Implications

The main pedagogical implications emerged from the analysis of the three research questions: for RQ1, the critical discourse analysis of the selected English Department and the three *Quebec Ministry of Education and Higher Education* policy texts, and for RQs 2 and 3, the critical narrative inquiry analysis of the interview transcripts from 12 college English teachers.

Table 23 lists the main pedagogical implications from this PhD research.

Table 23

*Main Pedagogical Implications*

| |
|---|
| (1) Categorizing students as "special needs" or "at-risk" or "remedial" can also attribute negative personal attributes and traits to them |
| (2) Understanding language and writing as a socio-culturally situated practice offers a new approach to understanding questions of success, failure, and remediation to re-examine literacy criteria |
| (3) Genres (e.g., the essay) have powerful gatekeeping functions for assessing English proficiency |
| (4)  Discourses about language and writing influence how teachers and administrators implement policies and can have personal and academic implications for speakers and writers |

### 6.4.    Discussion of the Main Implications

In Quebec, the linguistic complexity in English-medium college classrooms and the role that language policy has played in shaping educational practices emphasize the need to examine ministerial and English Department policies and the possible consequences for plurilingual students. Understanding how linguistic inequities are shaped by policies is a vital step in inciting practical and discursive change at the ministerial and institutional level.

Policies at the ministerial and department levels must consider the purpose, context, construction, implementation, and consequences: (1) purpose (e.g., monolingual standards); (2) context (e.g., monolingual linguistic landscape of Montreal, Quebec); (3) construction (e.g., descriptions and categorizations of students in college English Department policy); (4) outcomes of the implementation (e.g., by administrators and educators in institutional and classroom settings). Access for plurilingual students also entails an emphasis on privileged language and writing genres that can disadvantage learners who are not so-called native speakers and writers of standard English. The findings also show that students need guidance and support to learn how to speak and to write standard English in discipline-specific settings.

Ideally, language and writing pedagogy should occur in classrooms and not separate from core courses. Language and writing are epistemic, social practices, and connected to language, culture, and identity. Understanding language and writing from a broader social perspective can encourage discussions about institutional discourses on language, writing, and assessment: what underlying assumptions they reproduce and to what practices they give rise. Moreover, when teachers reference and build upon learners' plurilingual and cultural repertoires, students feel more invested and engaged in the language learning and writing process. Integrating plurilingual perspectives in language and writing pedagogy helps students to build a critical meta-awareness to adapt their language and writing to a specific academic setting. Even though this study is situated in Quebec English-medium colleges and focuses on students categorized as plurilingual and pluricultural, the findings explored in this PhD research are relevant to students in other provinces in Canada, or in international contexts.

## 6.5. Limitations

As with any study that aims to break new grounds, this PhD research had limitations. For the teacher interviews, the participants who volunteered in the study may have been more likely to adhere to plurilingual approaches. Even though the English teachers interviewed have worked at various colleges and other academic institutions in Montreal, this PhD research mainly relied on policies for English courses in English-medium colleges. It would have been helpful to include French teachers from French-speaking colleges to compare their perceptions on language education in both the English and French college systems in Quebec, including in Montreal. Unfortunately, this type of investigation was outside of the scope of this study as the aim was to investigate English teachers and discourses on English proficiency.

Another limitation entailed the lack of inclusion of students' perspectives regarding their experiences with language and writing in English-medium colleges. Future research can compile students' narratives to collect valuable data on the challenges that students encounter with language and writing in higher education. Another research study can focus on examining learners' experiences with language and writing in English and French-medium colleges.

Despite the limitations, the results provide useful contributions. From a methodological point of view, this PhD research combined critical discourse analysis of policies and critical narrative inquiry of teacher narratives to offer an in-depth portrait of the role that policies play in

representing—or not—plurilingual and pluricultural students and plurilingual perspectives that can guide future research studies. Pedagogically, this PhD research offers teachers and administrators with an understanding of the benefits and challenges of implementing plurilingual pedagogies in language learning and writing instruction. In the next few years, literacy will continue to be an important issue. The recommendations from this research study present some suggestions for future research avenues to pursue as well as pedagogical practices to implement.
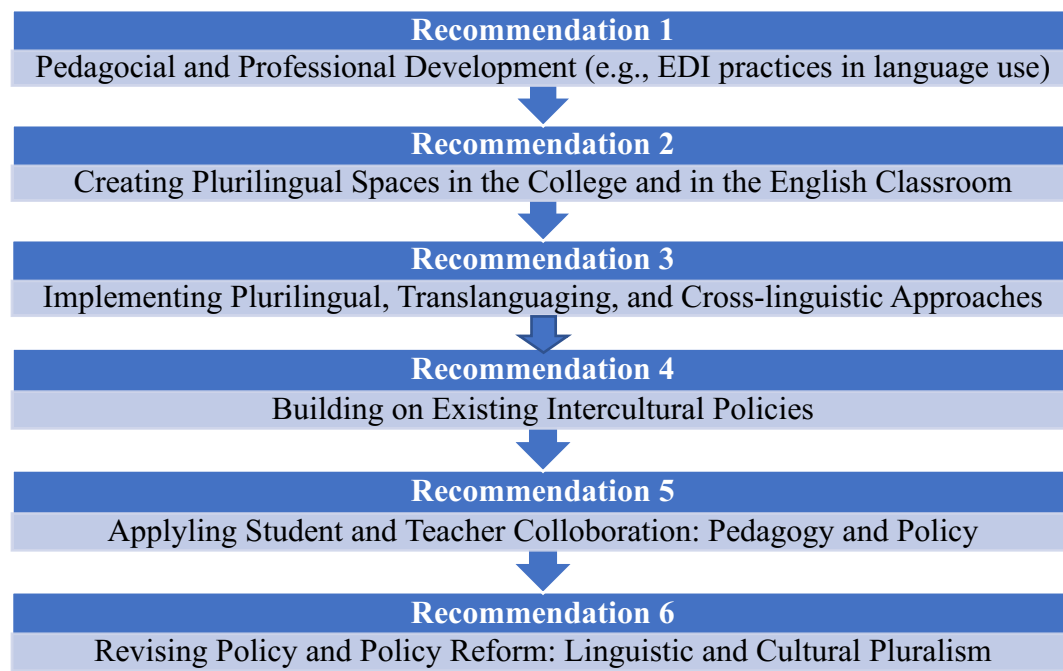
## 6.6.    Recommendations: Redressing Language and Writing Policies and Pedagogy

There are six recommendations: (1) providing pedagogical and professional development, including Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (EDI) practices in language use (2) creating plurilingual spaces in the college and in the English classroom, (3) implementing plurilingual, translanguaging, and cross-linguistic approaches, (4) building on existing intercultural policies, (5) applying student and teacher collaboration: pedagogy and policy, (6) revising policy and policy reform: linguistic and cultural pluralism.

Figure 9 lists the main recommendations.

