

**MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS: A
COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TO COMMUNICATION
INTERVENTION**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASHA	American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CBD	Central Business District
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
DoE	Department of Education
EAL	English as Additional Language
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECE	Early Childhood Education
ELoLT	English as Language of Learning and Teaching
GDE	Gauteng Department of Education
IEP	Individual Education Plan
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
ITPA	Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968)
KLST	Kindergarten Language Screening Test (Gauthier & Madison, 1998)
LANGTAG	Language Plan Task Group
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
L1	First language or mother tongue
L2	Additional language
Mol	Medium of Instruction
NAEYC	National Association for the Education of Young Children
NCESS	National Committee on Education Support Services
NCSNET	National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
PANSALB	Pan South African Language Board
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SASLHA	South African Speech-Language-Hearing Association
SD	Standard Deviation
TACL-R	Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language – Revised (Carrow, 1985)
TALK	The Project for the Transfer of African Languages
USA	United States of America

ABSTRACT

TITLE: Multilingual Preschool Learners: A Collaborative Approach to Communication Intervention

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Multilingualism in classrooms is currently prompting debate and has significantly impacted on schooling in South Africa over the last decade. At present South African educators face the challenge of coping with and finding solutions to culturally and linguistically diverse urban school contexts that did not exist before. In many South African communities young learners, without any prior knowledge of English, are placed in English preschools. Preschool teachers have the demanding task of preparing these multilingual preschoolers for formal schooling in English, and, in addition, are pressurised by parents or caregivers who expect their children to be fluent in English by the time they enter primary school. A group of preschool teachers in a specific urban, multilingual preschool context expressed concern about multilingual preschool learners' academic performances and their future, and requested advice and support. Consequently a need was identified for speech-language therapists to make their expertise available to multilingual preschool learners, as well as to their preschool teachers.

To address this need, an exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design, incorporating the quantitative perspective, was selected to describe the specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria Central Business District (CBD) and Sunnyside area. A descriptive survey was conducted and two survey techniques were employed to collect the data, namely a questionnaire and a test battery. The questionnaire was used to collect information from 32 teacher participants to investigate the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners. The test

battery was utilised to collect data on the language and communication proficiency in English of 30 learner participants.

Results indicated that the teacher participants perceived certain personal challenges while supporting the preschool learners acquiring English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT). These teachers expressed a need for knowledge and support. They also reported that the multilingual preschool learners in the research context had to communicate in ELoLT despite it being an unfamiliar language. Some of the multilingual preschool learners displayed behaviours that could be indicative of negative influences on their self-esteem. The language and communication assessment revealed that many learner participants' comprehension and expression in ELoLT were insufficient for learning and that they required support for academic success. In addition, the results support the claim that an integrated view of the multilingual learners' communication abilities need to be established across contexts, by combining assessment strategies, such as naturalistic and structured assessment, as well as interdisciplinary perspectives.

The results of the empirical research was used to propose a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in the research context. This proposed model may be an effective approach to provide supportive intervention to multilingual preschool learners with linguistic barriers to learning. In addition, initial stage intervention guidelines for the basic level ELoLT learner were offered in response to the needs of the specific community. These guidelines may provide a basis for the planning of intervention strategies to preschool teachers who were concerned about the education and future of multilingual preschool learners.

Key words: speech-language therapy services, multilingualism, English as Language of Learning and Teaching, consultation, collaborative intervention, urban preschools, service delivery model, intervention guidelines.

OPSOMMING

TITEL:	Meertalige Voorskoolse Leerders: 'n Samewerkingsbenadering tot Kommunikasie-intervensie
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Meertaligheid in die klaskamer ontlok tans debatte en het die afgelope dekade die skoolsisteem in Suid-Afrika aansienlik beïnvloed. Die hedendaagse Suid-Afrikaanse leerkragte word gekonfronteer met uitdagings en moet oplossings vind in 'n stedelike skoolkonteks met diverse kulture en tale wat nie voorheen bestaan het nie. Baie Suid-Afrikaanse gemeenskappe plaas tans jong leerders, met geen vorige kennis van Engels nie, in Engelse kleuterskole. Kleuterskoolonderwyseresse het gevolglik 'n veeleisende taak om hierdie meertalige kleuters vir formele onderrig in Engels voor te berei, terwyl die ouers of sorggewers verdere druk op die onderwyseresse plaas deur te verwag dat hulle kinders vlot moet kan Engels praat wanneer hulle laerskool toe gaan. 'n Groep kleuterskoolonderwyseresse in 'n spesifieke stedelike, meertalige kleuterskoolkonteks het hulle kommer oor meertalige kleuters se akademiese prestasies en toekoms uitgespreek, en raad en ondersteuning gevra. 'n Behoefte is gevolglik geïdentifiseer dat spraak-taalterapeute hul kundigheid beskikbaar stel aan die meertalige kleuters, asook aan hul kleuterskoolonderwyseresse.

Ten einde hierdie behoefte aan te spreek, is 'n ondersoekende, beskrywende, kontekstuele navorsingsontwerp geselekteer, wat die kwantitatiewe perspektief implementeer, om die spesifieke opvoedkundige konteks van meertalige kleuterskole in die Pretoria Sentrale Besigheidsdistrik en Sunnyside-gebied te beskryf. 'n Beskrywende opname is uitgevoer en twee opname-tegnieke is aangewend om data in te samel, naamlik 'n vraelys en 'n

toetsbattery. Die vraelys het inligting van 32 onderwyseresdeelnemers ingesamel om ondersoek in te stel na die behoeftes en sterk punte van die kleuterskoolonderwyseresse en die meertalige kleuters. Die toetsbattery (kontrolelyns) het inligting oor die taal- en kommunikasievaardighede in Engels van 30 leerderdeelnemers ingesamel.

Die resultate dui daarop dat die onderwyseresdeelnemers sekere persoonlike uitdagings ervaar in die ondersteuning van die meertalige kleuters wat Engels as Taal van Leer en Onderrig aanleer. Hulle het ook aangetoon dat die meertalige kleuters in die navorsingskonteks in Engels moet kommunikeer ten spyte daarvan dat dit 'n onbekende taal is, asook dat sommige van die meertalige kleuters se gedragpatrone geïnterpreteer kan word as aanduidend van negatiewe invloede op hul selfbeeld. Die taal- en kommunikasie-assessering het getoon dat baie leerderdeelnemers se begrips- en ekspressiewe vaardighede in Engels onvoldoende is vir leerdoeleindes en dat hulle ondersteun moet word ten einde akademiese sukses te behaal. Voorts staaf die resultate die aanspraak dat 'n geïntegreerde opinie oor kontekste heen ten opsigte van die meertalige kleuter se kommunikasievaardighede bereik behoort te word met behulp van assesseringstrategieë, soos natuurlike en gestruktureerde assessering, asook interdisiplinêre perspektiewe.

Die resultate van die empiriese navorsing is gebruik om 'n voorlopige diensleweringmodel daar te stel. Dié model kan doeltreffend aangewend word om meertalige kleuters in hul leerproses te ondersteun. Aanvangstadium-intervensieriglyne vir die basiese vlak kleuter wat Engels as Taal van Leer en Onderrig aanleer, is voorsien na aanleiding van die behoefte wat deur die spesifieke gemeenskap uitgespreek is. Hierdie riglyne kan die kleuterskoolonderwyseresse, wat hul kommer oor die akademiese prestasie en toekoms van meertalige kleuters uitgespreek het, help met die beplanning van intervensiestrategieë.

Sleutelwoorde: spraak-taalterapeutiese dienste, meertaligheid, Engels as Taal van Leer en Onderrig, konsultasie, gesamentlike intervensie, aanleer van

addisionele taal, stedelike kleuterskole, diensleweringsmodel,
intervensieriglyne.

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Linguistic and cultural competence will be the mark of the well-educated citizen of the 21st century (Genesee & Cloud, 1998:65).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The global population has passed the six billion people mark and is rapidly increasing towards seven billion (Cunningham, 2001:201). In order to satisfy global needs, the different nations of the world have become interdependent (Smit, 1993:162), necessitating communication between people from diverse backgrounds. Although technology, in particular the internet, has increased, if not maximised, global communication possibilities, it has not diminished the need for language competency. Languages still have a key role to play in harmonising contact between culturally and linguistically diverse individuals. Education, communication, and languages have in fact never been more important, despite the explosion of knowledge in science, medicine, and technology (Genesee & Cloud, 1998:62).

Education is no longer merely a priority for educators and parents or caregivers, but business leaders increasingly recognise the connection between global competitiveness and education. Economic forces exercise considerable influence on decision-making in education, in particular language decision-making. Many economists concede that language competence in more than one language has become imperative because of the integral place of language competency in the global market-place (Cunningham, 2001:218; Gumbo, 2001:240; Genesee & Cloud, 1998:62). As global multilingualism becomes a reality, there is an ongoing awareness worldwide that education

will have to play a role in preparing learners for the challenges of language diversity.

Although South Africa is a young democracy, it has already accomplished the formulation of a language policy that enshrines in its constitution the equality of all the South African languages (Cunningham, 2001:215; Bosman, 2000:226; Steyn, 2000:48). Different official languages, however, are used in different contexts (LANGTAG, 1996:24), and language in education is one such context. While parents or caregivers can currently choose the Medium of Instruction (Moi) for their children, there appears to be general consensus in education that mother tongue (L1) instruction is not sufficient and that all South Africans need to be introduced to an additional language (L2) with wider communication functions, enabling them to interact in all spheres of life whether social, political, economic or educational (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:181; LANGTAG, 1996:22; Smit, 1993:157). English appears to be the preferred language across cultural barriers in South Africa (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:182), and has emerged as the most likely international *lingua franca* (Cunningham, 2001:201), therefore it is rightfully regarded by some as the first choice of L2 (Smit, 1993: 157-158).

