

# Differences in Second Language Acquisition and Academic Achievement by Extracurricular Activity Participation for English Language Learners

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## Abstract

In this study, differences in academic performance on the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System and State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness as a function of participation in extracurricular activities for English Language Learners were examined. Data obtained from a large, suburban district in southeast Texas for all students who were enrolled in Grades 6 through 12 for the 2014-2015 school year were analyzed. Patterned after the federal Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives for English Language Learners, participation in extracurricular activities for English Language Learners was not related to second language acquisition or the attainment of English fluency. Conversely, in regard to performance on state assessments in reading and in mathematics, English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities had higher scores than English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities. Suggestions for research and policy were provided.

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**Index terms**— extracurricular activities, english language learner, limited english proficient, english language acquisition, telpas, staar, academic achievement, a

## 1 Introduction

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 altered the manner in which Grade K-12 students in the United States were instructed and evaluated (Murray, Fix, & Zimmermann, 2007). One of the aims of the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) was to decrease achievement gaps in standardized test scores and to assure that historically marginalized student groups experienced academic growth. Specifically, states were challenged with ensuring that students identified as English Language Learners acquired English language proficiency and developed academic skills at levels similar to their English-speaking peers. These mandates were especially challenging in light of the growing immigrant population in the United States which resulted in an influx of students identified as immigrant and English Language Learners in both elementary and secondary schools (Batalova, Fix, & Murray, 2007).

The Student Succeeds Act is the shifting of accountability for English Language Learners from Title 3 to the larger Title 1 (Carnock, 2016). With this change, the AMAOs under the No Child Left Behind Act were suspended (Carnock, 2016; Walen, 2015). Under new mandates outlined in the Every Student Succeeds Act, however, both student academic achievement and English Language Learner progress toward the attainment of English proficiency are required in state accountability systems. These mandates are closely related to the previous AMAOs (Carnock, 2016). For that reason, the federal AMAOs were used as a foundation for this investigation.

Regardless of the directives introduced through the No Child Left Behind Act, and extended in the Every Student Succeeds Act, by which districts and states are charged with ensuring that English Language Learners develop academic English proficiency and realize academic achievement, revealed in data on third-generation

## 4 B) AFFECTIVE CONSIDERATIONS TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

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43 English Language Learners is the fact that schools have faced major challenges in accomplishing these directives  
44 ??Batalovaet al., 2007). The number of immigrant children enrolling in U.S. schools in upper grade levels  
45 exacerbates the issue. Older immigrant students entering the U.S. public school system might experience more  
46 difficulty in achieving English language proficiency due to the fact that resources are scarce at the secondary  
47 level and time to recuperate lost content prior to high school graduation is limited (Capps et al., 2005). Short  
48 and Fitzsimmons (2007) proposed that many secondary schools have not been provided with sufficient resources  
49 needed to support recent immigrants in attaining required levels of academic English proficiency.

50 School administrators are challenged with the task of increasing student language attainment to show sufficient  
51 student growth each year and perform at grade level on state exams (Texas Education ??gency, 2012 ??gency,  
52 , 2016b)). Due to the overarching construction of both the federal accountability system and the Texas  
53 accountability system, the performance of English Language Learners influences the accountability ratings of  
54 schools in multiple ways and across multiple subgroups. Student achievement on the STAAR in all content  
55 areas, as well as on the TELPAS, is used to determine accountability ratings for schools. Performance of English  
56 Language Learners on both assessment measures, however, is predicated on the English proficiency of English  
57 Language Learners (Short, Echevarria, & Richards-Tutor, 2011). For this reason, educational leaders must  
58 concentrate their efforts to advance the language acquisition of English Language Learners.

## 59 2 III.

### 60 3 Second Language Acquisition

61 Perhaps one of the most valuable theories related to language acquisition is the acquisition-learning distinction.  
62 According to Krashen (1982), adults have two manners through which language can be acquired. Both ways  
63 are unique and independent. The first way that a second language is developed is through language acquisition  
64 (Krashen, 1982). Freeman and Freeman (2001) asserted that almost all language development occurs naturally  
65 through language acquisition and not through explicit learning of a language. Natural second language acquisition  
66 is similar to the way that children first acquire primary language in that the acquisition occurs naturally within  
67 the context of a subconscious process. Moreover, in acquired language, the speaker does not consciously recognize  
68 grammatical rules. Instead, the grammatical structures are internalized (Krashen, 1982).

69 The second manner in which language is developed is through language learning. Language learning refers to  
70 a conscious knowledge of a language, including having knowledge of grammatical rules and structures necessary  
71 to consciously self-correct language errors (Krashen, 1982).