Figure 9

*Recommendations: Redressing Language and Writing Policies and Pedagogy*

| Recommendation 1 |
|---|
| Pedagocial and Professional Development (e.g., EDI practices in language use) |

| Recommendation 2 |
|---|
| Creating Plurilingual Spaces in the College and in the English Classroom |

| Recommendation 3 |
|---|
| Implementing Plurilingual, Translanguaging, and Cross-linguistic Approaches |

| Recommendation 4 |
|---|
| Building on Existing Intercultural Policies |

| Recommendation 5 |
|---|
| Applyling Student and Teacher Colloboration: Pedagogy and Policy |

| Recommendation 6 |
|---|
| Revising Policy and Policy Reform: Linguistic and Cultural Pluralism |

**6.7.    Discussion of the Recommendations**

Since the Quebec college system organizes its post-secondary education differently than the rest of Canada, it offers an innovative space to build bridges between educational institutions. Quebec's college system is becoming an environment with an increasingly diverse and complex linguistic and cultural student population. Integrating students who are transitioning from the high school system to the college system will entail a multi-level approach. Subsequently, it is important to study how language ideologies influence learning to speak and to write in English or in other target languages, which also necessitates revising policies to reflect this reality.

**6.7.1    Pedagogical and Professional Development**

In this PhD research study, most teachers wanted more pedagogical and professional development on plurilingual theory and pedagogies, including Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (EDI) practices in language use. Furthermore, teachers shared how they try to use their agency to informally disrupt monolingual discourses about language, writing, and assessment. Students who do not feel engaged with mandated language and writing criteria often feel this way because they cannot identify with the course content or with the genre conventions that they need to produce. In contrast, students who can associate language and writing practices to their personal and cultural backgrounds feel more invested (e.g., Kalan, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Maatouk & Payant, 2022; Payant, 2020), which is why some teachers reported that they are trying to create "plurilingual spaces" for plurilingual and pluricultural learners.

**6.7.2    Creating Plurilingual Spaces: Plurilingualism**

Reimagining classrooms as "plurilingual spaces" necessitates "a change in underlying assumptions, a recognition that the classroom is already plurilingual and that practices that imagine the existence of only a single code are limiting at best and ill-serving at worst" (Tardy, 2011, p. 654). Unilateral assumptions can contribute to the negative assessment of plurilingual students (Inoue, 2015; 2017; Kubota & Bale, 2020; Sterzuk, 2015). There is an urgent need for language education to adapt to the changing realities of plurilingual and pluricultural speakers and writers. To transcend standardized views of language and writing necessitates adopting approaches that integrate students' entire linguistic repertoires, whether stemming from

languages learned at home, in social settings, cultural communities, or in education environments (Galante et al., 2022; Payant & Galante, 2022). Students' linguistic abilities are composed of several social, cultural, and linguistic components that interact with each other depending on the specific situation (García, 2019; Kubota, 2020). Plurilinguals rely on their linguistic and cultural competencies, choosing between two or three languages during social and discipline-specific interactions (Ortega, 2014; Rymes, 2014). They merge their linguistic repertoires to negotiate and to construct new language varieties and semiotic constructs. As a result, pedagogical and assessment practices need to adapt to the fluidity and flexibility of the language systems (Canagarajah, 2016; 2018; Cummins, 2007; 2017) that students bring with them into the classroom, and one way to do so is by adopting plurilingual perspectives.

Table 24 details how to create "plurilingual spaces" summarized in this chapter.

Table 24

*Summary: Creating Plurilingual Spaces for Plurilingual Students*

| |
|---|
| (1) Reconsider "deficit" discourses about plurilingual students as culturally and linguistically different from monolingual and monocultural norms and assumptions about language and writing |
| (2) Integrate writing assessment within institutional structures and systems that move beyond formalist and monolingual approaches to help students access their linguistic repertoires |
| (3) Integrate plurilingual perspectives in pedagogical practices in plurilingual and pluricultural contexts to allow students to use their linguistic and cultural repertoires in the classroom |

Changing current pedagogical practices entails a shift away from monolingual policies towards methods that emphasize the relationship and the interdependence of all the languages (García, 2019; García et al., 2021; Pennycook, 2017). The linguistic and cultural knowledge that students have developed throughout their lived personal and educational experiences help them to develop proficiency in another language or in a new target language, for example, in English (Galante, 2020; Kubota & Miller, 2017). Since learners do not keep their languages and cultures in separate mental compartments, valuing their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires is an essential resource in the learning process (García & Otheguy, 2019; Piccardo, 2013; 2019). Plurilingualism recognizes and includes learners' linguistic and cultural competencies as a resource to support language learning and writing instruction.

### 6.7.3   Plurilingualism, Translanguaging, and Cross-linguistic Approaches

In linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms, plurilingual pedagogies can empower teachers to develop learners' plurilingual and pluricultural competence (PPC) (e.g., CoE, 2001; Galante, 2019; Galante & Chen, 2022; Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Piccardo, 2019). Some strategies include: (1) *translanguaging* (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; 2021; Otheguy et al., 2015), to support students' linguistic and cultural competencies (Galante et al., 2022); (2) *multi-literacies* (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; 2015; Gee, 2004; 2013; Kress, 2000; 2003; 2010) to facilitate alternate discursive practices, including in digital spaces; (3) *cross-cultural comparisons* (Auger, 2008; CEFR, 2001; Galante et al., 2022) to enable students to compare languages and cultures; (4) and *crosslinguistic comparison* (Auger, 2005; 2008; Ballinger et al., 2020; Lau et al., 2020), to compare the linguistic features in learners' repertoires to a new target language.

Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural approaches create an awareness about how languages and cultures function (Galante, 2018; 2021; Piccardo, 2013; 2022) to make language learning more accessible to plurilinguals (e.g., Lau et al., 2020; Van Viegen & Zappa-Hollman, 2020), and to provide a way to transport language resources from one discipline or language to another, e.g., French to English courses or to school settings (Ballinger et al., 2020; Maatouk & Payant, 2022; Payant, 2020). Comparing students' languages to a new target language incites students to actively engage in language learning (Ballinger et al., 2020; Lau, 2020). Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural references help students to understand their own culture(s) and the cultures of others by comparing oral, written, or digital discourses in different linguistic, cultural, or social contexts. Additionally, cross-linguistic and cross-cultural strategies study how language connects to culture and identity (e.g., Galante et al., 2022; Lau et al., 2020).

Similarly, translanguaging and multi-literacies facilitate cross-cultural communication by enabling learners to use their communicative competencies (Payant & Galante, 2022) to compare meanings across languages, cultures, genres, and digital literacies (e.g., García & Lin, 2017; García & Otheguy, 2019; Kalan, 2022; Lau, 2020). Likewise, multiliteracies enable students to use their linguistic and cultural knowledge by encouraging them to rely on other literacy practices such as visual and/or digital representations (e.g., Ballinger, 2020; Galante et al, 2021; García et al, 2007). Translanguaging and multi-literacies helps learners to access their lived experiences and diverse linguistic and cultural knowledge in academic and digital spaces.

Table 25 lists plurilingual, translanguaging, and cross-linguistic approaches.

Table 25

*Plurilingual, Translanguaging, and Cross-linguistic Approaches*

| |
|---|
| (1) Differences in languages should be respected and understood from a social and rhetorical perspective such as hybrid forms of language(s) that students develop from one education system to another, e.g., from the French education system to the English education system |
| (2) Identify ways for plurilingual and pluricultural students to access what they know in terms of language and writing and apply this knowledge to new social or school situations |
| (3) Integrate pedagogical approaches that encourage plurilingual and pluricultural students to draw on their cultural and linguistic resources as well as their prior language and writing experiences |
| (4) Integrate a "difference" not "deficit" model of learning: promoting diversity in terms of language resources and writing practices in plurilingual and pluricultural academic settings |

### 6.7.4. Building on Existing Intercultural Policy Texts

While the policies in this PhD research study prioritize monolingual and Anglo-centric education, there are areas in Quebec intercultural policies that support integrating plurilingual perspectives. Quebec's commitment to interculturalism provides a privileged social and cultural understanding where the norm is plurilingual, and which offers an environment from which to reframe discussions on language proficiency. For instance, some intercultural policies identify sections that allude to plurilingualism. One way to move forward is to rely on existing intercultural policies to identify ways to implement plurilingual perspectives and practices.