In South Africa, the government and, in some communities, the parents or caregivers, as well as the learners, have an overwhelmingly positive attitude towards English (De Klerk, 2002a:2). It is the most frequently used official language in education and is regarded by some as the key to tertiary institutions (Cele, 2001:187). Arguably English also poses the biggest threat to L1 education because of its popularity among parents or caregivers and learners (Cunningham, 2001:201; Bosman, 2000: 224; Lemmer, 1993:82). However, poor educational performances owing to an inability to speak, read, and write adequately in English by some learners who have English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT) may call for the early introduction thereof as an L2 to allow learners more time to become proficient in English. While Bosman (2000:224) regards L1 education as crucial for academic success, Cele (2001:184) holds the opinion that young learners need to be given the wherewithal to maximise their future choices, as

enormous sources of information, knowledge, and opportunities will be lost to people with poor or no command of English as L1 or L2. It may therefore be in the interest of the learners' future to support their acquisition of English as L1 or L2.

This dominance of English in education is one of the issues that captures the attention of both policy-makers and scholars (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:180). The opinion exists that English should be accepted as the dominant language in education in the interest of equality and democracy, but ethical and pedagogical questions concerning the efficacy in education arise when the vast majority of children have limited exposure to English (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:173). The question is raised whether parents or caregivers who favour the use of English are not perhaps hindering their children, rather than helping them. Is it possible for all learners to become proficient in English in the foreseeable future? Another unanswered question is whether the focus on English, to the detriment of the L1, will not result in failure and delay intellectual development.

As multilingualism is clearly a challenge in South African education, the Department of Education (DoE), in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:18), called for collaboration between all the professionals involved in Early Childhood Education (ECE) when addressing the language needs of young learners acquiring ELoLT. Such collaboration in services to preschool learners are in line with global trends in service delivery over the past decade (Du Plessis, 1998b:63). In collaboration, the specific expertise of individual team members needs to be recognised and utilised. Although teachers are the most important link in the adjustment process of ELoLT learners to the English classroom (NAEYC, 1996:7), it is accepted that educational support professionals, such as speech-language therapists, need to be included as team members.

In view of the challenge that multilingualism within the South African education poses to both educators and education support professionals, the following

discussion aims to provide the background against which decisions regarding language in education need to be taken.

1.2 THE GLOBAL AND LOCAL CHALLENGES OF MULTILINGUALISM

As a result of major developments in social, economic, and political sectors (Smit, 1993:160), societies all over the world have become linguistically and culturally diverse, with homogeneous societies being the exception rather than the rule. Worldwide, policy-makers have been faced with the challenge of dealing with diversity and have had to adapt in an effort to cope with a variety of languages, religions, ethnic groups, and socio-economic backgrounds, as well as a variety of political views within their boundaries (Genesee & Cloud, 1998:62).

In the United States of America (USA), multiculturalism grew dramatically during the 1980s and numerous sources noted the increase in numbers of the non-English-speaking population (Gumbo, 2001:235; Genesee & Cloud, 1998:62; Montgomery & Herer, 1994:130; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:156; Waggoner, 1993:1). The linguistically diverse population resulted in an increase in the number of learners with limited English proficiency, placing demands on schools to meet the needs of these learners (Garcia & Stein, 1997:141). When illiteracy and limitations in vocabulary, reading, and writing skills increased and high school drop-out rates escalated in the nineties, the education of non-English learners in the USA was placed high on the education agenda (Garcia & Stein, 1997:142; Cheng, 1996:349; Montgomery & Herer, 1994:131-134).

More than 20 years ago, during the eighties, speech-language therapists in the USA reported an increase in their case-loads of so-called non-native English speakers, and requested clarification of their role. Subsequently the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) issued a Position Paper in 1983, followed by a Position Statement in 1998, stating that speech-language therapists are indeed qualified to accept these clients and serve as

consultants to educators regarding the acquisition of additional languages (ASHA, 1998:24; ASHA, 1983:24).

In contrast with the USA, where divergent views are held by American individuals on multilingual education (Gumbo, 2001:236), the European community generally encourages the acquisition of foreign languages and views multilingualism as a positive opportunity (De Groof & Lauwers, 2001:49). This may be ascribed to the close proximity of European countries as opposed to the relative isolation of the USA, as well as the richness of Europe's linguistic heritage (Cunningham, 2001:216). The introduction of unrestricted freedom of movement within the European community from 1 January 1993 further stimulated and motivated the learning and promotion of foreign languages in Europe (Smit, 1993:161). Smit (1993:161) reports that the freedom of movement in Europe has increased European learners' motivation to become multilingual in view of greater opportunities for working and studying abroad.

Europe's engagement with Africa and its people can be traced back to the seventeenth century and the time of colonialism, when Africa was a vast multilingual continent with a rich heritage of indigenous languages. Under colonial governments, indigenous languages were largely ignored and European languages like English, Dutch, German, and Portuguese were introduced to African countries (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:171). Since their independence that started in the early 1960s, many African countries have wanted to move beyond their colonial heritage (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:181) and multilingualism in education is currently drawing new interest. Language practices as well as policies are being developed to solve pressing practical problems. There is also an increasing awareness of the importance of L1, as well as proficiency in the ex-colonial languages which is preferred as Mol at their tertiary institutions (Sarinjeive, 1999:129).

Multilingualism in South Africa, as in the rest of the African continent, is a fact of life. Most South Africans are bi- or multilingual, especially those in the lower income and previously disadvantaged communities. As a result of

recent socio-political changes in this country, there are eleven official languages, namely Afrikaans, English, IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, SiSwati, IsiNdebele (the Nguni cluster), SeSotho, SePedi, SeTswana (the Sotho cluster), XiTsonga and TshiVenda (Sarinjeive, 1999:128; Peirce & Ridge, 1997:172). By adopting this creative and original policy of multilingualism in an effort to do away with the legacy of state bilingualism, the South African Government has demonstrated its support for language diversity in the country.

Like other countries in the Southern African region that gained democracy and independence, South Africa also recognises its previous colonial language (English) as one of the official languages. In South Africa, English enjoyed prominence during the struggle against apartheid, both politically and ideologically (Kamwangamalu, 1997:243). This trend towards English as preferred language of communication in South Africa is continuing currently because of its international and commercial attraction. English is generally viewed as the language of the workplace that could assist employees to work efficiently and communicate effectively across all cultural barriers (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:182). The perception also exists that English is the only means to success because the world of opportunity is essentially English speaking (Sarinjeive, 1999:130). According to Sarinjeive (1999:136), the desire for English is further fuelled in some Black students by a deep-seated resistance to L1 education. The L1 is stigmatised as inferior and associated with inferior apartheid education and limited employment opportunities, as documented by history (Sarinjeive, 1999:136).

History bears evidence that the language policies in South Africa, prior to 1991, were determined by political and ideological agendas. From 1652, government officials spoke Dutch and indigenous languages were not valued as media of communication. During the British colonisation of the Cape in the eighteenth century, English was positioned as primary language and all children were taught in English to ensure that the next generation of South Africans would be *English*. In 1825, English was recognised as official language, and nearly a century later, the Smuts Education Act of 1907

endorsed this trend and stipulated that *all* children had to learn English at school. After the Second South African War, the Afrikaans Language Movement started a campaign for the recognition of Afrikaans as an official language and eventually succeeded when the Nationalist Government took control in 1948. At that time, a language policy recognising only Afrikaans and English as official languages on all levels was adopted (Cele, 2001:182; Peirce & Ridge, 1997:178; Lemmer, 1995: 84-85).

In retrospect, it is clear that the *language in education* policy formed part of the struggle for political dominance. In 1953, Black education was separated from White education and regulated by the Department of Bantu Affairs. Compulsory L1 instruction was introduced to Black learners from Grade One and it was stipulated that both Afrikaans and English be taught as subjects. In the senior primary and secondary school years, only Afrikaans and English instruction was allowed in Black schools. In 1974, the province of Transvaal further stipulated that social studies and mathematics be taught in Afrikaans (Lemmer, 1995:85). Black learners had to master difficult subject content in languages other than their L1. This policy directly led to the Soweto uprising in 1976, resulting in the disruption of education for a whole generation of Black learners. When the government finally reversed this decision under tremendous pressure from the Black community, parents, for the first time, had the freedom to choose the Mol for their children from the Fourth Grade. In 1991, the De Klerk government took a step closer to democracy and allowed White government schools to enrol learners of all races, leaving the decision on Mol to the parent body of each school (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:171-179; Lemmer, 1995:84-85). The language options they could choose from were:

- *straight* for the long-term Mol from the first year at school, which could be L1 or L2;
- *sudden transfer* from L1 to L2, after the fourth year at school;
- *gradual transfer* from L1 to L2 during the first four years at school.

Parents from the Black communities were overwhelmingly in favour of *sudden transfer* to English after the fourth year at school (Lemmer, 1995:85).

The South African history cannot be undone, but it is clear that the country's language policies complicated the provision of education in the past. Currently, the core ideological aims of democracy, racial tolerance, human rights, and peaceful conflict resolution enshrined in the South African constitution, are guiding educational reform, and emerging educational policies aim to rectify the wrongs of the past and focus on the needs of society (Le Grange, 2002:36; Cele, 2001:182; Gumbo, 2001:240; Harber, 1999:7).

In the transformation process of South African education, language in education has become a key issue (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:172; Alexander, 1995:37; Harlech-Jones, 1990:91). The South African government realises the importance of language proficiency and consequently the Department of Education (DoE) has announced that language instruction (development) will be one of the main components of the new education curriculum (Curriculum 2005). This is a refined curriculum following recommendations by the Chrisolm Commission. A further revision of Curriculum 2005 resulted in the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (RSA, 2002:2). A decision was made that English will be introduced gradually to learners from Grade R to Grade Three, with compulsory English teaching from Grade Four onwards (Sarinjeive; 1999:130; Peirce & Ridge, 1997:172). The MoI in all governmental secondary schools will be English, with the exception of Afrikaans-medium schools. To gain entrance to a university in South Africa, it is currently required of students to pass a school-leaving examination in English as first or additional language (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:173). This language policy adopted by the government is reflected in Figure 1.1.