72 Although error correction is thought to be of little consequent to subconscious acquisition, it is useful to  
73 language learning, and helps the learner to induce correct grammatical structures (Krashen, 1982). a) Language  
74 Input and Output Krashen (1982) posited that a key aspect of language acquisition is the amount, quality, and  
75 relevancy of the language input to which second language learners are exposed. Optimal language input is input  
76 that is comprehensible to the second language learner. If the language input is not understood by the second  
77 language learner, language acquisition will not occur. Although language output is not necessary for language  
78 acquisition, language output provides and indirect contribution to the overall process of language acquisition,  
79 particularly where academic language is important (Krashen, 1982). For English Language Learners in the United  
80 States, the development of oral language is essential. Moreover, many researchers (e.g., Baker, 1998; Cummins,  
81 1979; Krashen, 1996) agreed that oral language fluency comprises a vital part of the overall education and success  
82 of English Language Learners.

83 In short, engaging in conversation with native speakers is likely more effective than simply eavesdropping on  
84 conversations for overall second language acquisition.

85 The importance placed on affective and emotional considerations of the learning community plays a critical  
86 part in lowering the affective filter and increasing both receptiveness to language input and willingness to engage  
87 in language output (Collier, 1995). Providing opportunities for English Language Learners to rehearse and  
88 cultivate oral language in a variety of academic and social settings is an important consideration for teachers and  
89 educational leaders (Saunders & O'Brien, 2006).

### 90 4 b) Affective Considerations to Language Learning

91 In his Affective Filter Hypothesis, Krashen (1982), expanding upon the work of Dulay and Burt (1977), conveyed  
92 that a variety of affective variables play a part in, or act as barriers to, second language acquisition. These  
93 variables include motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

94 Captured through The Affective Filter Hypothesis is the notion that a relationship exists between effective  
95 second language acquisition and these affective variables. For instance, second language learners with attitudes  
96 more conducive to language acquisition, meaning learners with strong motivation and self-confidence, will both  
97 seek and obtain more comprehensible input from native speakers than those second language learners who are  
98 unmotivated or who lack self-confidence (Krashen, 1982).

99 In addition, language learners with high anxiety and fear might have exposure to quality language inputs, but  
100 be rendered unable to acquire language as a result of those inputs because the affective filter acts as a barrier  
101 to the natural process of language acquisition. Freeman and Freeman (2001) further explained that the affective  
102 filter acts as an impediment to the process of language acquisition, and when the second language learner has a

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103 high affective filter, language inputs cannot reach the area of the brain where acquisition occurs. Whereas the  
104 affective filter to language inputs is limited in Krashen's theory, Freeman and Freeman asserted that the same  
105 affective block can occur as language output is attempted. Implied by The Affective Filter Hypothesis is that  
106 the role of language instruction, particularly in schools, is not just to provide quality language input, but also to  
107 create a learning environments through which the affective filter can be lessened, optimizing the opportunity for  
108 language acquisition to occur (Krashen, 1982).

## 109 **5 c) The Role of Interaction in Language Acquisition**

110 Krashen (1982) used the term acquisition to account for the natural psychological process of language  
111 development, but because language is used in social interactions, it is important to explore the role that interaction  
112 plays in language acquisition. Expanding Krashen's work, Gee (1992) confirmed that "acquisition is a process of  
113 acquiring something subconsciously by exposure to models, a process of trial and error, and practice within social  
114 groups, without formal teaching" (p. 113). Freeman and Freeman (2001) explained that in social groups, learners  
115 receive language input and language modeling from others using the target language. Gibbons (1991) claimed  
116 that although being immersed in a target language and having appropriate language models was important to  
117 language acquisition, this exposure would not be enough to develop language.

118 Instead, language learners need should have an opportunity to use language through interaction with both  
119 peers and adults (Gibbons, 1991).

## 120 **6 d) Extracurricular Activities and Second Language Acquisition**

121  
122 Although the majority of language learning is limited to the language classroom in schools, Krashen (1982)  
123 explained that the environment beyond the classroom excels in providing language input and opportunities for  
124 language output. Despite the attention educators place on creating classroom environments that are natural  
125 for language acquisition to occur, "there is no way the classroom can match the variety of the outside world"  
126 ??Krashen, 1982, p. 59). Collier (1995) contended that in schools with strong support for language learning  
127 among language minority students, educational leaders have a commitment to empowering language learners by  
128 providing opportunities for meaningful extracurricular activities. Because students learn better in an atmosphere  
129 that is supportive, Díaz-Rico (2004) advocated for educational environments by which language learners can  
130 develop integrative motivation, or the desire to affiliate with peers from the target language group. Being  
131 comfortable with and capable of eliciting cooperation from the target language group is vital to second language  
132 acquisition (Díaz -Rico, 2004).