Quebec intercultural policies and reports such as *Une école d'avenir—Politique d'intégration scolaire et d'éducation interculturelle* (1998), and *Together, we are Québec–Québec policy on immigration, participation, and inclusion (2015*), advocate the use of French in public communication and in education settings without rejecting the use of English, Indigenous, or immigrant languages. Excerpts from documents such as *La diversité: une valeur ajoutée: Plan d'action governmental pour favoriser la participation de tous a l'essor du Québec* (2008-2013) and *Plus* ça *change, plus c'est pareil: Revisiting the 1992 Task Force Report on English Language Education in Quebec* (2018) support cultural and linguistic diversity. Furthermore, *Diversity: An Added Value (2008-2013)* refers to the importance of improving attrition for culturally and linguistically diverse students and proposes ways to address stereotypes and discrimination. *Diversity: An Added Value (2008-2013)* also promotes professional training to acquire intercultural competencies by sensitizing school personnel to Quebec's "pluri-ethnic"

reality. There are also sections that recommend developing pedagogical material to support linguistic and cultural diversity and to encourage a pluralist representation in academic settings. Lastly, a report on English-language education, *Plus ça change, plus c'est pareil: Revisiting the 1992 Task Force Report on English Language Education in Quebec* (2018), "support[s] local initiatives to customize the curriculum to meet local needs" (p. 44), since the future success of the province depends on the academic and professional achievement of its youth (p. 45). The excerpts from these intercultural policies and reports show how existing texts acknowledge plurilingualism in school settings. Quebec is in the process of vast and important demographic and social changes. Therefore, it is essential to question current pedagogical and assessment practices in an increasingly global and pluralistic society.

### 6.7.5. Student and Teacher Collaboration: Pedagogy and Policy

This PhD research study has highlighted the need for teachers and students to collaborate to inform curriculum and policy planning to integrate learners' language and writing repertoires in English courses in English-medium colleges. Specifically, plurilingual perspectives can inform pedagogical innovations and contribute to policy reforms, for example, the revision of English Department policies to reflect the reality of plurilingual and pluricultural students' experiences. Integrating perspectives from teachers and students transforms the view of them as active participants with agency, and as co-creators in the language learning and writing process.

### 6.7.6. Revising Policy Texts and Policy Reform: Language and Cultural Pluralism

In the future, language education that values and validates learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires and advances plurilingual pedagogies is of great importance. Since plurilingualism recognizes that language and writing instruction must be situated in a specific social context, policy reforms should provide pedagogical tools for students to assert their linguistic and cultural identities when they speak and write. If students' languages, cultures, and diverse learning styles are undervalued, their rich resources and competencies will remain neglected and overlooked in education environments in Quebec, Canada, and in other plurilingual and pluricultural countries.

Language policy and planning needs to adapt to the changing realities of plurilingual societies. Addressing the needs of plurilingual speakers and writers requires examining how to

revise institutional policies and pedagogical practices to make them more accessible for plurilingual and pluricultural learners. Additionally, language policy and planning can focus on recognizing and integrating cultural and linguistic pluralism as a way to address the exclusion of immigrant languages and the oppression of Indigenous languages in Quebec and Canada and in English-medium educational environments in international contexts.

## 6.8.    Summary of the Recommendations

This chapter detailed how ministerial and department policies prioritize monolingualism, which limits plurilingual learners' language use in education settings, including in English-medium colleges in Quebec. Recommendations for pedagogy and policy reforms entail (1) incorporating a plurilingual and pluricultural model for language and writing; (2) integrating pluralism in policy texts, and (3) supporting teacher agency in pedagogical and professional development. To accommodate a diverse range of speakers and writers, effective pedagogies need to be equitable and inclusive.

Table 26 lists recommendations for integrating equitable and inclusive practices.

Table 26

*Integrating Equitable and Inclusive Practices*

| **(1)  Incorporating a Plurilingual and Pluricultural Model for Language and Writing** |
|---|
| Incite and integrate plurilingual and intercultural competencies as key aspects in language and writing |
| Include ways for students to negotiate language differences in diverse academic settings |
| Acquire a meta-awareness of language and writing to access students' linguistic and cultural repertoires |
| **(2) Integrating Pluralism in Policy and Pedagogy** |
| Envision a plurilingual model for literacy that includes a variety of language and writing approaches |
| Add accompanying texts to stress the negotiability of language and writing experience and expertise |
| Formulate policy texts that build on students' prior language learning and writing knowledge |
| **(3) Supporting Teacher Agency in Pedagogical and Professional Development** |
| Include peer review and formative feedback to allow learners to justify language and writing choices |
| Provide feedback during various stages of writing: brainstorming, drafting, revising, peer-editing |
| Incorporate formative and summative assessment for each stage of the writing process: (e.g., drafting, editing, revising) to negotiate students' progress as they navigate their linguistic and writing repertoires |

**Chapter 7: Conclusion**

**7.1.    Overview: Conclusion**

While this PhD research focused on English-medium colleges in the city of Montreal, in Quebec, Canada, many other cities and countries across the globe have similar realities. This study can inform future research on language education and writing instruction for plurilingual and pluricultural students in higher education as well as support pedagogical renewal and policy reforms in provincial, national, and international contexts. It is also important to examine current institutional, e.g., English Department policies for language, writing, and assessment practices that are privileged by academic institutions and that can lead to the exclusion of those who are not assessed as monolingual English speakers and writers and/or who have not been exposed to academic literacy as mandated by ministerial and/or department policies.

The prevalence of monolingual policies can overlook the reality of linguistic and cultural diversity in English-medium educational environments, which also suggests the necessity to examine issues related to linguistic discrimination in language education, writing instruction, and assessment practices. Understanding the consequences of linguistic biases and stereotypes can be a valuable resource to help students to rely upon their plurilingual and pluricultural competencies in the process of learning to speak and write in English or a new target language.

**7.2.    Future Research Recommendations and Pedagogical Development**

Going forward, future research and pedagogical development need to redress and redefine language learning, writing, and assessment practices as well as document and include students' perspectives regarding their experiences with language and writing. Research in plurilingual and pluricultural contexts will benefit from investigating how academic institutions can use policy to encourage linguistic and cultural diversity in language education and writing instruction. Another goal is to incite discussions on pedagogical practices for learners and to provide opportunities for curriculum and policy reform in national and international education environments. For instance, educators and administrators can review existing policies to adopt more integrative varieties of language education and writing instruction.

While current policies are incongruent with culturally and linguistically diverse learners' realities, change can begin from the "bottom-up" by integrating plurilingual and pluricultural

pedagogical approaches. Until we reconsider and reassess how we think about the role of language learning and writing instruction and the reasons why plurilingual and pluricultural students are often categorized as "remedial," "at-risk" or "special needs," we cannot initiate or implement effective policy reforms to help culturally and linguistically diverse students to succeed in higher education, including in English-medium colleges in Quebec.