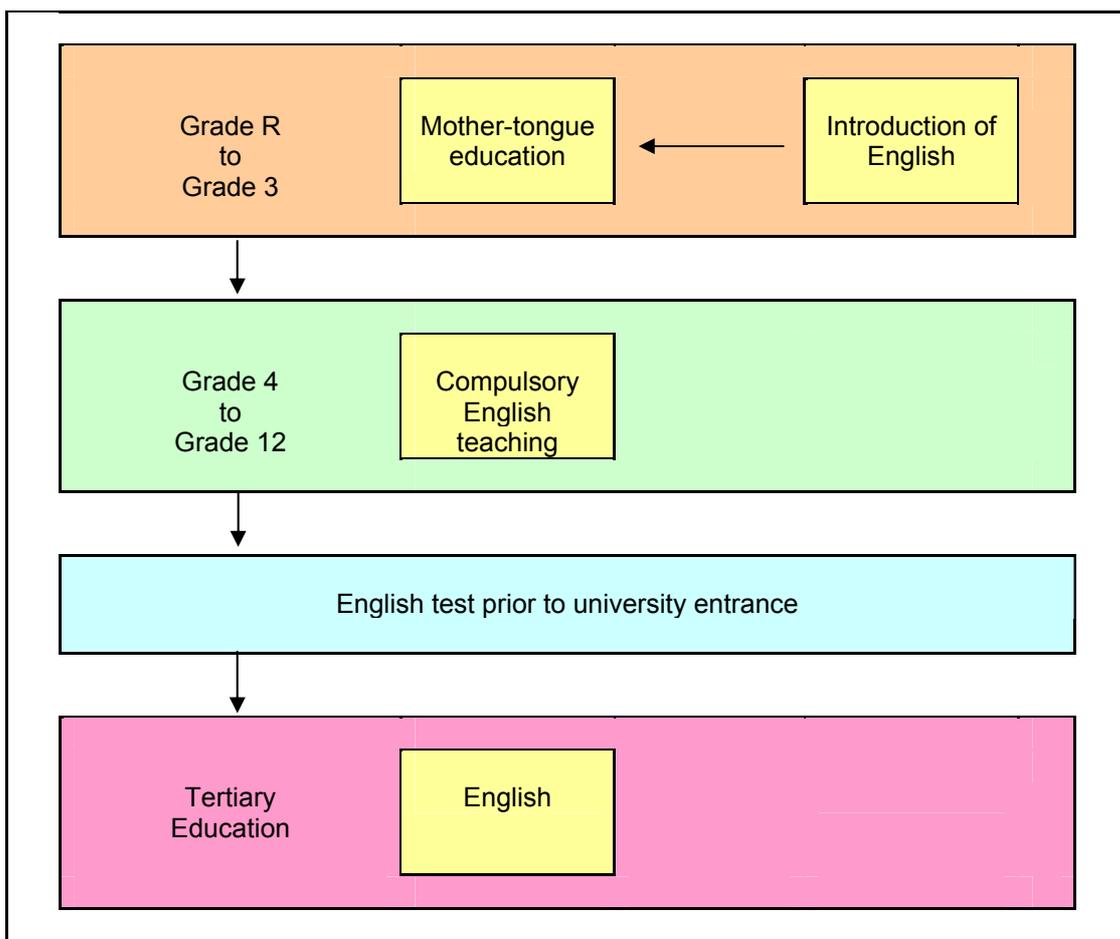


FIGURE 1.1: LANGUAGE POLICY ADOPTED FOR BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN LEARNERS

Sources: Sarinjeive, 1999:130; Peirce and Ridge, 1997:172; Macdonald, 1991:53.

Figure 1.1 indicates that English (as Mol in schools) seems to be a reality for South African learners. An interesting trend currently emerging is that more and more non-English parents or caregivers are selecting English preschools and primary schools for their children (Lemmer, 1995:89; Jordaan, 1993:11). Learners are consequently forced to cope with ELoLT from their preschool years (Jordaan, 1993:ii). Sarinjeive (1999:138) described this decision of parents or caregivers as hardheaded resistance to the common sense of L1 education. Researchers, for example Heugh (2005), have warned that three years of English acquisition before the learners' sudden transfer to ELoLT in Grade Four are not enough to acquire sufficient skills in English to use it as

Mol. Some ELoLT learners' academic progress may therefore be impeded by their poor linguistic abilities.

It is clear that multilingualism is a challenge, not only in the South African context, but across the globe. South Africa, with eleven official languages, presents a unique context and can contribute to the global debate on multilingualism. As a result of the former apartheid regime, and in contrast to the developed countries, the Black *majority* language communities are seeking recognition, as opposed to *minority* language groups internationally (LANGTAG, 1996:218). To address the demand for local solutions, extensive research on multicultural education in South Africa is currently under way (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121). Although international research results on bilingual education supply a useful framework, these results need to be tested under local conditions before application (Lemmer, 1995:90). South Africa can undoubtedly learn from educational practices implemented in developed countries, as well as developing African countries, but application once again needs to be selective and adaptive (Harber, 1999:3).

The learners and families served in urban South African preschools reflect the cultural and linguistic diversity of the nation. To allow the optimal development of multilingual preschool learners, all professionals involved in education need to be prepared to meet the learners' diverse developmental, cultural, linguistic, and educational needs. The challenge to everyone involved in education lies in seeking solutions to local problems. In the light of global trends over the past decade, speech-language therapists, as members of the educational support team, need to participate actively in the quest for information on multilingualism in South Africa. They need to increase their knowledge and explore their role in addressing the demand for answers in this field. This is also the focus of the current study.

1.3 THE ROLE OF SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPISTS IN THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Although ASHA (ASHA, 1998:24; ASHA, 1983:24) issued a position statement in 1983, clarifying the association's viewpoint on speech-language therapists' role when serving multilingual clients in the USA, the South African Speech-Language and Hearing Association (SASLHA) only published guidelines regulating local speech-language therapists' intervention with multilingual learners 20 years later (SASLHA, 2003). These guidelines clearly indicated that speech-language therapists need to get involved in the language acquisition of multilingual learners.

Traditionally, speech-language therapists in South Africa have had two professional functions in the preschool setting, namely direct intervention, as well as consultation and training (Du Plessis, 1998:53; Venter, 1998:4). Jordaan (1993:2) recommended that the role of speech-language therapists in the acquisition of English be consultative in nature, in other words it needs to be a role in which knowledge is shared (Du Plessis, 1998:13). However, this consultative role in the educational support team needs to be defined to determine the specific responsibilities of the speech-language therapists in supporting the multilingual preschool learner acquiring ELoLT (Prelock, 2000:217). Speech-language therapists have the training and knowledge to assist multilingual preschool learners in acquiring language-learning skills in English. Simon (1994:127) stated that speech-language therapists can make a contribution to language learning even without being proficient in the learner's L1, because they are familiar with language acquisition methodologies and knowledge of the *process* of language acquisition is much more critical when assisting the learner to move from total reliance on L1 to learning the L2. Jordaan (1993) conducted research on language intervention by speech-language therapists in facilitating the acquisition of ELoLT by preschool learners in the South African context and established that speech-language therapists can indeed accelerate preschool learners' acquisition of English (Jordaan, 1993:iii).

Since L2 development, assessment, and intervention are acknowledged professional functions of speech-language therapists (Venter, 1998:v), it is widely accepted that speech-language therapists are the ideal educational support professionals to intervene in the process of language acquisition by preschool learners. A comprehensive knowledge of language development in young children and intervention strategies to facilitate the process of language acquisition (Jordaan, 1993:2) provide speech-language therapists with the expertise to offer focused language stimulation (Jordaan, 1993:180). Apart from understanding the nature of language and the interaction between a child and his or her environment (Jordaan, 1993:2), speech-language therapists also have specific skills and are trained to support the preschool teacher, as one of the team members, in structuring the language curriculum according to the needs of the learners. According to Wadle (1991:277) and Elksnin and Capilouto (1994:259), these skills are:

- The ability to focus on language to help team members and parents or caregivers develop insight into the influence of language on school performance and social behaviour;
- The ability to do task analyses that enable team members and parents or caregivers to determine the required skills and prior knowledge for the task;
- The awareness of and insight into individual differences in preschoolers that can be shared with team members and parents or caregivers to facilitate the development of preschool learners;
- The knowledge and experience of activities which motivate preschoolers to take part in activities, as well as the use of exciting and challenging techniques to realise aims;
- The ability to organise, adapt to situations, and be flexible.

(Compiled from Wadle, 1991:277; Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994:259.)

These skills, combined with the speech-language therapist's expertise in language development and language impairment, may be utilised in the preschool classroom to facilitate multilingual preschoolers' development of English. Given their specialised store of information and their skills, as well as their clinical sensitivity to psycho-social factors that may influence the learners' development (Gerber, 1987:108), speech-language therapists are in a position to assist preschool teachers in structuring the learning environment to encourage the acquisition of ELoLT (NAEYC, 1996:8). This assistance may also expand the knowledge base and skills of preschool teachers on the whole process of L2 acquisition.

The professional expertise of speech-language therapists may also contribute to prevent academic failure and improve the academic performance of the learner acquiring ELoLT. Such intervention will focus not only on teaching basic communication skills, but also on the learners' acquisition of the complex cognitive language skills necessary for academic learning. The skills required for reading and writing, including the ability to understand the contents of the material, are regarded as higher level academic skills and need to be developed. Speech-language therapists may further intervene by improving weakness in language learning skills, including auditory processing problems, problem solving and the ability to follow sequenced instructions (NAEYC, 1996:8). Improving these language learning skills could accelerate the acquisition of ELoLT, intercept potential academic difficulties, and eliminate inappropriate classifications, such as *learning impaired* or *developmentally delayed* – classifications that often result in the placement of learners in inappropriate service settings.

Speech-language therapists' involvement with multilingual preschool learners may stimulate important collaboration between the professions of the speech-language therapist and the preschool teacher (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003:128). Collaboration needs to include components such as consultation, role release, cross-disciplinary intervention, and support (Coufal, 1993:2). These are all characteristics of the transdisciplinary model of team

functioning, which is generally regarded as the most suitable model for service delivery by speech-language therapists, as discussed in Chapter Four.

Figure 1.2 illustrates an approach towards the acquisition of ELoLT in South Africa that may guide the speech-language therapist, as documented in the literature (Heugh, Siegrühn Plüddemann, 1995: vi).