133 Further, McWhorter (1995) asserted that language learners who participate in extracurricular activities are  
134 more likely to be successful in school than those individuals who do not participate. Language learners who  
135 participate in extracurricular activities have presented themselves as cultural participants, and have made a  
136 commitment to acculturate with the target language group. Accordingly, Saunders and O'Brien (2006) argued  
137 that children who are engaged in social interactions may possess language learning advantage in that they seek  
138 out more interactions with native speakers. Following this idea, it stands to reason that language learners who  
139 engage in social interaction with members of the target language group will engender more language input,  
140 output, and language acquisition opportunities.

141 IV.

## 142 **7 Extracurricular Activities**

143 As schools have provided more varied opportunities for students to participate in extracurricular activities,  
144 researchers (Covay & Carbonaro, 2010; Farb & Matjasko, 2012; ??eldman & Matjasko, 2005; Stearnes & Glennie,  
145 2010) have revealed positive relationships between student participation and the degree to which students  
146 performed at grade level. Supported in the research literature is that developmental achievements tend to  
147 be related to extracurricular activities involvement (Farb & Matjasko, 2012; ??eldman & Matjasko, 2005). As  
148 examined by Covay and Carbonaro (2010), the link between student socioeconomic class and academic attainment  
149 is influenced by participation in extracurricular activities.

150 The connection between extracurricular activities participation and academic achievement is derived from  
151 evidence of increased development of non-cognitive skills that is accomplished through participation. In support  
152 of this finding, Lipscomb (2007) conducted an examination of mathematics achievement and completion of college  
153 degrees as a function of extracurricular activities participation. Positive relationships were revealed between both  
154 variables and participation in extracurricular activities. In a study in which data collected in the Education  
155 Longitudinal Study of 2002 were utilized, Morris (2015) determined that when mathematics performance  
156 of students representing a range of socioeconomic classifications were compared based on participation in  
157 extracurricular activities, students who participated in extracurricular activities had statistically significant higher  
158 levels of academic performance. Furthermore, students of low-income families who participated in extracurricular  
159 activities demonstrated greater academic achievement scores in mathematics than students belonging to higher-  
160 income families who did not participate in extracurricular activities.

## 161 8 a) Extracurricular Activity Participation of Immigrant and 162 Hispanic Students

163 Though research is available in which the overall tendencies for extracurricular activities participation among  
164 immigrant students is described, remarkably few researchers (e.g., Peguero, 2010) have expressed possible  
165 explanations for their lack of participation.

166 Peguero (2010), however, noted immigrant status and English language acquisition as underlying influences  
167 of noninvolvement in extracurricular activities among immigrant students. Indicated in the current research  
168 literature is that student immigrant status can predict participation in extracurricular activities. In a qualitative  
169 study, Okamoto, Herda, and Hartzog (2012) compared secondary student participation in extracurricular  
170 activities as a function of different levels of poverty. Using data from the National Longitudinal Study of  
171 Adolescent Health, trends in extracurricular activities participation of students who were immigrants were  
172 compared with the participation trends of native-born students (Okamoto et al., 2012). Immigrant students  
173 were less likely to participate in extracurricular activities than their nativeborn peers. Hispanic immigrants  
174 were 50% less likely to participate in extracurricular activities, regardless of the socioeconomic status of the  
175 school (Okamoto et al., 2012). First-generation Latino students were less likely to participate in extracurricular  
176 activities than their nativeborn Latino peers. Peguero(2010) proposed it "may be prudent for school educators  
177 and administrators to acknowledge students' immigrant status and ?encourage Latino immigrant children to  
178 participate in extracurricular activities, a vital resource that may lead to educational success" (p. 69).

179 V.

## 180 9 Theoretical Framework

181 Suggested in the social interactionist theory of language acquisition is that acquiring a language is not solely  
182 biological or cognitive function (Dolati, 2012). Social interactionists believe that language is acquired through  
183 a desire to socialize and communicate with peers (Dolati, 2012). Moreover, interactionists assert that language  
184 acquisition occurs as a result of the relationship between the learner and his or her environment (Ellis, 1985).  
185 Therefore, interactionists focus on how both language and cognitive development arise from social interaction  
186 (Goh & Silver, 2004). Theorists of the social interactionist theory of language acquisition propose that  
187 "communicative interaction with others, not just language input, is crucial to language development" ??Hoff,  
188 2012, p. 20).