Another important issue in my research context, English-medium colleges in Quebec, entails the adoption of Bill 96 on June 01, 2022. Bill 96 not only strengthens the *Charter of the French Language,* which was first adopted in 1977, it also impacts the admission requirements to English-medium colleges. When the changes take effect in 2023 or 2024, students will need to provide a certificate of eligibility to prove that they attended English high school to qualify to attend an English-speaking college. Therefore, most Francophone and *Allophone* (i.e., plurilingual) students will no longer qualify for admission to English-speaking colleges; those who are eligible will be required to take more courses in French. For Indigenous populations, enforcing additional French-language courses will be detrimental, since language education plays a key role in reviving and supporting Indigenous languages and cultures. Furthermore, many Indigenous peoples speak English and not French, and they may have come from a non-French schooling system, so they are encountering French for the first time at the college level. Mandating monolingualism in predominately plurilingual and pluricultural education settings can disadvantage Indigenous as well as plurilingual and pluricultural communities. Furthermore, since Bill 96 will increase linguistic and cultural diversity in French colleges, adopting plurilingual perspectives in higher education will continue to be a crucial concern.

Embracing plurilingualism in language policy and planning and pedagogical practices requires adapting to the linguistic and cultural reality of education environments in countries such as Canada, and in cities such as Montreal to create an inclusive and equitable future for all students and citizens. The way forward entails embracing plurilingualism in language policy and planning and pedagogical and professional development to adjust to the increasing linguistic and cultural reality in plurilingual and pluricultural countries and cities around the world.

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**Appendix A: Research Ethics Board Certificate of Acceptability of Research Involving Humans**

### McGill

**Research Ethics Board Office**
James Administration Bldg.
845 Sherbrooke Street West. Rm 325
Montreal, QC H3A 0G4

Tel: (514) 398-6831

Website: www.mcgill.ca/research/research/compliance/human/

**Research Ethics Board 2**
**Certificate of Ethical Acceptability of Research Involving Humans**

**REB File #:** 19-11-006

**Project Title:** Neither French Nor English: Institutional Discourses about Writing and Language for Allophone Students in English College in Quebec

**Principal Investigator:** Maria Chiras          **Department:** Integrated Studies in Education

**Status:** Ph.D. Student          **Supervisor:** Professor Angelica Galante

**Approval Period: <u>December 20, 2019 – December 19, 2020</u>**

The REB 2 reviewed and approved this project by delegated review in accordance with the requirements of the McGill University Policy on the Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Human Participants and the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans.

Lynda McNeil
Associate Director, Research Ethics

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* Approval is granted only for the research and purposes described.
* Modifications to the approved research must be reviewed and approved by the REB before they can be implemented.
* A Request for Renewal form must be submitted before the above expiry date. Research cannot be conducted without a current ethics approval. Submit 2-3 weeks ahead of the expiry date.
* When a project has been completed or terminated, a Study Closure form must be submitted.
* Unanticipated issues that may increase the risk level to participants or that may have other ethical implications must be promptly reported to the REB. Serious adverse events experienced by a participant in conjunction with the research must be reported to the REB without delay.
* The REB must be promptly notified of any new information that may affect the welfare or consent of participants.
* The REB must be notified of any suspension or cancellation imposed by a funding agency or regulatory body that is related to this study.
* The REB must be notified of any findings that may have ethical implications or may affect the decision of the REB.

**Appendix B: Recruitment Email for Teacher Participants**

My name is Maria Chiras, and I am a PhD candidate in the Department of Integrated Studies in Education, Faculty of Education, McGill University, in Montreal, Quebec. I am writing to ask you if you may be interested in participating in my research study. Participation is completely voluntary and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. The study will take place between January 2020 and April 2020, at a date and time that is convenient for the participants.

My research project explores institutional discourses about language and writing for plurilingual students in English Colleges in Montreal, Quebec.

My research explores ministerial and English Department policy documents for language, writing, and assessment in English courses in English CEGEPs. My study seeks to inform policy for language and writing as well as pedagogical and professional development.

My project has been approved for ethical acceptability by the McGill University Research Ethics Office and it is under the supervision of Dr. Angelica Galante at angelica.galante@mcgill.ca.

To be a participant, the teacher must currently work as an English teacher at an English CEGEP and have at least 2-5 years of teaching experience. I will not identify the participants and I will use pseudonyms; therefore, your identity will remain confidential. As well, I will not identify the specific CEGEP at which you teach.

If you are interested in participating in my study, please contact me at maria.chiras@mail.mcgill.ca and I will send you a follow-up email with an attachment with more information and details about the study and the interview process.

Sincerely,

Maria Chiras, Ph.D. Candidate,
Department of Integrated Studies, Faculty of Education
McGill University

**Appendix C: Announcement to be Posted on Plurilingual Lab Website**

(To be posted on the McGill University Plurilingual Lab website)

My name is Maria Chiras, and I am a PhD candidate in the Department of Integrated Studies in Education, Faculty of Education, McGill University, in Montreal, Quebec. I am writing to ask you if you may be interested in participating in my research study. Participation is completely voluntary and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. The study will take place between January 2020 and April 2020, at a date and time that is convenient.

My research project explores institutional discourses about language and writing for plurilingual students in English colleges in Montreal, Quebec. Specifically, my research explores ministerial and English Department policy documents for language, writing, and assessment in English courses in English colleges. My study seeks to inform policy documents for language and writing as well as pedagogical and professional development.

My project has been approved for ethical acceptability by the McGill University Research Ethics Office and it is under the supervision of Dr. Angelica Galante at angelica.galante@mcgill.ca.

To be a participant, the teacher must currently work as an English teacher at an English CEGEP and have at least 2-5 years of teaching experience. I will not identify the participants and I will use pseudonyms; therefore, your identity will remain confidential. As well, I will not identify the specific college at which you teach.

If you are interested in participating in my study, please contact me at maria.chiras@mail.mcgill.ca and I will send you an email with an attachment with more information and details about the study and the interview process.

Sincerely,

Maria Chiras, Ph.D. Candidate,
Department of Integrated Studies, Faculty of Education
McGill University

**Appendix D: Invitation Letter and Consent Form to Participate in a Research Study**

My name is Maria Chiras, and I am a PhD candidate in the Department of Integrated Studies in Education, Faculty of Education, McGill University, in Montreal, Quebec.

The purpose of this letter is to formally invite you to participate in my research study as well as to provide you with the information that you will need to understand the study, so that you may decide whether you choose to participate. Participation is completely voluntary and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. The study will take place during the period of between January 2020 and April 2020, at a date and time that is convenient.

**Research Study:** My research project explores institutional discourses about language and writing for plurilingual students in English Colleges in Montreal, Quebec. My research explores ministerial and English Department policy documents for language, writing, and assessment in English courses in English colleges. My study seeks to inform local policy documents for language and writing as well as inform pedagogical and professional development.

**McGill Ethics Review:** My project has been approved for ethical acceptability by the McGill University Research Ethics Office and it is under the supervision of Dr. Angelica Galante at angelica.galante@mcgill.ca.

**Participants:** I will conduct individual interviews with 10-15 English teachers recruited from English CEGEPs in Montreal, Quebec. The interviews will be between 60-90 minutes. To be a participant, you must currently work as an English teacher at an English college and have at least 2-5 years of teaching experience.

**Location and Confidentiality:** The interviews will take place at a reserved room at the Faculty of Education at McGill University or at a public location (e.g., a public library) that is chosen by you and that is off campus (i.e., not on the college property at which you teach). I will not identify the participants and I will use pseudonyms; therefore, your identity will remain confidential. As well, I will not identify the specific college at which you teach.