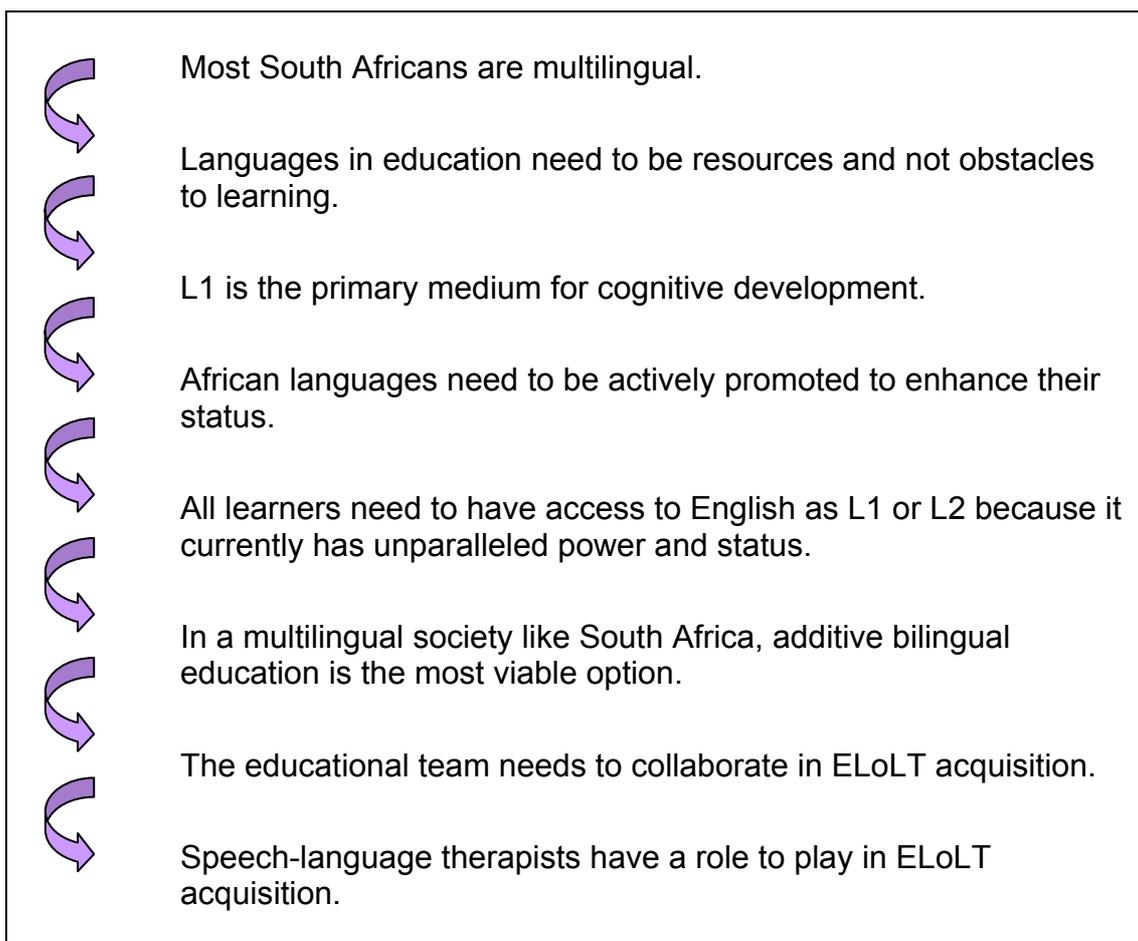


FIGURE 1.2: SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE PROPOSED APPROACH TOWARDS ELoLT

Based on: Heugh, Siegrühn and Plüddemann (1995:vi).

In response to the call of the DoE for all professionals involved in ECE to respond passionately and effectively and work together in fulfilling the educational needs of young learners (RSA, 2001a:18), the current research was initiated to understand the role of the speech-language therapist in support of urban preschool learners and teachers in the acquisition of ELoLT,

based on the approach outlined in Figure 1.2. Since urban preschools have been identified as the context of the research, a discussion of the South African preschool context is justified.

1.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN URBAN PRESCHOOL CONTEXT

It is currently often the case in South African communities that many young learners are placed in English preschools without any prior knowledge of English. Life for these learners entering a new preschool environment may be complicated as they are obliged to communicate and learn in an unfamiliar language while being isolated from their communities and culture (NAEYC, 1996:5). Furthermore, teachers have observed that the behaviour of these learners often affects class activities and discipline. Some learners may appear to be fluent in English, but are unable to understand and express themselves as competently as their English-speaking peers (NAEYC 1996:8; Lemmer, 1995:89). These multilingual preschoolers need to be managed appropriately to develop adequate English language skills, not only for communication but also for learning.

Preschool teachers have a demanding task in preparing multilingual preschoolers for formal schooling in English, and in addition they are pressurised by parents or caregivers who expect their children to be fluent in English by the time they enter primary school (Calitz, 1990:20). All preschool teachers, however, have not been trained in the theories of L2 acquisition (Lemmer, 1995:88; Nieman, 1995:297). To complicate classroom management even further, preschool teachers also have to cope simultaneously with English First Language preschool learners in the same classroom (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:2). A situation thus exists where preschool teachers are required to teach on different language levels to individual learners in the same class. This may demand specific *language input* planning apart from their lesson planning, for which they may require support from specialists with knowledge on language acquisition in children.

According to Lemmer (1995:88), some teachers have sufficient knowledge of African languages to provide additional support to multilingual preschool learners by making use of code-switching or code-mixing. The situation becomes more complex when English is the only language of instruction to the multilingual preschool learners who are in the initial stages of ELoLT acquisition, when their English proficiency is often limited. Furthermore, many of the preschool teachers in South Africa teach in English without being fully proficient in English themselves (Lemmer, 1995:88). This creates stress, both on emotional and physical levels (Diedricks, 1997:46), and often leads to teachers feeling incompetent and unsure, especially when they have to solve language problems in isolation, rendering the educational process less effective (Ashton & Webb, 1986:92). It is therefore essential that the language teaching needs of preschool teachers be addressed by educational support professionals, such as speech-language therapists, to prevent academic failure when multilingual learners enter primary school.

In 1991, when White governmental schools in South Africa accepted learners from all races, the majority of teachers in English-medium schools in South Africa were caught off guard by the diverse language situation in their classrooms (Barkhuizen, 1993:269). Rapid political and demographic changes forced teachers to adapt to new situations (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:174). Currently preschool teachers are still facing the challenge of becoming knowledgeable about and learning to relate to learners from linguistically and culturally different backgrounds. The sudden and abrupt transition from the learners' L1 to English is a major problem that they need to address urgently. In the course of displaying creative problem-solving skills and implementing their own strategies (Diedricks, 1997:46), preschool teachers often express the need for additional input and support, as well as specific educational strategies (Soto, 1991:32), which may be provided by, among others, speech-language therapists already working in urban preschools.

More than a decade ago, it became apparent that new material, methods, and programmes were needed to meet the needs of the multilingual learners

(Burleigh, 1994:51), for which purposes existing educational material and practices could have been adapted (Nieman, 1994:15). Progress in the development of teaching materials and programmes has, however, been slow and the problem has escalated as the number of multilingual learners in schools are increasing. Owing to limited educational funding in South Africa, teachers have to experiment with scarce resources in complex linguistic situations. As this lack of teaching and learning material and poor ELoLT proficiency of learners generally have reduced the teachers' morale (Mafisa, 2001:35), solutions need to be found that include the establishment of pathways to accommodate the acquisition of English (Bosman, 2000:225; Lemmer, 1995:88). Nieman (1994:16) recommends that experts with the appropriate knowledge to ensure informed decisions and solutions, support preschool teachers in the task of teaching English. Such experts, like speech-language therapists, need certain important skills apart from academic knowledge, especially the ability to interact with the preschool learner (Nieman, 1994:14).

Educators, specifically preschool teachers, face numerous challenges when teaching multilingual learners. The following research problem was formulated to investigate the role of speech-language therapists in support of these teachers.

1.5 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND RATIONALE

Over the past decade parents or caregivers have increasingly enrolled Black learners in South African urban preschools where English is the only Mol in the school. The abrupt change from L1 to English instruction has created a challenging environment for both learner and teacher. From discussions the researcher had with preschool teachers in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area during workshops, it became obvious that several preschools were struggling to prepare multilingual preschoolers for formal schooling in English. The learners' language deficiencies were reported as being a major obstacle to school readiness. The preschool teachers expressed feelings of frustration because they could not complete their daily educational programmes and they

were also concerned about the multilingual learners' academic performances and future. The teachers requested advice and support to respond effectively to the language needs of the multilingual preschool learners, and specifically requested intervention guidelines for the initial stages of the multilingual learners' acquisition of ELoLT. From these conversations, it was evident that the multilingual preschoolers acquiring ELoLT experienced difficulties on three levels: vocabulary (both receptive and expressive), syntactic structures, and communicative skills (especially pragmatic skills). It was in this unexplored multilingual context that a need was identified for speech-language therapists to make their expertise available to the multilingual preschool learners as well as to their preschool teachers. The current research was initiated in response to these needs of this specific community.

The exploration of the role of the speech-language therapist in the acquisition of ELoLT in the specific community is necessary to guide the training and practice of speech-language therapists. Such information will provide empirical evidence to facilitate the clinical implementation of service delivery to multilingual preschool learners. The purpose of this study was therefore to explore the existing situation and to interpret current opinions and perceptions in order to guide speech-language therapists towards the fulfilment of their role in the urban multilingual preschools. Contextual information on urban preschools will enable the speech-language therapists to take appropriate and innovative action, as and when their services are required.

The ultimate aim of the study is first, to describe the specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area in order to explain the local context, second, to describe the language needs of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT, and third, to explore the role of speech-language therapists in support of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners in the acquisition of ELoLT.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

An exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design, implementing the quantitative perspective, was selected for the purpose of the study.

In the descriptive survey, two survey techniques were employed, namely a questionnaire and a test battery in a checklist format (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:185;186). The questionnaire was employed to collect information and investigate perceptions of preschool teachers on the acquisition of ELoLT, and the test battery (checklist) was employed to collect data on the language and communication characteristics of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

The research was conducted over three phases. Phase One determined the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners from the preschool teachers' perspective, Phase Two determined the language and communication proficiency in ELoLT of multilingual preschool learners from the speech-language therapist's perspective, and Phase Three explored the role of speech-language therapists in ELoLT acquisition.

Multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside areas were selected as the research context in response to a request from the preschool teachers in these areas for support and intervention guidelines. As the research was conducted in a demarcated geographical area and because of the small scale of the research, the findings were not generalised to the general population (Fetterman, 1998:29).

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The researcher selected the following frequently used terms and defined them according to their specific use in the study.

Speech-language therapist

The term *communication pathologist* is often used internationally to describe the profession of the speech-language therapist and audiologist. In South Africa the distinct terms *speech-language therapist* and *audiologist* are more common, whereas the term *speech therapist* is often used in the educational context (Du Plessis, Hugo & Soer, 2000:320). For the purpose of this study, the researcher selected the term *speech-language therapist* when referring to the profession of the communication pathologist.

Preschool

Two main types of ECE centres exist in South Africa, where the public (or government) centres are subsidised by provincial governments and independent centres are financially independent (RSA, 2001a:13). The term *preschool* includes both these categories and refers to schools that provide ECE programmes for learners aged three to six years.

Preschool learner and preschooler

In South Africa children may be placed in ECE centres from infancy. ECE centres or preschools may accommodate infants up to the age of three or, alternatively, children between the ages of three and six years. Both these age groups may also be accommodated in one centre, but different programmes are followed with each age group. Legally learners have to enter primary school the year in which they turn seven, setting the age limit for preschool learners at six years. The term *preschool learner* or *preschooler* thus refers to a young child between the ages of three and six years, attending a preschool centre.

Preschool teacher

Teachers at public or government preschools often have specialised formal training in ECE. At independent preschools, principals may employ teachers without this specific educational qualification. In this study, the term *preschool teacher* refers to the person teaching at a preschool centre to preschool learners. The preschool teacher may or may not have formal training to teach preschoolers.

Mother tongue (L1)

The term *mother tongue* (L1) has been used synonymously with concepts such as *first language* and *primary language*. *Mother tongue* refers to the first language the child has learned, usually from the parents (LANGTAG, 1996:219; Venter, 1998:5). Educators tend to use the term *first language* when referring to the mother tongue. In the South African context, the term *primary language* may also be used to include both the mother tongue and the dominant language of the immediate community (Heugh, Siegrühn & Plüddemann, 1995:viii). In this study, the researcher selected the term *mother tongue* to indicate the dominant language spoken at home.

Additional language (L2), Multilingualism, and English as language of learning and teaching (ELoLT)

The term *additional language* (L2) is frequently used in education in South Africa. The language acquired after L1 development is generally referred to as a *second language*. In this study, the term *additional language* is preferred over *second language* as used internationally, since Black communities in South Africa often acquire more than two languages. An *additional language* may therefore be the second or third language of the speaker.

In keeping with the preceding discussion, *multilingualism* is preferred over *bilingualism*, as the latter does not accurately describe the South African

situation for the majority of the population. *Multilingualism* implies proficiency in two or more languages (LANGTAG, 1996:219; Heugh *et al.*, 1995:vii). The degree of proficiency may, however, vary from full proficiency in more than one language to a minimal degree of proficiency in one of the languages (De Klerk, 1995:53; Lemmer, 1995:92). In this research project, *multilingualism* therefore needs to be interpreted as the inclusion of two or more languages alternatively as medium of communication in different situations (Hoffman, 1991).

The terms *English second language* and *limited English proficiency* are familiar concepts from international literature in reference to non-English learners, but do not adequately describe the needs of Black learners attending English-medium schools in South Africa. The term *English as Language of Learning and Teaching* (ELoLT) was selected as it describes the situation in the South African context more accurately. The term will assist the researcher in this study to conceptualise the specific needs of learners and teachers alike (Lemmer, 1995:89).

Medium of Instruction (Mol)

Although the terms *Medium of Instruction* (Mol) and *language of learning* have been interchangeable in South Africa since 1993, neither term includes both the teaching and learning components of education (LANGTAG, 1996:218; Heugh *et al.*, 1995:vii). As a result of the language diversity in South Africa various languages are spoken on all school premises. Teachers may even use more than one language to communicate with learners, especially during explanations, provided they have sufficient knowledge of the learners' L1. Every school, however, has a specific language for formal communication and instruction. In this study, *Medium of Instruction* (Mol) refers to the official language used in schools to pass on information from the teacher to the learner (Heugh *et al.*, 1995:vii).

Code-switching and code-mixing

There are important distinctions between the terms *code-switching* and *code-mixing*. *Code-switching* occurs when one switches from one language to another between utterances or for part of an utterance that consists of at least one sentence (Heugh *et al.*, 1995:vii). *Code-mixing* refers to the *borrowing* of words from an L2 in an utterance (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:73). Both these terms are used to describe the switching between languages, which is characteristic of multilingual language use (Hoff, 2004:411).

1.8 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations will be used in the study:

ASHA	American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CBD	Central Business District
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
DoE	Department of Education
EAL	English as Additional Language
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECE	Early Childhood Education
ELoLT	English as Language of Learning and Teaching
GDE	Gauteng Department of Education
IEP	Individual Education Plan
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
ITPA	Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968)
KLST	Kindergarten Language Screening Test (Gauthier & Madison, 1998)
LANGTAG	Language Plan Task Group
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
L1	First language or mother tongue

L2	Additional language
Mol	Medium of Instruction
NAEYC	National Association for the Education of Young Children
NCESS	National Committee on Education Support Services
NCSNET	National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
PANSALB	Pan South African Language Board
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SASLHA	South African Speech-Language-Hearing Association
SD	Standard Deviation
TACL-R	Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language – Revised (Carrow, 1985)
TALK	The Project for the Transfer of African Languages
USA	United States of America

1.9 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is presented in the following format:

CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Chapter One serves as an introduction to the study. The rationale for the study is provided and the research problem formulated. The justification and significance of the study are highlighted and relevant terminology is defined. An overview of the content of each chapter is given.

CHAPTER 2: THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING: THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

In Chapter Two a review of the literature relating to additional language acquisition is provided. Relevant issues relating to the South African context

are discussed. An overview of different approaches, as well as individual and external influences in the acquisition process, is given.

CHAPTER 3: MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOL CONTEXT

Chapter Three focuses on the importance of language proficiency for learning in the early academic phases of schooling and highlights the challenges of learning in an L2. The role-players involved in the acquisition of ELoLT during the preschool years are discussed, with special attention to their individual roles.

CHAPTER 4: COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS IN AN INCLUSIVE APPROACH TO THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

Chapter Four discusses the collaboration between speech-language therapists and preschool teachers against the background of interactions in an eco-systemic model, inclusive education, and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS). Consultation in a collaborative approach to intervention is described.

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY

Chapter Five defines the research methodology of the study. It contains a description of the aims of the study, the research design, and the research phases. The participants, material and apparatus, research procedures, data recording, and data analysis procedures are described and the validity and reliability of the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter Six provides the results of the study. An overview of the results is presented by means of tables and figures. The results are interpreted, evaluated, and compared to other research, and conclusions are reached.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

Chapter Seven provides the conclusion to the study. The final conclusions, recommendations, and implications of the study are highlighted and recommendations for further research discussed.

REFERENCES

A list of references used in the study is presented.

APPENDICES

The appendices supply additional information to support and improve insight into the research. The following is included: questionnaire; initial letter to teachers; follow-up letter to teachers; informed consent letter to parents; error analysis form; example of transcribed elicited language sample.

1.10 CONCLUSION

In accordance with *The rights of young children* (RSA, 2001a:39), which states that young children have the right to *appropriate* language stimulation, the DoE announced in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:39) that educators have to employ developmentally appropriate practices to meet the language needs of learners at their particular stage of development. The classroom context, therefore, has to be constructed to meet the language needs of learners (Cele, 2001:190), which implies that an appropriate language curriculum should be presented in class (LANGTAG, 1996:27). In the *multilingual preschool classroom*, however, the needs of multilingual preschool learners

and preschool teachers have to be addressed. Consequently, it may be necessary for education support professionals to support the teachers and the learners. As speech-language therapists have the knowledge and training to support multilingual preschool learners and preschool teachers, they may become important role-players in the acquisition of ELoLT if they could determine and address the needs in specific educational contexts.

1.11 SUMMARY

This introductory chapter acts as justification for the study. The imminent probability of English becoming the international *lingua franca* and global trends towards multilingualism were discussed. The importance of proficiency in English to gain access to higher education levels in South Africa was highlighted. A need for collaboration among role-players in education was identified, while speech-language therapists are requesting the recognition of their skills in order to be part of the solution. The aim of the study was formulated to meet the challenge on contextual level, providing data on learners and educators in a specific context in order to assist preschool teachers in supporting the development of ELoLT in multilingual preschool learners. The chapter was concluded with an outline of the chapters and a definition of terms.

CHAPTER 2

THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING: THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Oddly enough, for a function so basic to being human, research into exactly how language works, and how it is acquired, is full of theories, some more plausible than others, and very few facts indeed (Barter, 1994:35).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide the main objective of education in any democratic society is to provide each learner with a quality education that enables him or her to become a literate, productive member of society (RSA, 1997:11). However, in a country like South Africa where the current school population is both multicultural and multilingual, achieving this goal proves to be challenging.

Although English is the mother tongue (L1) of only 8.6% of the South African population (De Klerk, 2002a:3), and the larger part of the school population represents language backgrounds other than English, it nevertheless is becoming increasingly dominant in education (Lemmer, 1995:83). In many South African classrooms, English is the L1 of neither the learner nor the teacher (Bosman, 2000:221).

The poor proficiency in English of Black learners is an area of great concern to educators. Some believe that the learners' command of English is totally inadequate to deliver results and that Black learners often fail school examinations purely because of this (Bosman, 2000:225; Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5). The learners' lack of English language skills

inhibits both their understanding and expression (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; Sarinjeive, 1999:132). This results in poor academic achievement and learners not meeting national standards, from Grade One throughout all the important academic transitional phases, namely the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior Phases, up to Grade Twelve (RSA, 2000:15). The learners' poor proficiency in English is generally viewed as one of the contributing factors to the current unsatisfactory matriculation results of South Africa's Black learners (Bosman, 2000:221).