189 Vygotsky, through his zone of proximal development, examined the role of social interactions in the development  
190 of language (Díaz-Rico, 2004). According to Vygotsky, an individual's ability to learn is a combination of natural  
191 predisposition of cognitive ability and potential problem development through the guidance of and collaboration  
192 with capable peers (Díaz-Rico, 2004). The space between natural ability and potential ability is coined the  
193 zone of proximal development. Díaz-Rico (2004) asserted that it is within this zone that collaboration between  
194 students, teachers, and peers exist.

## 195 10 a) Statement of the Problem

196 English Language Learners have lower standardized test scores and have higher dropout rates than their native  
197 English speaking counterparts ?? Also revealed in the research literature as a factor that contributed to  
198 both extracurricular activities participation and academic perseverance among immigrant students was English  
199 language proficiency. Immigrant newcomers often come lacking fundamental academic skills needed to succeed  
200 in U.S. schools (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2009). These educational deficits could be identified as contributing factors  
201 to the lack of participation in extracurricular activities among newcomer immigrant students. As immigrant  
202 students' standardized test scores increased, the likelihood of their participation in extracurricular activities  
203 increased as well (Peguero, 2010). Notwithstanding this literature, limited research exists through which the  
204 connection between participation in extracurricular activities and English language acquisition is explored.  
205 present a challenge for educational leaders in that their academic achievement is often predicated on their ability  
206 to acquire English language proficiency comparable to their native English-speaking peers (Short et al., 2011).  
207 Relationships between participation in extracurricular activities, academic achievement, and school connectedness  
208 have been examined extensively (Diaz, 2005; Farb & Matjasko, 2012; Stearnes & Glennie, 2010). One student  
209 group that has not been adequately represented in the existing research literature, however, is students who  
210 are English Language Learners. Limited research is available by which the connection between participation  
211 in extracurricular activities and English language acquisition is examined. Because English Language Learners  
212 present the added impediment of second language acquisition to academic achievement, educational leaders  
213 would benefit from evidence on how school involvement could potentially mediate student achievement and  
214 increase English proficiency. This specific topic of study could be beneficial to educational leaders, especially  
215 in consideration of literature related to the reported benefits of participation in extracurricular activities and  
216 theories associated with language acquisition.

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## 217 11 b) Purpose of the Study

218 The primary purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which differences existed in English language  
219 acquisition as a function of participation in extracurricular activities. The secondary purpose of this study was  
220 to determine the degree to which differences were present in English language proficiency of English Language  
221 Learners as a function of participation in extracurricular activities. A third purpose of this study was to determine  
222 to what extent those differences were associated with length of time in U.S. schools. Finally, the fourth purpose  
223 of this study was to determine the degree to which differences existed in the academic performance of English  
224 Language Learners as a function of participation in extracurricular activities.

## 225 12 c) Significance of the Study

226 Presented in this study were data specific to English Language Learners, concerning participation in extracurricular  
227 activities as it relates to English language development and academic achievement. In the Texas school  
228 accountability system, English Language Learners are referred to as Limited English Proficient. Due to the  
229 pejorative nature of that term, the phrase English Language Learner was utilized throughout this study.  
230 Through this study, data were obtained that could provide valuable insights around the potential effects that  
231 extracurricular activities participation might have on indicators present in the federal accountability system for  
232 English Language Learners. Considering that English Language Learners represent the fastest growing student  
233 population in the United States (Batalova & McHugh, 2010), educational leaders could benefit from additional  
234 research involving this student population.

## 235 13 d) Research Questions

236 Patterned after AMAO 1, AMAO 2, and AMAO 3 of the federal accountability system, the research questions  
237 addressed in this study were:

## 238 14 Method

239 Using the social interactionist theory of second language acquisition as a foundation for this study, English  
240 Language Learners may benefit from increased opportunities to communicate in social contexts in the common  
241 school language through participation in extracurricular activities. Therefore, trends in the level of participation  
242 of English Language Learners in extracurricular activities may provide school administrators with valuable  
243 information that has the potential to drive programmatic and instructional strategies to increase English  
244 acquisition and access to content material. Structuring English language development programs that offer  
245 quality instruction in content areas and concurrently providing appropriate support for school inclusion may  
246 be the impetus to enhance the ability to acquire English language proficiency and attain higher scores on state  
247 assessments.

248 already taken place at the time of analysis. In addition, variables were not controlled. The archival data that  
249 were analyzed in this study were illustrative of past events (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). The independent  
250 variable analyzed in this study was participation in extracurricular activities (i.e., participant or nonparticipant)  
251 of English Language Learners. The dependent variables were growth on the TELPAS composite score from the  
252 2013-2014 school year and the 2014-2015 school year, attainment of Advanced High on the TELPAS, the STAAR  
253 Reading scores, and the STAAR Mathematics scores.