**Interview Procedure and Consent:** Before the personal interview, I will send you the interview guide as an attachment by email for you to review. On the day of the personal interview, I will present you with two questionnaires. You can answer the questionnaires before or after the interview and return them to me in person. During the personal interview, I will ask you to share your views regarding students and their language and writing proficiency as well as your interpretation of ministerial and English Department policies on English courses in English colleges.

The interview will take place at a date and time that is convenient for you. With your consent, the interview will be audio-recorded. The audio recording will be for my use only and not for playing publicly. You may request that the tape recorder be turned off at any point during the interview. You do not need to respond to any questions you do not wish to answer. A transcribed, electronic copy of the interview will be sent to you for confirmation and clarification.

**Benefits:** My research will encourage discussion on language education, writing, and assessment practices. I also hope to encourage innovative pedagogical practices for students in English courses in English colleges as well as to promote opportunities for pedagogical and professional development and policy reform.

**Risks:** There are no anticipated risks to you because of participating in this study.

**Participant's Rights:**

**To Confidentiality:** All participants' identities will be kept strictly confidential using pseudonyms in both the analysis of the data and the oral and written reporting of the findings.

Apart from my thesis supervisor, Dr. Angelica Galante, the data will not be shared with any other person. This information will be kept on a password protected external hard drive that will be locked in a cabinet in my office. All the data will be kept on file for a maximum of seven years following the completion of the project, and then will be destroyed. I may publish the results of the study and give talks about the study at conferences, but I will not reveal identifying information about the participants in any of the publications or presentations.

**To Ask Questions about the Research:** If you would like to ask questions about this research project, you may do so at any time. Please contact me Maria Chiras at maria.chiras@mail.ca or at 514-744-7500, extension 7086 or you may speak to me directly.

You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Angelica Galante, regarding questions at angelica.galante@mcgill.ca or at 514-398-4527, extension 094395

If you have any ethical concerns or complaints about your participation in this study and want to speak with someone not on the research team, please contact the Associate Director, Research Ethics at 514-398-6831 or lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca".

**To Withdraw at Any Time:** You may withdraw from the interview and research study at any time without any negative consequences. Upon your withdrawal, all audio-recordings and information about you related to the study will be destroyed and will not be used in any publications. However, once data has been aggregated or published, it can't be withdrawn. It can only be removed from use in further analyses. Once the data has been de-identified, it can't be withdrawn. All data will be de-identified in 7 years.

**Consent:** If you choose to participate, I will bring this formal invitation letter and two copies of the attached consent form to our meeting where you will be able to review the project details and sign the consent form. I will keep one signed copy of the consent form and you will be given the other signed copy of the consent form as well as this letter of invitation to keep for your records. If you prefer, you can sign the consent form electronically and send me a digital copy.

**PLEASE KEEP A COPY OF THIS LETTER FOR YOUR RECORDS**

Please sign below if you have read the above information and consent to participate in this study. Agreeing to participate in this study does not waive any of your rights or release the researchers from their responsibilities. A copy of this consent form will be given to you and the researcher will keep a copy.

I agree to be audio-recorded: Yes _____ No _____
Participant's name: (please print) _____
Participant's signature: _____
Date: _____

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me by email at maria.chiras@mail.mcgill.ca

Thank you in advance for your time and for your consideration.


Sincerely,

Maria Chiras, Ph.D. Candidate Department of Integrated Studies,
Faculty of Education, Faculty of Education
McGill University

# Appendix E: Demographic Questionnaire Part I: Personal Information

**Note:** to be filled out on the day of the personal interview by the participant

**Part I: General Personal Information: Please answer all or as many of the questions as possible**

1. Choose a pseudonym: _____

2. Email and/or contact information: _____

3. Sex: _____

4. Where you were born (refer to the country, province/state, and city): _____

5. Please state your self-identified first language(s): _____

6. Do you use languages other than English? Yes or No: _____

If yes, please list the languages (spoken and written) and your self-identified proficiency level in the box below.

| Language | With whom do you speak each language (friends, colleagues, family, etc.) | In what areas of your personal, social, or cultural life do you use (listen, speak, read, or write) this language (college, friends, family, social media, films, television) | For which skills do you primarily use the language: reading, speaking, writing, listening, social media, films, television, etc. | Self-identified: what is your level of proficiency in the language? Beginner Pre-intermediate Intermediate Post-intermediate and advanced |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |

7. In which province and city did you attend elementary school, high school, CEGEP, if applicable, and university? What was the language of instruction for each one?

| | |
|---|---|
| **Elementary:** Include city and province and language of instruction(s) | |
| **High School:** Include city and province and language of instruction(s) | |
| **CEGEP:** Include city and province and language of instruction(s) | |
| **University:** Include city and province and language of instruction(s) | |

8. How long have you lived in Quebec? _____ How much do you feel you have integrated into Quebec society?

_____

9. Have you lived in any other city(ies) in Quebec or Canada? If so, in which city(ies) and for how long?

_____

10. Please read the following terms that are used to define residents or citizens—including students—in Quebec and state (1) your definition for each term and (2) your perceptions about their language and writing practices.

| | |
|---|---|
| Monolingual | |
| Bilingual | |
| Multilingual or Plurilingual | |

**Follow Up:** Do you consider yourself monolingual, bilingual, or plurilingual? Why?

| |
|---|
| |

## Questionnaire Part II: General Professional Information

Information on the Quebec education system, language education, and plurilingual students

**Note:** to be filled out on the day of the interview by the participant

**Part II: General Professional Information: Please answer all or as many of the questions as possible**

**TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION PART II: EDUCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL**

*Here are questions about your professional background and educational experiences. Write your responses below.*

1. How long have you been an English instructor? Have you worked at your CEGEP for all of your teaching career? If you have worked at multiple schools, describe your previous experiences as an English teacher.

2. What led you to a career in education, specifically teaching English in an English CEGEP in Quebec? Can you share what it was that made you want to become an English teacher?

3. What are your academic degrees and professional background?

4. How do you think your educational training (or lack thereof), and/or professional background, and/or personal background influence your pedagogical practices? And, which of the streams of the first-year English introductory course(s) do you teach most often?

| TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE TERMS: ANGLOPHONE, FRANCOPHONE, *ALLOPHONE* |
|---|

*Read definitions of the following terms from policy documents (i.e., Gendron Commission report): Anglophone, Francophone and Allophone. Please write if you agree or disagree with the definitions and why? Please describe your perceptions about the linguistic terms: Anglophone, Francophone, Allophone in the questions below.*

5. In 1968 the Gendron Commission defined the linguistic terms *Anglophone*, *Francophone* and *Allophone: anglophone* defines people whose heritage language is English; *francophone* defines people whose heritage language is French. *Allophone* defines people whose heritage language is neither English nor French. The term *allophone* has a legislated definition to mean non-francophone or non-anglophone immigrants who do not belong to one of two settler nations who set up the confederation.

Do you agree with the definition of the term *Allophone*? How do you define the term *Allophone* as informed by your own knowledge and experiences?

6. In ministerial and Department policy documents (e.g., for the language of instruction) *Allophone* is also commonly used to categorize second and third generation immigrants who consider one or both of Canada's official languages as a "first" language.

Do you believe that the term still reflects the linguistic reality of most students categorized as *Allophone*? Why or why not? How does the term relate to your practical experiences with students in the classroom?

7. In your teaching experience, what is the percentage of Anglophone, Francophone, or plurilingual (i.e., *Allophone*) students (as defined by the Gendron Commission) in your classes?