Even on tertiary level, the students' academic performance is influenced by their poor command of English. Sarinjeive (1999) conducted a study on the popularity of English among students despite their poor academic performance in English. Alarming, results indicated that Black students at a South African university in their third year still struggled to master English and were unable to formulate even simple coherent sentences in English. Linguistic inadequacies, therefore, often limit the Black learners' opportunities to higher education. Since language is such a crucial means by which to gain access to higher levels of knowledge and skills (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:41), proficiency in English should already be addressed on preschool level and not be postponed until tertiary education centres have to intervene (Cele, 2001:189).

In White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a), it is acknowledged that the early years of a child's life are critical for the acquisition of language. Preschool educators agree that the most important focus of the learners' early education, centres on language (Shuy, 1972:203). When learners enter preschool at the age of three, they have usually acquired the basic communication skills in their first language (Stobbart, 1992:22). During the preschool years learners learn to communicate informally and interpersonally about concrete objects (Renton, 1998:33). The informal tuition approach of the preschool, where learners learn through play, creates the ideal context in which to improve these communicative abilities (Nieman, 1995:266).

The acquisition of L1 skills usually proceeds smoothly for most learners in the preschool years (Jordaan, 1993:1). The optimal age for the acquisition of English as an additional language (EAL) is, however, a more controversial issue. Some researchers argue that young learners acquire an additional language (L2) slower than older learners, but tend to be more proficient than learners who have acquired an L2 after childhood (August & Hakuta, 1998:10). To prevent *double half-literacy or semilingualism*, researchers suggest that English as L2 should not be introduced before L1 has been well developed and mastered by the learner (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:125; Sarinjeive, 1999:130; Lemmer, 1995:91). Viljoen and Molefe (2001:125) share the opinion that learners who are proficient in L1 will acquire English as L2 more readily and be more proficient in English than learners with poor language skills in L1. Many researchers regard the preschool years as the optimal period for L2 acquisition (Jordaan, 1993:11), as it is easy to follow language in the highly contextualised situations of the preschool environment (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:10). However, preschool learners who are usually in the process of acquiring their L1 need support to continue to develop L1, while they acquire the L2 (Jordaan, 1993:18).

The informal preschool years of language acquisition are followed by the stage where language is used for learning (Owens, 2001:381, 197; Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:4). During this stage, primary school learners need to develop the academic language required for cognitive tasks and discussions and to grasp abstract concepts in class (Renton, 1998:33). According to Brice and Perkins (1997:13), a learner in the formal school situation is required to understand the exact meaning of long utterances by teachers, spoken over a short period of time, without many opportunities to ask for clarification or help during instruction. Primary school learners who are not in full command of the English language may not possess the necessary language skills for formal learning and may experience difficulties understanding the instructions. The current situation in South African schools is such that learners who are in the process of acquiring English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT), increasingly attend English primary schools, where they have to think about ideas and solve problems in English. This may create academic and

emotional problems if the learners are not proficient in English (Diedricks, 1997:1).

All learners who come into contact with English for the first time in preschool may experience some degree of difficulty. To be able to support, understand, and accelerate the process of ELoLT acquisition by preschool learners, decision makers and role-players need to be informed about the process. This chapter aims to discuss certain aspects of the acquisition of ELoLT in South Africa, to provide a coherent framework of the South African context. It is important to review ELoLT acquisition in South Africa, as the discussion will provide relevant information as baseline for the current empirical investigation into the role of the speech-language therapist in ELoLT acquisition.

2.2 ENGLISH AS PREFERRED LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING BY THE SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION

By promoting multilingualism, the current Government of South Africa has, by implication, committed the present and future generation of South Africans to the process of acquiring additional languages. The overall response of the majority of Black South Africans to multilingualism in the new South Africa is the acceptance of ELoLT and the rejection of L1 as medium of instruction (Mol) in schools. Black parents or caregivers usually make the decision on Mol for their children on preschool and primary school levels. During the later school years, teachers and learners are often included as additional decision makers. On tertiary level, however, students have to accept the language policy of ELoLT for higher education followed by the South African government.

Two studies, by De Klerk (2002a) and Sarinjeive (1999), illustrate that ELoLT strongly appeals to Black parents or caregivers and students alike, and are described forthwith.

De Klerk (2002a) investigated the reason why 194 Xhosa-speaking learners were sent to English schools in the Grahamstown area from their preschool

years. The reasons why parents or caregivers in the research project decided to send their children to ELoLT schools are summarised in Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1: REASONS FOR PLACEMENT DECISION

REASON FOR PLACEMENT IN ENGLISH-MEDIUM SCHOOL	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
Need for better education in more stable environment	More <i>meaningful</i> education free from problems in Black schools
English is the international language	Learners prepared for modern world with cultural awareness, tolerance, communication with other groups
Need to give learners a better chance in life	Learners able to be financially better off than parents/caregivers
English will open the door to more job opportunities	Equip learners with competitive edge and ability to speak the language of the workplace
English is vital for educational success in general	Learners able to understand other subjects and pass future exams in English
Prestige of English	Higher status of learners able to speak English
Social advantages of English	Learners will become assertive and confident
Want learners to be able to mix with English and L1 speakers	Learners must not be embarrassed when speaking English
Closer geographical proximity to an English school	Learners must assimilate into English-speaking Western culture

Source: De Klerk (2002a:6-7).

According to Table 2.1, the parents or caregivers desired the learners to master English. Many of these parents or caregivers could not speak English themselves, but expected the learners to become fluent in English. The parents or caregivers based their placement decision on the overwhelming approval by family members (42%) and teachers (24%) of their decision, as opposed to only 8% of the parents or caregivers who reported that people tried to persuade them from enrolling the learners in English-medium schools. The parents or caregivers were prepared to go to great expense to provide the learners with an English education. Although some of these parents or caregivers were economically advantaged, the financial cost of their decision was high, also taking into account the additional expenses needed to support the learners, such as buying extra books and paying for extra lessons (De Klerk, 2002a:7).

In the second study, Sarinjeive (1999) attempted to determine why English was so popular among Black students at the University of Vista, despite the students' poor academic performance in English. Ninety percent of the students preferred ELoLT, as opposed to only a small percentage who would have preferred L1 instruction. Although these students typically used their L1 outside the classroom, they wanted to be fluent in English in order to achieve future goals, such as economic empowerment (Sarinjeive, 1999:133). English was clearly regarded by these students as a prestigious language. It was evident that these students accepted ELoLT at tertiary level and supported the decision (often reached by parents or caregivers on their behalves as young learners) to choose English as Mol.

In contrast, Bosman (2000:226) advocates the need to educate the decision makers on the role of language in learning as the teachers, parents or caregivers, and students are not always well-informed, and their opinions on ELoLT, though important, are often based on emotional and political beliefs. One of Bosman's (2000:225) main concerns is that ELoLT is not delivering the desired results, and she regards the popularity of English to be the major obstacle to L1 instruction. She recommends that Black communities be informed about the benefits of L1 instruction and educated about the intrinsic and academic value of African languages. Black learners may still receive bilingual education, with ELoLT being introduced at some stage during pre-tertiary education (during the General Education and Training - GET- phase), but at no cost to L1 (Bosman, 2000:225).

From the opinions reviewed above, the consensus appears to be that L1 education alone is not sufficient and that all South Africans need to have access to a language with broader communication functions, enabling interaction in all spheres of life - social, political, economic and educational. Exclusive L1 education may increase the social distance between the various groups of people in South Africa and may also provoke tension and conflict between the different language groups (Gumbo, 2001:241). Furthermore, South Africans cannot afford to isolate themselves globally as far as culture and technology are concerned. The electronic media, internet, arts, cinema,

and popular music expand and enrich the learners' world and offer limitless opportunities for personal growth. English has emerged as the most likely international *lingua franca* (Cunningham, 2001:201, 208; Smit, 1993:159) and holds tremendous potential for unity, freedom of movement, co-operation, travel, and economic development (Smit, 1993:159), the latter being of great importance to the future of South Africa. To reach long-term economic goals, South Africa needs foreign resources and intellectual capacities. Such international interdependency requires people to be able to communicate in English.

Despite the increasing awareness of the importance of L1 in South Africa, the *status quo* – with English as preferred LoLT – needs to be managed effectively. The commitment to ELoLT necessitates language planning in education to include language *acquisition* planning, especially the planning of the acquisition of ELoLT, which is addressed in the next section.

2.3 THE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION PROCESS

Languages are powerful resources available to speaking individuals (Makin et al., 1995:xxiv). The following overview sheds light on the language acquisition process.

2.3.1 The acquisition of ELoLT

Since the 1950s, numerous research studies on learning and thinking have led to the development of many perspectives and theories, and dramatic changes in educational pedagogy. Outstanding examples are Ausubel's Cognitive Learning Theory, Piaget's Maturational Stages in Cognition, Roger's Humanistic Approach, and Vygotsky's theories on the connection between socialisation, language, and learning (Meyers, 1993:24). In the Communication Pathology discipline, models of language development have moved towards a holistic concept of language learning, and currently the perspectives of Owens (2001:67) are endorsed.

According to Owens (2001:67), the language learning skills of children are not isolated from the rest of their mental growth. Language, thought, and meaning are interrelated, and therefore the acquisition of language is crucial to ensure cognitive development in children (NAEYC, 1996:4; Makin, Campbell & Diaz, 1995:xxix). A child's ability to use language is a critical factor in the learning process, as language is viewed to be a tool for learning. A child needs language to describe, explain, and enquire about his or her environment (Owens, 2001:67). Young children learn through language by using meaningful social activities to interact with their environment (Makin et al., 1995: xxix). The holistic approach considers the child to be continually interactive with the environment. This interaction between the child and his or her environment is conceptualised as concentric circles and is visually presented in Figure 2.1.