## 254 15 b) Participants

255 Archival data from a large school district in suburban Houston were obtained for the 2014-2015 school year.  
256 These data contained demographic information of all English Language Learners in Grades 6 through Grade  
257 12. The sample was inclusive of approximately 1,500 students. Student participation in extracurricular activities,  
258 determined by conducting a content analysis of both student schedules and course descriptions printed in the  
259 district course guides, was coded as either participant or nonparticipant. For the purposes of this study,  
260 only extracurricular activities that were related to a specific curricular course, and for which after school  
261 participation was a requirement, were included. After school requirements associated with the courses was  
262 verified in descriptions printed in the district course catalog.

## 263 16 c) Procedures

264 Utilizing the federal accountability system for English Language Learners, AMAOs, student performance on the  
265 TELPAS, and on the STAAR Reading and Mathematics exams as a function of participation in extracurricular  
266 activities were analyzed in this study. Participation in extracurricular activities of English Language Learners in  
267 a diverse district of suburban Houston was examined. In related studies, extracurricular activities participation  
268 has been categorized as participant and nonparticipant (Hunt, 2005; Okamoto et al., 2012).

269 Employing similar methods, student schedules were analyzed to establish student categories of participant and  
270 nonparticipant.

271 To determine student participation status in extracurricular activities, course guides for both middle schools  
272 and high schools were consulted. Course codes for course descriptions that include specific verbiage relating

## 21 TABLE 1: PROGRESS ON THE TELPAS FROM THE 2014 TO THE 2015 SCHOOL YEAR BY PARTICIPATION IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

273 to mandatory after school participation were noted for use in the study. Student schedules for students in all  
274 Grades 6 through Grade 12 were crossreferenced using the selected course numbers. Student participation was  
275 categorized as participant and nonparticipant, and then was merged into the data set holding other student  
276 demographic data into the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-Version 23).

277 Data regarding student performance on the TELPAS, the STAAR Reading, and the STAAR Mathematics  
278 tests were also included.

### 279 17 d) Instrumentation

280 The two student assessments from which data were obtained and analyzed to address the previously delineated  
281 research questions were the TELPAS and the STAAR. The STAAR system, which was implemented in the spring  
282 of 2012, includes annual assessments in reading and mathematics in Grade 3 through Grade 8, assessments in  
283 writing in Grade 4 and Grade 7, assessments in science in Grade 5 and Grade 8, and an assessment in Social  
284 Studies in Grade 8. At the high school level, End of Course (EOC) exams are administered for English I, English  
285 II, Algebra I, Biology, and U.S. History. The assessments are used to measure mastery of the Texas Essential  
286 Knowledge and Skills, and results of the assessments are factored into state and federal accountability systems  
287 (Texas Education Agency, 2016b).

288 The Texas Education Agency designed the TELPAS to assess the progress of English Language Learners in  
289 their attainment of the English language (Texas Education Agency, 2011). The assessment consisted of ratings  
290 on the four English language proficiency standards: (a) Listening, (b) speaking, (c) reading, and (d) writing.  
291 Ratings for Listening, speaking, and writing were determined via holistic rating and teacher observation. The  
292 ratings for reading were determined via an online exam (Texas Education Agency, 2011). Student proficiency  
293 level descriptors were: (a) Beginner, (b) Intermediate, (c) Advanced, or (d) Advanced High in each language  
294 domain. Ratings for all four of the language components were combined to create a composite score (Texas  
295 Education Agency, 2016c). The reading rating comprised 50% of the composite score and writing comprised  
296 30% of the composite score. Listening and speaking ratings each made up 10% of the total composite score.  
297 The composite score was used to determine growth in English language acquisition. An increase of one level  
298 was necessary for the student to be considered as making progress. Sweeping changes were made to both the  
299 component percentages that made up the composite score and the rigor of the reading assessment between the  
300 2013 and 2014 TELPAS administrations (Texas Education Agency, 2016c). English Language Learners were  
301 assessed using the TELPAS in the spring of each year (Texas Education Agency, 2016c).

302 Psychometric qualities of these assessments, including score reliabilities and score validities, are available for the  
303 reader at the Texas Education Agency website (Texas Education Agency, 2016b, 2016c). Using the same standards  
304 as AMAOs, language acquisition between the two groups of students (i.e., participant or nonparticipant) was  
305 analyzed.

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308 VII.