8. What differences, if any, have you noticed in the language and writing skills of Francophone, Anglophone, and/or plurilingual (i.e., *Allophone*) students in the first-level English course that you regularly teach?

9. Do you consider yourself Anglophone, Francophone, or plurilingual (i.e., *Allophone*)? How do you think the fact that you are a self-identified monolingual, bilingual, or plurilingual has influenced your pedagogical practices (e.g., language, writing, and assessment)?

| QUEBEC FRENCH AND ENGLISH EDUCATION SYSTEMS: HIGH SCHOOL AND CEGEP |
| --- |

*Please answer the questions about your perceptions about the French and English education systems in Quebec.*

10. How familiar are you with the Quebec English high school system? How did you become familiar with the Quebec English education system? If not, have you tried to learn more about the English high school system?

11. What do you know about the Quebec French Secondary V Language Arts Program regarding language education, writing, and assessment practices? How did you become familiar with the Quebec French education system? If not, have you tried to learn more about the French high school system?

12. The *Charter of the French Language* (1977) mandates that the language of instruction from kindergarten to secondary school is French. It has been over 40 years since the Charter was implemented in Quebec.

In your opinion, how has the *Charter of the French Language* affected students' language education and writing in English courses in English CEGEPs? What are your thoughts on how the current language education system in Quebec influences language, writing, and assessment practices in English courses in English CEGEPs?

# Appendix F: Teacher Interview Guide

**Introduction:** The following questions will guide the interviews. The interview will be audio recorded. Teachers will be informed that they can stop the interview or the audio-recording at any time, if they feel uncomfortable.

Hello, my name is Maria Chiras, and I am a PhD Candidate at McGill University, and I am conducting a study to explore ministerial, College and department policy documents for language and writing in English classes in English CEGEPs. I will be asking you a few questions about your knowledge and perspectives on (1) your personal, educational, and professional background regarding language proficiency, (2) *Allophone* students and their language and writing proficiency and (3) ministerial mandated policies, College policies and Department policies on English, Language of Instruction courses in English CEGEPs. It is important that you answer the questions honestly and describe your thoughts, feelings, and experiences. You do not have to answer all the questions if you do not want to or if you do not feel comfortable answering any questions. This interview will be audio recorded and you may request that I stop the interview or recording if you do not feel comfortable. Do you have any questions before we begin? Please feel free to interrupt, comment, or ask questions at any time during the interview. Can I start the recording now?

## MINISTERIAL POLICY DOCUMENT: INTRODUCTORY TO COLLEGE ENGLISH

*Here is a copy with excerpts from the mandated ministerial policy document for the first-level English course in English CEGEPs, Introduction to College English: (1) elements of the competency and (2) the performance criteria for you to review. I will ask you some questions regarding your perceptions about the policy document*

**(1) Elements of the Competency:** To identify the characteristics and functions of the components of literary texts
**Performance Criteria:** Accurate explanation of the denotation of words; adequate recognition of the appropriate connotation of words; accurate definition of the characteristics and function of each component

**(2) Elements of the Competency:** To determine the organization of facts and arguments of a literary text
**Performance Criteria:** Clear and accurate recognition of the main idea and structure; clear presentation of the strategies employed to develop an argument or thesis

**(3) Elements of the Competency:** To prepare ideas and strategies for a projected discourse
**Performance Criteria:** Appropriate identification of topics and ideas; adequate gathering of pertinent information; clear formulation of a thesis; coherent ordering of supporting material

**(4) Elements of the Competency:** To explicate a discourse
**Performance Criteria:** Appropriate choice of tone and diction; correct development of sentences; clear and coherent development of paragraphs; explication of a 750-word discourse

**(5) Elements of the Competency:** To edit the discourse
**Performance Criteria:** Appropriate use of revision strategies; accurate correction of the discourse

| CATEGORY/TOPIC | QUESTIONS |
|---|---|
| **Policy Purpose** | 1. How relevant are the competencies and performance criteria in the ministerial policy for the first-year English course in English CEGEPs for teachers in defining how they teach language, writing (e.g., the essay), and assessment for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Context** | 2. How do you think the elements of competencies and performance criteria integrate (or not) plurilingual students' linguistic background and prior educational experiences? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Construction** | 3. What information do you think this policy document could (or should) provide to help you plan your courses and/or develop pedagogical and assessment practices for plurilingual students? |
| **Policy Implementation** | 4. In your experience, how do you believe teachers implement the competencies and performance criteria for language, writing, and assessment for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Consequences and Impact** | 5. What are the positive and/or negative impacts of the policy in practice for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |

| MINISTERIAL POLICY DOCUMENT: REMEDIAL ACTIVITIES SECONDARY V ENGLISH |
|---|

*Here is a copy with excerpts from the mandated ministerial policy document for the Ministerial Objectives and Standards for the Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts 60–90-hour (non-credit) course as a prerequisite for students deemed not qualified to enroll in the first-level English course): excerpts from the policy: (1) elements of the competency and (2) the performance criteria. I will ask you some questions about the policy text.*

**(1) Elements of the Competency:**
1.To comprehend oral and written discourse.
**Performance Criteria:**
Adequate recognition of the meaning of words, word groups and idioms.
Adequate recognition of central ideas.
Adequate recognition of supporting ideas and details.
Adequate understanding of techniques used.

**(2) Elements of the Competency:** To plan various forms of oral and written discourse.
**Performance Criteria:**
Appropriate use of preparation strategies.
Clear statement of a central idea.
Effective planning for the development of a central idea.
Clear organization of supporting ideas and details

**(3) Elements of the Competency:** To produce a discourse.
**Performance Criteria:**
Production of a 500-word written discourse.
Clear formulation of a thesis statement.
Consistent development of supporting ideas.
Appropriate use of grammar and syntax.
Appropriate use of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.
Appropriate choice and use of words.
Adequate development of sentences and paragraphs.
Production of a 500-word written discourse.
Clear formulation of a thesis statement
Consistent development of supporting ideas.
Appropriate use of grammar and syntax
Appropriate choice and use of words

**(4) Elements of the Competency:** To edit a discourse
**Performance Criteria:**
Appropriate use of revision strategies.
Accurate correction of the discourse.

| CATEGORY/TOPIC | QUESTIONS |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| **Policy Purpose** | 1. How relevant are the competencies and performance criteria in the ministerial policy for the *Remedial Activities for Secondary V English Language Arts* course for teachers in defining how they teach language, writing, and assessment for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Context** | 2. How do you think the elements of competencies and performance criteria integrate (or not) plurilingual students' linguistic background and prior educational experiences? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Construction** | 3. What information do you think this policy document could (or should) provide to help you plan your courses and/or develop pedagogical and assessment practices for plurilingual students? |
| **Policy Implementation** | 4. In your experience, how do you believe teachers implement the competencies and performance criteria for language, writing, and assessment for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Consequences and Impact** | 5. What are the positive and/or negative impacts of the policy in practice for plurilingual students? Can you provide examples? |

| **MINISTERIAL EXAMINATION OF COLLEGE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY** |
|---|

*Here is a copy with excerpts from the mandated ministerial policy document for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination) for English CEGEPs: excerpts from the instructions and grading criteria. I will ask you some questions about the instructions and the grading criteria (rubric)*

**Description and Marking for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination)**

The goal of the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination) is to ensure that, by the end of the three English courses of language of instruction and literature (603-101, 603-102, 603-103) that are part of the general education component common to all programs, students have acquired a sufficient level of competence in reading and writing to understand literary texts and to express a relevant critical viewpoint using correct English.