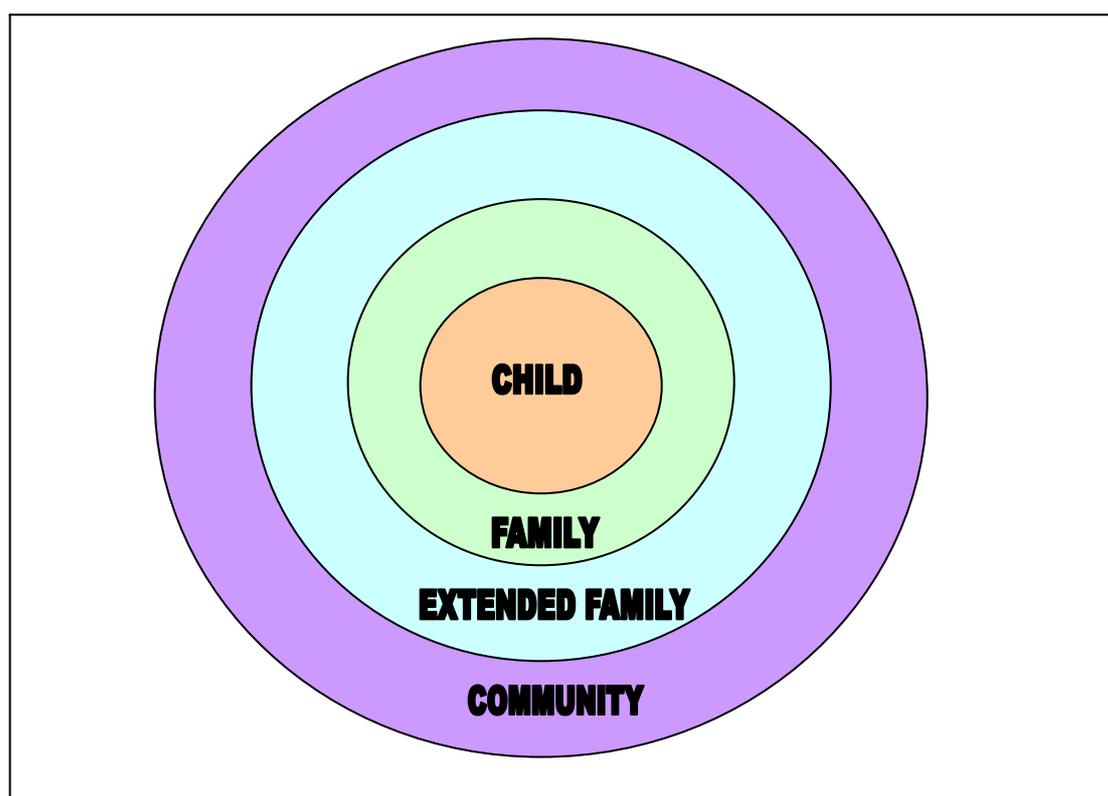


FIGURE 2.1: SOCIAL INTERACTION BETWEEN CHILD AND ENVIRONMENT

Figure 2.1 illustrates that personal relationships form the matrix within which a child's language learning takes place. Adults become role-players in this

learning experience by verbalising the child's experiences and providing input in language acquisition activities (Makin et al., 1995:xxix). They do not actively teach language, but facilitate language acquisition through their behaviour (Owens, 2001:215). This naturalistic approach is currently followed by speech-language therapists.

L2 development follows the same naturalistic approach as described by Krashen in the 1980s, which is the most current approach to L2 acquisition (Meyers, 1993:24). Adults play an important role, not only in the child's acquisition of L1, but also in acquiring ELoLT by responding effectively to the language needs of children. Since language flourishes in a language-rich environment where there are ample opportunities for language development, the amount, as well as quality of exposure, at home and at school, is important. An adequate amount of time spent in both situations while being exposed to grammatically correct English may have a positive influence on the learner's acquisition of ELoLT (Green, 1997:150; Tabors, 1997:82; Makin et al., 1995:45). Families and educational institutions, therefore, need to co-operate in supporting the learners' acquisition of ELoLT.

Ideally, the acquisition of ELoLT needs to be an enriching experience for the preschool learners and educators, as well as the parents or caregivers. The involvement of educators and parents or caregivers implies that they have a responsibility to gain knowledge of the process of ELoLT acquisition, in order to support the learner. It is important that the acquisition of an L2 is a positive process for the preschool learner, as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 illustrates that L1 needs to be supported and given status. By supporting L1 while the learner is acquiring ELoLT, skills are added and the learner's life is enriched in the process. At the time that learners begin schooling in ELoLT, they might incorrectly perceive English as the only language valued by teachers (Makin et al., 1995:46). However, if teachers respect and promote L1, the learners feel supported and can relate more

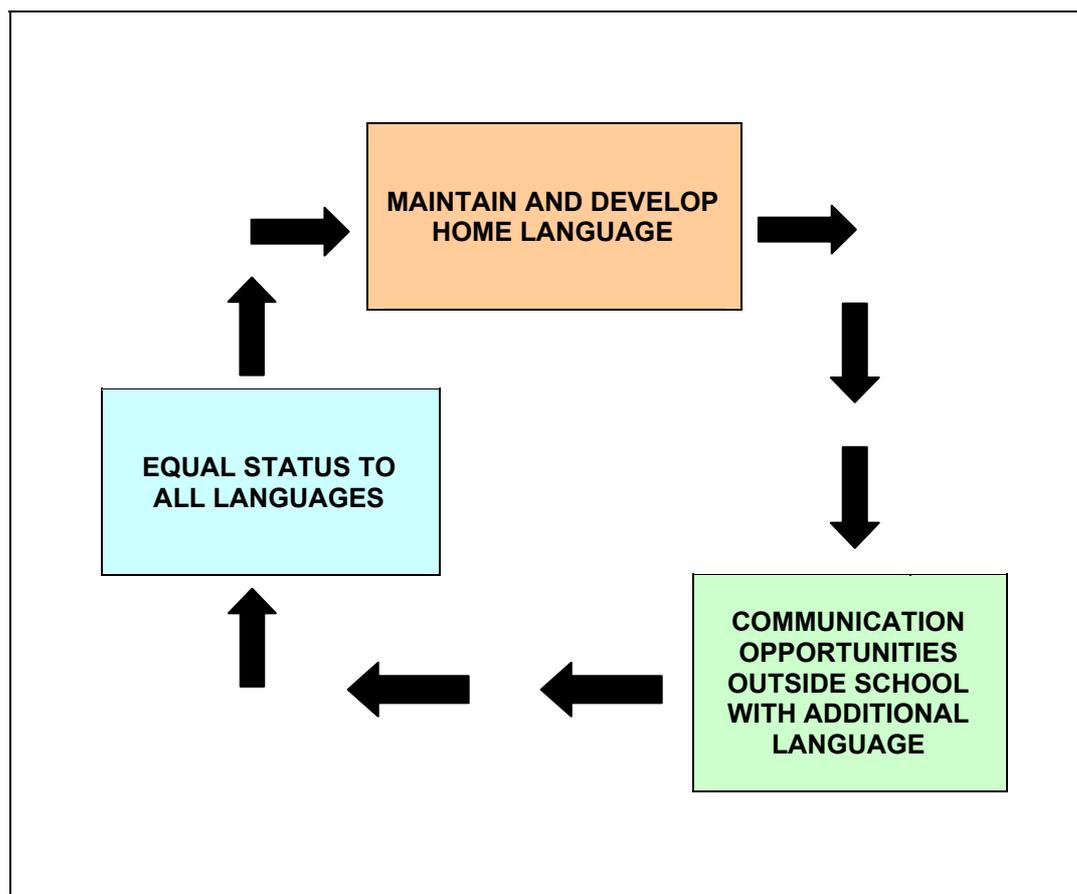


FIGURE 2.2: ACQUISITION OF ELoLT AS A POSITIVE PROCESS

Compiled from: Makin, Campbell and Diaz (1995:52).

easily to the home environment and the educational setting (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:5).

Unfortunately, some teachers and parents or caregivers in South Africa appear to be unaware of the importance of L1 in cognitive development and the acquisition of additional languages (Lemmer, 1995:90). Teachers and other decision makers need to be empowered by providing them with information on the benefits of L1. To develop ELoLT in South Africa, L1 needs to be promoted, maintained, and developed to ensure that the acquisition of ELoLT is an additive rather than a subtractive process. In the next sections, additive versus subtractive multilingualism in L2 acquisition is discussed and the use of code-switching in additive multilingualism, as well as linguistic aspects guiding additional language acquisition, is explored.

2.3.2 Additive multilingualism

Additive multilingualism is the acquisition of, or gaining of competence in an L2 while maintaining L1. This implies that the appreciation and reinforcement of both L1 *and* ELoLT will have a complimentary effect on the learner's cognitive and social development (Lockett, 1993:38). In this regard, Cummin (as cited by Lemmer, 1995:91) suggested that, because of a common underlying proficiency (CUP), learners' proficiency in L1 is transferred to L2. By reinforcing learners' conceptual base in their L1, a foundation will be provided for long-term growth in English skills.

CUP has been successfully applied in the South African context. By employing the process of additive multilingualism in schools, native Afrikaans-speaking learners, as well as immigrant minority language learners (mostly of European descent), have reached relatively high levels of proficiency in English, and are comparatively successful in this medium at school and tertiary level (Lemmer, 1995:91). This outcome may be attributed to the fact that parents or caregivers and learners continued to use L1 at home, in addition to the fact that the learners reached high levels of proficiency and literacy in L1. The Afrikaans-speaking learners attended schools with Afrikaans as Mol, and English was added as a school subject. The immigrant learners acquired ELoLT by attending schools with English as Mol, while maintaining their L1 at home. In this way, English was added at no cost to L1. The same principle could be applied when Black learners acquire ELoLT. If the African languages (L1) are supported and developed and the learners are encouraged to become highly proficient in their L1, ELoLT may build on existing concepts in L1 resulting in both languages being developed.

As project leader of the Threshold Project, Macdonald (1991) propagated a similar approach to the acquisition of ELoLT by young Black learners in South Africa. This project addressed the nature of language and learning difficulties of young Black learners in South African primary schools. Her exploration through this exhaustive trial of the relationships between L1 and L2 literacy, between literacy and Mol, between language ability and cognitive skills, as

well as between teaching styles, classroom materials, and the learning process, is highly regarded and appreciated as the most significant research that has been conducted on language in education in South Africa over the past 50 years (Heugh, 2002:179). Since learners' thinking processes develop more easily in L1, Macdonald (1991:25, 31) recommended that learners be given a foundation for thinking skills by starting off in L1, and once mentally well-equipped, English may be added. Skills and knowledge developed in L1 will be transferred to ELoLT, as L2 will build on the underlying conceptual-linguistic foundation of L1 (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5). She concluded that success in ELoLT seems to be dependent on success in L1.