### 309 20 Results

310 To determine whether differences existed in the academic performance of English Language Learners as a function  
311 of participation in extracurricular activities, a series of Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted. Chi-square  
312 procedures are the preferred inferential statistical procedure when both dependent and independent variables are  
313 categorical in nature. Additionally, the available cases surpassed the limit of fivescores per cell. Therefore, the  
314 assumptions for employing the chi-square procedure were met (Field, 2005; Slate & Rojas-LeBouef, 2012).

315 For the first research question regarding the progress of English Language Learners on the TELPAS by their  
316 participation in extracurricular activities, the result was not statistically significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 1.20, p = .27$ .  
317 English Language Learners who participated in extracurricular activities had a similar degree of progress on the  
318 TELPAS from the 2014 administration to the 2015 administration as did English Language Learners who did not  
319 participate in extracurricular activities. Delineated in Table ?? are the frequencies and percentages of progress  
320 by English Language Learners on the TELPAS by extracurricular activity participation.

### 321 21 Table 1: Progress on the TELPAS from the 2014 to the 2015 School Year by Participation in Extracurricular Activities

322 With respect to English language proficiency on the TELPAS as a function of participation in extracurricular  
323 activities for students enrolled in U.S. schools for less than five years, the result was not statistically significant,  
324  $\chi^2(1) = 1.48, p = .22$ . Although English Language Learners who participated in extracurricular activities were  
325 20% more likely to reach an Advanced High Rating on the TELPAS than English Language Learners who did not  
326 participate in extracurricular activities, the sample size was too small to yield a statistically significant result.  
327 The reader is referred to Table ?? for frequencies and percentages for this analysis.

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## 22 Table 2: Frequencies and Percentages of Student Attainment of an Advanced High Rating on the TELPAS by Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Regarding the third research question on English language proficiency on the TELPAS as function of participation in extracurricular activities for students enrolled in U.S. schools for five or more years, the result was not statistically significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.03, p = .86$ . Similar rates of progress on the TELPAS were present for English Language Learners in this study, regardless of participation in extracurricular activities. Revealed in Table ?? are the frequencies and percentages for this analysis.

Concerning the fourth research question about English Language Learners who met the passing standard on the STAAR Reading test as a function of participation in extracurricular activities, the result was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 7.45, p = .006$ . The effect size for this result was small, Cramer's  $V = .11$ . English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities were more likely to meet the passing standard on the STAAR Reading exam than were their peers who were involved in extracurricular activities. English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities were more than 10% less likely to meet the passing standard on the STAAR Reading test than English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities. Table 3 With respect to the fifth research question concerning English Language Learners who met the passing standard on the STAAR Mathematics test as a function of participation in extracurricular activities, the result was not statistically significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 3.16, p = .075$ , at the conventional level of .05 used in education research.

Although the result was not statistically significant at the conventional level, English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities were more likely to meet the passing standard on the STAAR Mathematics exam than their peers who were involved in extracurricular activities. English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities were more than 6% less likely to meet the passing standard on the STAAR Mathematics exam than English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities.

Descriptive statistics for this analysis are revealed in Table 3.

Regarding the sixth research question, scaled score on the STAAR Reading test by English Language Learner participation in extracurricular activities, a parametric independent samples t-test was calculated. The independent samples t-test yielded a statistically significant difference,  $t(286.40) = -1.16, p = .04$ . The difference represented a trivial effect size (Cohen's  $d$ ) of 0.10 (Cohen, 1988). The average score on the STAAR Reading test for English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities was statistically significantly higher than the average score for English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities. The average STAAR Reading test score for English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities was 1974.44, compared to an average score of 2068.91 for English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities. Table ?? contains the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

## 23 Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Student Performance on the STAAR Reading Test by Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Concerning the final research question, scaled score on the STAAR Mathematics test by English Language Learner participation in extracurricular activities, a parametric independent samples t-test was conducted. This independent samples t-test yielded a statistically significant difference,  $t(327.32) = -1.77, p = .003$ . The difference represented a trivial effect size (Cohen's  $d$ ) of 0.15 (Cohen, 1988). The average score on the STAAR Mathematics exam for English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities was statistically significantly higher than the average score for English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities. The average STAAR Mathematics test score for English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities was 1797.01, compared to an average score of 1910.13 for English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular activities. Delineated in Table 5

## 24 Discussion

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the degree to which extracurricular activity participation was associated with second language acquisition and academic performance of English Language Learners.