**Instructions for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination)**

The examination involves the following: Students have four hours in which to read the three texts provided and write a formal essay of 750 words about one of them.

**Evaluation Criteria for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination)**

Papers will be evaluated based on the three main criteria in the evaluation checklist: Comprehension and Insight (Criterion I), Organization of Response (Criterion II), and Expression (Criterion III).

**Evaluation Criteria for the Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature (English Exit Examination)**

**CRITERION I COMPREHENSION AND INSIGHT**
▪ recognition of a main idea from the selected reading
▪identification of techniques and/or devices as employed by the author
▪ evidence of critical or analytical interpretation of the selection
▪ references which demonstrate understanding of the reading
**CRITERION II ORGANIZATION OF RESPONSE**
▪ statement of a thesis about the text
▪ structured development of the essay
▪ use of supporting detail
▪ unified paragraph structure
**CRITERION III EXPRESSION**
▪ appropriate use of words
▪ varied and correct sentence structures
▪ correct grammar
▪ conventional spelling, punctuation, and mechanics

| CATEGORY/TOPIC | QUESTIONS |
|---|---|
| **Policy Purpose** | 1. In your opinion, how relevant is the goal of the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* for English CEGEPs in evaluating whether plurilingual students have "acquired a sufficient level of competence in reading and writing to understand literary texts and to express a relevant critical viewpoint using correct English?" Can you explain and provide examples? |
| **Policy Context** | 2. How do you think the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* and evaluation criteria integrate (or not) plurilingual students' linguistic background and prior educational experiences? Can you explain and provide examples? |
| **Policy Construction** | 3. What information do you think the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* instructions and evaluation criteria could (or should) include to assess language and writing for plurilingual students? Can you explain and provide examples? |
| **Policy Implementation** | 4. To what extent do you feel that mastering the essay genre indicates English language and writing proficiency? **Follow up:** Can you suggest other writing genres (i.e., other than the 5-paragraph English essay) that can be used to assess writing for plurilingual students and/or students who have attended school in other languages?<br>5. In your opinion, how effective is the essay genre as the main mode of assessment for language and writing proficiency on the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* for students?<br>**Follow up:** Can you suggest other evaluation methods that can assess language and writing proficiency for plurilingual students? |
| **Policy Consequences and Impact** | 6. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of the essay genre as the main mode of assessment for language and writing on the *Ministerial Examination of College English, Language of Instruction and Literature* for plurilingual students and/or students who have attended high school in French or in other languages? Can you explain and provide examples? |

## DEPARTMENT POLICY DOCUMENTS: FIRST-YEAR ENGLISH COURSE STREAMS

*Here is a copy with excerpts from an English Department policy for the first-year English course. I will ask you questions about the English Department policy for the first-year English course. We will look at the descriptions, student profiles, and methodology sections for the three different streams for the English introductory course.*

**1. Course descriptions: three streams for English introductory courses.**
The ministerial policy outlines criteria for the first-year English course; however, colleges create streams for the first-year English course according to the entry-level proficiency in the Language of Instruction (e.g., Placement tests). Teachers will answer questions for the stream for the first-year English course that they teach.

**First stream for the first-year English course:**
*"This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate a **standard** entry-level competency in college English."*

**Second stream for the first-year English course:**
*"This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate **notable** problems with college-level English reading and writing."*

**Third stream for the first-year English course:**
*"This course is currently addressed to students whose results in their Placement Test indicate **significant ESL problems** with college-level English reading and/or writing."*

**2. Methodology: three streams of the first-year English course**

**(i) Methodology description for the first stream of the English introductory course:**
**(First stream of the introductory English course):** "*While this course is currently addressed to students with a standard entry-level competency in college English, these students do not necessarily have much experience with careful literary analysis. Critical reading and analytical-essay writing should be incorporated and highlighted in this course. In addition, teachers should not assume that these students have mastered the basics of writing and should include appropriate instruction in fundamental essay writing, sentence, and grammar skills, as needed.*"

(**ii) Methodology description for the second level of the English introductory course:**
**(Second stream of the introductory English course):** *"This course is currently addressed to students with notable problems with college-level English reading and writing. Students in this level often struggle with reading comprehension, critical thinking, and/or organization. While critical reading and analytical-essay writing should also be incorporated in this course, more time needs to be devoted to improving written expression and essay organization. Moreover, students in this course may be more likely to display significant difficulties with motivation, general study skills, and time management."*

**(iii) Methodology description for the second level of the English introductory course:**
**(Third stream of the introductory English course**): *"This course is currently addressed to students with significant ESL problems in college-level English reading and/or writing. Critical reading and analytical-essay writing will be important in this course, but more time will be focused on improving written expression, particularly common second-language errors."*

**3. English Department policy for all three streams for the first-year English course: (1) elements of the competency, (2) performance criteria** (excerpts for the three streams for the first-year English course)

**Element 1: Identify the characteristics and functions of the components of literary texts**
**Performance Criteria:**
(1) Accurate explanation of the denotation of words
(2) Adequate recognition of the appropriate connotation of words
(3) Accurate definition of the characteristics and function of each component
**Learning Outcomes:**
(1) Define assigned vocabulary from a literary text
(2) Identify figurative meaning in a literary text
(3) Identify and define literary and rhetorical techniques and devices in a literary text
**Element 2: Determine the organization of facts and arguments of a given literary text**
**Performance Criteria:**
(1) Clear and accurate recognition of the main idea and structure
(2) Clear presentation of the strategies employed to develop an argument or thesis
**Learning Outcomes:**
(1) Identify the structural components of a literary text (e.g., rising action, stanza, scent).
(2) Identify the theme, central idea, focus or thesis of a literary text
(3) Identity the main ideas of different subsections of a literary text
(4) Differentiate between ideas and supporting details (e.g., facts, examples, explanations, definitions)
(5) Differentiate between more and less important ideas and details in a literary text
**Element 3: Prepare ideas and strategies for a projected discourse**
**Performance Criteria:**
(1) Appropriate identification of topics and ideas
(2) Adequate gathering of pertinent information
(3) Clear formulation of a thesis
(4) Coherent ordering of supporting material
**Learning Outcomes:**
(1) Determine suitable topics and ideas in a text as support for a student discourse
(2) Identify appropriate textual evidence as support for student discourse
(3) Develop and articulate a valid thesis about a text
(4) Organize supporting arguments in a logical and cohesive manner
(5) Determine a logical sequence of supporting textual evidence within supporting arguments

**Element 4: Formulate a discourse**
**Performance Criteria:** appropriate choice of tone and diction; correct development of sentences; clear and coherent development of paragraphs; formulation of a 750-word discourse
(1) Formulate paragraphs demonstrating correct sentence structure, appropriate use of tone, and correct terminology.
(2) Develop paragraphs with textual evidence, accurate quotation and/or paraphrase, and correct documentation.
(3) Write a well-structured and cohesive 750-word college-level discourse.
**Learning Outcomes:**
(1) Formulate paragraphs demonstrating correct terminology
(2) Develop paragraphs with textual evidence, accurate quotation and/or paraphrase, and correct documentation
(3) Write a well-structure and cohesive 750-word college-level discourse
**Element 5:** Revise the work
**Performance Criteria:**
(1) Appropriate use of revision strategies
(2) Appropriate revision of form and content
**Learning Outcomes:**
(1) Recognize and understand the assessment criteria (e.g., comprehension, organization, and expression, MLA)
(2) Show understanding of feedback
(3) Revise a text according to feedback and assessment criteria

**4. English Department policy for all three streams of the first-year English course:** minimum literacy excerpts

**The Department agrees that all streams of the first-year English course will include instruction and/or evaluation of grammar, according to the needs of students. A basic set of standard elements may include the following:** (1) Basic parts of speech; (2) Subject-verb agreement; (3) Pronoun reference and agreement; (4) Verb tense consistency; (5) Basic sentence structure; (6) Sentence completeness; (7) Basic spelling confusions; (8) Basic punctuation. The English Department agrees that all streams of the first-year English course will include a final grammar test, evaluating editing skills and points of grammar covered

**5. English Department policy for the three streams of the first-year English course:** writing guideline excerpts

**Guidelines: The English Department agrees that:**
(1) All students should write at least two major essays.
(2) Major connotes both length (at least 500 words and, in one case per semester, 750 words)
(3) The major essays should constitute at least 50% of the final grade.
(4) All classes should require some (but not all) written thesis-structured literary analysis to be done in-class or in a test situation as part of the 50%.
(5) All classes should require written work that identifies the characteristics and functions of the components of literary works.
(6) All students should demonstrate appropriate use of revision strategies as part of their formative and summative writing tasks.
(7) All 101 students should be provided with some opportunity to practice analytical essay writing tasks prior to the assignment of major essays.
(8) All students should be provided with examples of strong student-level analytical essay writing to serve as models for their own work.

| CATEGORY/TOPIC | QUESTIONS |
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| **Policy Purpose**<br><br>English Department descriptions for the introductory English course: three streams of the first-year English course. | **Course Description: Stream #1**<br>The entry-level description for students in the first stream of the introductory English course describes them as being standard.<br>1. How do you define "standard" language and writing? Can you provide examples?<br>**Course Description: Stream #2**<br>The entry-level description for students in the second stream of the introductory English course describes them as having "notable problems" with language and writing.<br>2. How do you define "notable problems" with language and writing? Can you provide examples?<br>**Course Description: Stream #3**<br>The entry-level description for students in the third stream of the introductory English course describes them as having "significant ESL problems" with language and writing.<br>3. How do you define "significant ESL problems" with language and writing? Can you provide examples? |
| **Policy Context**<br><br>English Department descriptions, student profiles, methodology, for the introductory English course | 4. How do you think the (1) course descriptions, (2) methodology and (3) student profiles for the three levels of the introductory English course integrate (or not) plurilingual students' linguistic background and prior educational experiences? Can you provide examples? **Follow up:** What information do you think this policy document could (or should) provide to help you plan your courses and/or develop pedagogical and assessment practices for plurilingual students? |
| **Policy Construction**<br><br>Elements of the competencies and the performance criteria for the English Department introductory English course (all three streams) | **Question on Language: Elements of competencies and performance criteria**<br>5. Referring to the English Department policy on the elements of competencies and performance criteria, what problems or issues with the English language do students manifest in the level of the introductory course that you teach? **Follow up:** Can you suggest pedagogical practices that can be used to teach English for plurilingual students, or students who have attended school in other languages?<br>**Question on Writing: Elements of competencies and performance criteria**<br>6. Referring to the English Department policy on the elements of competencies and performance criteria, what problems or issues with writing do students manifest in the level of the introductory course that you teach? **Follow up:** Can you suggest other genres that can be used to assess writing for plurilingual students and/or students who have attended school in other languages?<br>**Question on Assessment: Elements of competencies and performance criteria**<br>7. Referring to the English Department policy on the elements of competencies and performance criteria, what problems or issues do students manifest in your courses in terms of recognizing and understanding the assessment criteria (e.g., comprehension, organization, and expression). **Follow up:** Can you suggest other evaluation methods that can assess language and writing proficiency for plurilingual students and/or students who have attended school in other languages? |
| **Policy Implementation**<br><br>English Department implementation of the introductory English course policy | **Question on Language**<br>8. In your experience, describe students' language proficiency in the stream of the introductory English course that you teach. **Follow Up:** What problems with English do plurilingual students manifest? Can you explain why and provide examples?<br>**Question on Writing**<br>9. In your experience, do students have more difficulty with writing? If so, can you explain why and/or give an example? **Follow up:** Do plurilingual students receive lower marks and/or fail their English course due to their writing, including the essay? If so, can you explain why and provide examples?<br>**Question on Assessment**<br>10. How do you assess language and writing for students (e.g., rubrics/grids for language and writing criteria?) **Follow up:** What is your perception about current assessment practices for plurilingual students? Can you explain why and provide examples? |

| Policy Consequences and Impact | **Please discuss the following question prompts for the stream of the introductory English course that you teach:** |
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| English Department introductory English course: (1) minimum literacy; (2) English Department guidelines on writing; (3) English Department recommendations on pedagogical and assessment practices for language and writing | **Question on Language**<br>11. By referring to the English Department policy on the minimum literacy components, what problems or issues with standard English do students manifest in your courses? Can you explain why and/or give an example? **Follow up:** In your opinion, what information and/or research is needed to support students to acquire a standard proficiency in English (i.e., literacy competencies)?<br>**Question on Writing**<br>12. Referring to the English Department guidelines on writing, what problems or issues with the writing do students manifest? **Follow up:** What information and/or research is needed to support students with writing?<br>**Question on Assessment**<br>13. Referring to the policy recommendations for pedagogical and assessment practices for language and writing, how effective do you believe are current pedagogical and assessment practices for students? **Follow up:** What information and/or research is needed to provide English teachers with recommendations for pedagogical and assessment practices to support plurilingual students with language and writing? |

**PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES FOR PLURILINGUAL STUDENTS**

| Teachers' perceptions and meta-awareness (post-interview) about pedagogical practices geared for plurilingual students | Questions: pedagogical practices for plurilingual students |
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| 1. Do you feel comfortable allowing your students to use other languages in your classroom? Why or why not? **Follow up:** Do you ask your students to discuss and/or integrate their plurilingual backgrounds in the classroom, e.g., to make links or comparisons to other languages during language and writing assignments? |
| 2. Do you feel comfortable allowing your students to talk about their education backgrounds, e.g., attending French language school or school in another language? **Follow up:** Do you ask your students to discuss and/or integrate their education backgrounds in the classroom, e.g., to make links or comparisons to their educational backgrounds in French or other languages during language or writing assignments? |
| 3. What information or data do you feel is lacking and/or needed about plurilingual students and students from French high schools? **Follow up:** What pedagogical and/or professional development do you feel is needed to support plurilingual students and students from French high schools? |
| 4. What information or data do you feel is lacking and/or needed about plurilingual students and students from English high schools? **Follow up:** What pedagogical and/or professional development do you feel is needed to support plurilingual students and students from English high schools? |
| 5. Are you aware of pedagogical practices that integrate students' prior language, writing, and education experiences and backgrounds? **Follow up:** If so, please describe the pedagogical practices that you have used and the results. |
| 6. Would you be willing to integrate pedagogical practices geared to students who are plurilingual and/or who have attended school in other languages? **Follow up:** do you know of any pedagogical practices that are geared to plurilingual students? Can you explain and provide examples? |

| Final Thoughts | These are the questions that I had for you today and the documents that I wanted to show you. Would you like to make any other comments before we conclude the interview? Would you like to ask me any questions? |
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| | Thank you for your participation. |