Inferential statistical analyses revealed that extracurricular activity participation was not related to second language acquisition as measured by progress on the TELPAS composite score. Moreover, participation in extracurricular activities was not statistically significantly related to students having an Advanced High rating on the TELPAS. Readers should note, however, that the TELPAS composite score consists of individual rating of the four components of language (i.e., Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing), and that only 50% of the overall composite score is comprised of the three components, whereas the remaining 50% of the composite score is comprised of the reading proficiency rating (Texas Education Agency, 2016c). As language is acquired, however, proficiency in the language modalities develops independently. Progress in one modality influences progress in another, language progression does not follow a particular sequence (Ellis, 1985). For instance, an English

## 27 D) RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

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387 Language Learner can increase proficiency in speaking, a productive language component, before proficiency in  
388 reading is attained.

389 The TELPAS composite score, therefore, may not provide an accurate representation of language acquisition.  
390 Inferential statistical analyses also revealed that English Language Learners who were not involved in extracurricular  
391 activities had higher scores on the STAAR Reading and STAAR Mathematics tests than English Language  
392 Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities. The fact that both the TELPAS Reading assessment  
393 and the STAAR Reading test are closely aligned provides an indication that these independent assessments serve  
394 as measure of content skill and reading comprehension rather than reading proficiency (Texas Education Agency,  
395 2016c).

### 396 25 a) Connections with Existing Literature

397 McWhorter (1995) contended that language learners who were involved in extracurricular activities were more  
398 likely to be academically successful than students who were not involved in extracurricular activities.

399 Furthermore, according to several researchers (e.g., Covay & Carbonaro, 2010; Farb & Matjasko, 2012;  
400 ??eldman & Matjasko, 2005; Stearnes & Glennie, 2010), as opportunities to participate in extracurricular  
401 activities increased in the academic environment, the degree to which students performed at grade level also  
402 increased. Findings in this study, however, were not congruent with the existing academic literature. Participation  
403 in extracurricular activities was not statistically significantly related to English Language Learners' English  
404 proficiency or reading ability as measured by the TELPAS or the STAAR Reading tests. In fact, English  
405 Language Learners who did not participate in extracurricular activities performed better on the STAAR Reading  
406 test than their peers who had participated in extracurricular activities.

407 With respect to mathematics achievement, Lipscomb (2007) concluded that a positive relationship existed  
408 between achievement in mathematics and participation in extracurricular activities. Similarly, Morris (2015)  
409 determined that students who were involved in extracurricular activities demonstrated statistically significant  
410 higher levels of academic performance in mathematics. Findings of this study were not congruent with the  
411 existing literature regarding mathematics achievement and participation in extracurricular activities. English  
412 Language Learners who participated in extracurricular activities were less likely than their peers who did not  
413 participate to meet the passing standard on the STAAR Mathematics test.

### 414 26 b) Connection to Theoretical Framework

415 According to the social interactionist theory of language acquisition, language acquisition is not exclusively  
416 a biological or cognitive task (Dolati, 2012). Instead, social interactionists posit that language acquisition is  
417 accomplished through a social need to communicate with peers (Dolati, 2012). Neither the TELPAS nor the  
418 STAAR assessments measure informal or social language exclusively. Moreover, because the TELPAS test is  
419 closely related to the STAAR Reading test, a measure of content skills and not English proficiency, social  
420 language acquisition would not be obtained from data used in this study.

421 Furthermore, Vygotsky analyzed the influences of social interactions in language acquisition (Díaz- Rico,  
422 2004). An individual's ability to learn, according to Vygotsky, is an amalgamation of natural inclination toward  
423 cognitive ability and potential cognitive growth that is cultivated through collaboration with capable peers  
424 (Díaz-Rico, 2004 Dolati, 2012), participation in extracurricular activities for English Language Learners in this  
425 empirical investigation was not related to academic performance or to second language acquisition. One possible  
426 explanation for this phenomena is that the structure of the school environment is such that English Language  
427 Learners who participate in extracurricular activities are not provided the academic support necessary to combat  
428 the cognitive and linguistic demands of the assessments analyzed in the study. For instance, participating in  
429 extracurricular activities might limit student access to after-school tutorials or special intervention programs.  
430 Moreover, intervention opportunities and specialized classes designed to mitigate academic deficits, such as  
431 strategies and preparatory classes, which are offered during the school day might not be available to students  
432 who elect to participate in extracurricular activities that are associated with a school course, as was analyzed  
433 in this study. Sufficient academic and linguistic support necessary for English Language Learners may not  
434 have been provided in a way, or to a depth, that would allow students to have full access to the educational  
435 environment. Educational leaders must develop policies and implement creative structures that would allow  
436 students to participate in school activities without sacrificing access to interventions and targeted assistance  
437 needed to develop linguistic and cognitive skills.

### 438 27 d) Recommendations for Future Research

439 For the purposes of this investigation, the definition of extracurricular activities was limited to activities that  
440 corresponded to course offering within the school curriculum. Extending the scope of the activities to include  
441 activities that are offered independent from school courses, as well as community activities, might provide a  
442 more comprehensive representation of student participation. Extending the study to students in elementary and  
443 middle school settings is also recommended.

444 One half of the TELPAS composite rating is derived from the reading assessment included in the system  
445 (Texas Education Agency, 2016c). Analyzing the separate components of the TELPAS assessment (i.e., Listening,

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446 Speaking, and Writing) with extracurricular activity participation might provide useful information. Another  
447 suggestion for future research, because the TELPAS Reading test is closely related to the STAAR Reading test,  
448 is for researchers to use alternative measures of language acquisition (Texas Education Agency, 2016c). Further,  
449 utilizing a variety of assessments geared specifically for measuring English language acquisition is recommended.

450 To expand the current literature on the potential relationship between extracurricular activity participation  
451 and second language acquisition, extending this study to other school districts is encouraged. This investigation  
452 was conducted using student data from one school district in the State of Texas. The degree to which results  
453 might be generalizable to English Language Learners in other school districts or in other states is not known. As  
454 such, research into the relationships of extracurricular activity participation with the academic achievement of  
455 English Language Learners in other school districts and in other states is recommended.

456 A final recommendation is for researchers to gather qualitative data regarding student and teacher perceptions  
457 on the perceived advantages and disadvantages of extracurricular activity participation for English Language  
458 Learners.

## 459 28 IX.

## 460 29 Conclusion

461 In this study, the relationship of extracurricular activity participation of English Language Learners with their  
462 TELPAS and STAAR Reading and Mathematics test scores was addressed. Participation in extracurricular  
463 activities was not statistically significantly related to English Language Learner progress toward or attainment of  
464 language fluency. In contrast to previous research, extracurricular activity participation was negatively related to  
465 English Language Learner performance on the STAAR Reading and Mathematics tests. Implications for policy  
and practice, as well as suggestions for further research, were discussed. <sup>1</sup>

Year 2016

48

Volume XVI Issue VII Version I

( A )

Global Journal of Human Social Science -

Orozco et al., 2009).

socioeconomic realities, English Language Learners

Suarez-  
Often  
immigrants  
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Figure 1:

466

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<sup>1</sup>© 2016 Global Journals Inc. (US) s Differences in Second Language Acquisition and Academic Achievement  
by Extracurricular Activity Participation for English Language Learners

TELPAS Progress Made Progress Participated n and %age (n = 54) 32.3%

Did Not Make Progress Length of Time in U.S. Schools and (n = 113) 67.7%

TELPAS Rating Less than Five Years in U.S. Schools Attained AH Rating Did Not Attain AH Rating Five

Figure 2:

3

Figure 3: Table 3 :

5

Differences in Second Language Acquisition and Academic Achievement by Extracurricular Ac  
Participation for English Language Learners

STAAR Assessment and Student Performance	Participated		Did Not Participate	
	n	%	n	%
STAAR Reading				
Met Standard	37	23.3%	172	34.9%
Did Not Meet Standard	122	76.7%	321	65.1%
STAAR Mathematics				
Met Standard	68	39.1%	249	46.8%
Did Not Meet Standard	106	60.9%	283	55.1%

Year 2016

52

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Version I

( A )

-Global Extracurricular Activity Involvement Participated n

Journal Did Not Participate 159

of Human 493

Social

Science

M SD

1974.44 69.33

2068.91 42.55

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Figure 4: Table 5 :

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ability and potential ability, the zone of proximal development, is where interactions between students, teachers, and peers exist (Díaz-Rico, 2004). The amount of Extracurricular Activity Involvement of learning that transpires within the zone of proximal development is difficult, if not impossible, to quantify. Accordingly, it would be difficult to determine if the Did Not Participate English Language Learners who were involved in extracurricular activities benefited from the social interaction as potential learning would be difficult to ascertain.

	n	M	SD
Participated	173	179.53	16.66
Did Not Participate	523	191.34	17.33

c) Implications for Policy and Practice  
 Contrary to prior literature (e.g., Covay & Carbonaro, 2010; Farb & Matjasko, 2012; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Lipscomb, 2007; McWhorter, 1995; Morris, 2015; Stearnes & Glennie, 2010); and to accepted theories of second language acquisition (e.g., Díaz-Rico, 2004);

Figure 5:



- 467 Auhtor ?: Shepherd Independent School District. Auhtor ? ? ?: Sam Houston State University. e-mail:  
468 profslate@aol.com
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## 29 CONCLUSION

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