Macdonald's (1991) approach, however, has some limitations within the South African context. In the rural areas, the teachers are competent in African languages and learners are taught in L1 from preschool up to Grade Four. That means that L1 is developed both at home and at school, resulting in L1 literacy. However, as many teachers in the urban areas are not competent in African languages, learners have only home support of L1 and therefore many of them do not become literate in L1. In the latter case, a good foundation in L1 language skills may still be beneficial to learning skills in ELoLT, by building and adding to L1 skills.

Another noteworthy South African document that echoes the need for additive multilingualism is the *Final Report of the Language Plan Task Group* (LANGTAG, 1996). This task group, under the chairmanship of Alexander, consulted various experts nationally on language policy and language planning in South Africa. The final report presented a culmination of opinions and recommendations on, among others, the country's needs concerning language in education. In the report the promotion of additive multilingualism in South African schools and other educational centres is identified as an important goal (LANGTAG, 1996:26). It is recommended that additional languages be added without replacing L1. The report favoured an equitable balance between access to English and fairness to those who do not know English (LANGTAG, 1996:20). Therefore, to accommodate all learners, they need to be provided with education in the language of their choice. Currently,

L1 education is not the reality in South African education, as most Black learners choose to receive their education in English. In the absence of a realistic alternative, learners need to be encouraged to reach the highest levels of English proficiency in order to aid their academic performance. At the same time, learners need to maintain L1 in their communities and at home to attain the ideal of additive multilingualism.

The sentiments expressed in the LANGTAG report (1996) towards L1, also include recommendations for the development, promotion, and maintenance of L1 to create an awareness of the importance thereof when acquiring ELoLT. According to the LANGTAG report (1996), a climate of value for L1 needs to be created at school and at home, and teaching in L1 needs to be continued for as long as possible while ELoLT is being added. Acquisition planning, therefore, needs to be structured, with the clear goal in mind of transferring to English in Grade Four. Ideally, ELoLT needs to be introduced from as early as the preschool years, gradually increasing the learners' exposure to English as they are adding to their English repertoire and their understanding of ELoLT is growing. A transitional programme may be implemented until the learners' command of English is sufficient for them to be instructed in English. After the transfer to ELoLT in Grade Four, L1 needs to be taught as a school subject to ensure its maintenance and development.

In conclusion, two principles need to be born in mind when ELoLT acquisition in education is planned: the importance of ELoLT needs to be recognised and the retaining of L1 needs to be secured. This may be achieved through the process of additive multilingualism, as opposed to subtractive multilingualism that may occur if L1 is neglected or ignored.

2.3.3 Subtractive multilingualism

It is generally accepted that language loss may occur if the level of proficiency in L1 is not maintained while acquiring L2, that is L2 will gradually replace L1. This phenomenon is called subtractive multilingualism. Subtractive multilingualism implies that, as L2 is learned, skills and fluency in L1 are lost

(Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:513; Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:4; August & Hakuta, 1998:13; Makin et al., 1995:5). In South Africa, LANGTAG (1996:31) voiced its concern that some African language groups like SiSwati, IsiNdebele, SeSotho, XiTsonga and TshiVenda are marginalised, not only by English, but also by the larger African language groups such as IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, SePedi and SeTswana. The danger exists that the former group might lose speakers, as these languages are not predominantly used for communication.

Unfortunately, the probable emergence of an international *lingua franca* has a limiting impact on global linguistic diversity. On all continents, English poses a decided threat to indigenous languages. According to Crystal (2000:19), worldwide one language on average disappears every two weeks. In Australia, the number of languages spoken at the time of colonisation has declined from 600 to approximately 250, with only 4,2% of the population currently speaking non-English languages (Cunningham, 2001:204; Romaine, 1996:580). More recently, the decreasing number of students and teachers of Russian and other indigenous languages of the former communist countries was attributed to the onslaught of English. South Africa has experienced the decline and near language loss of three unrelated groups of Khoesan languages, and currently there are only a few remaining speakers of the Khoi, Nama, and San languages. Another local example of language loss is the Indian languages that survived for decades, but are showing a gradual decline in most recent times. For example, the number of people in South Africa speaking Tamil has dropped from 120 181 in 1951 to 41 030 in 1991 (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:178). When considering that French, one of the major languages of the world, seems to be losing international status under the dominance of English (Cunningham, 2001:203), the threat that English poses for the decline of some South African languages is clear and may lead to South Africans becoming subtractive multilinguals, or even cause language loss.

Language loss seems to follow a classic pattern, where a monolingual community becomes multilingual, followed by a language shift towards

monolingualism in the new language. A full language shift may occur when a cultural group gradually changes its language preference to the dominant language of the community. This shift may take place intra-individually or even intergenerational (August & Hakuta, 1998:17), an example of the latter being the USA, where 53% of the population in 1940 used English as their L1, as opposed to the previous generation where only 25% considered English as their L1 (Romaine, 1996:58).

In South Africa, LANGTAG (1996:31) made a plea for the maintenance of all languages by displaying their importance and usefulness. As an antipode to language loss in South Africa, the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB) was composed to head the promotion of language equity by creating favourable conditions for the development and use of all official languages, including the Khoi, Nama, and San languages, as well as sign language (LANGTAG, 1996:21, 223). A stipulation was included in the Constitution of South Africa that the state needs to develop and maintain these languages. In fact, all African languages need to be developed as they are underdeveloped and in need of modernisation (Cele, 2001:188; LANGTAG, 1996:26). Modernisation needs to include vocabulary elaboration, as well as the development of technical and academic vocabulary, to provide L1 speakers and learners and educators with functional languages (Jordaan, 2003; LANGTAG, 1996:21). Modernisation, including new terminology, is an ongoing process in all languages. In the South African context, it is important to modernise languages in order to retain the speakers of marginalised African languages.

PANSALB faces the challenge of changing people's perception that the African languages have no intrinsic value, economic worth, or academic prestige. To promote African languages, the development and promotion of Afrikaans may serve as an example of how a language was supported with great success in the South African context. Afrikaans, although branded *the language of the oppressor* by some South Africans at one time, has developed from an indigenous and subordinate language into an official language, and has since been recognised as a language of education and

science. It is now a fully developed modern language with important social standing, an established literature, widely circulated magazines and newspapers, and a community of speakers who use it as L2. In addition, it is recognised as a valuable national resource (Luckett, 1993:53). The promotion of Afrikaans continues, and it is of interest to note that there is currently an aggressive movement to defend and develop Afrikaans in order to ensure continued recognition under the new South African dispensation (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:179).

The task of PANSALB to address the development of African languages is of critical importance to Black learners in SA. Black learners are at risk of becoming subtractive multilinguals if sufficient opportunity for L1 usage is not provided after the transfer to ELoLT in Grade Four (Lemmer, 1995:89). In the event that schools do not support L1 skills, causing L1 to deteriorate, and ELoLT skills do not develop sufficiently, the result may be *double half-literacy* or *semilingualism*, and learners may wrongly appear to be slow (Romaine, 1996:595; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:161). If learners are taught exclusively in English and it replaces L1 completely, negative consequences may be suffered, such as the loss of confidence, social isolation, as well as the potential loss of identity and the feeling of belonging to a community (Makin et al., 1995:51). The loss of L1 may even result in the disruption of family communication patterns and the loss of intergenerational wisdom, including cultural traditions, values, and attitudes as the values, beliefs, and needs of a community are reflected in its language (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:15; Makin et al., 1995:101). Without language no transfer of culture between generations is possible, as parents or caregivers communicate to their children the cultural values that underlie language. In this way, L1 is tied to the learner's culture, and loss of L1 may lead to the loss of significant social relationships and cultural knowledge and information.

This section illustrated that L1 needs to be supported by the community, as well as the educational system, to prevent subtractive multilingualism. Parents or caregivers need to encourage L1 usage at home and educators need to *allow* and *encourage* L1 in informal discussions *inside* and *outside*

the classroom to support the maintenance of L1. At school, code-switching needs to be allowed as a positive force in maintaining multilingualism and preventing language loss.

2.3.4 Code-switching as teaching strategy in additional language (L2) acquisition

Educators have the responsibility to prepare learners for the future, and to be successful in their task, they have to incorporate certain teaching approaches and strategies, as well as modifications, in their presentations. One of the challenges that faces teachers in South Africa is to use language creatively in the multilingual classroom, and code-switching may be one method of experimenting with language.

Code-switching refers to the switching from one language to another over phrases or sentences (Lawrence, 1999:266; Zulu, 1996:105; Heugh et al., 1995:vii), as opposed to *code-mixing* that can be defined as switching for individual words from one language to another in one utterance (Owens, 2001:433; Lawrence, 1999:266; Zulu, 1996:105; Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:73). Romaine (1989:186) made a distinction between code-switching, where a certain level of language competence is needed, and code-mixing as it occurs in the early stages of language acquisition. She attributes the mixing of languages in the latter situation to language interference, transference, and universals. In the literature, both phenomena are often grouped under the term code-switching.

Historically, code-switching has been viewed as a sign of inadequacy or inefficacy on the part of the speaker owing to a lack of education, laziness, bad manners, and improper control of languages (Lawrence, 1999:265; Romaine, 1996:599; Zulu, 1996:104). In South Africa, code-switching has been disapproved of by certain multilinguals themselves, as well as by schools and education departments (Peires, 1994:15). Over the past decade, however, researchers have debated the use of code-switching internationally and nationally. Many researchers challenged the view that code-switching

lowers communication standards and highlighted its potential in the teaching and learning process. The literature increasingly reflects the view that code-switching is normal, useful, and widely used in the discourse of multilinguals. (Lawrence, 1999:266; Peirce & Ridge, 1997:174; Zulu, 1996:104; Peires, 1994:15).

Code-switching is progressively more prevalent in the public and social life of multilingual and multicultural South Africa. It is also reflected in the South African classrooms where many of the learners are from multilingual backgrounds (Zulu, 1996:108). PANSALB commissioned a survey to determine the incidence of language mixing in South Africa, in which 64% of the respondents denied that they used code-switching, whereas 36% admitted to the practice. Of this latter group, 45,3% code-switched to Afrikaans or English when using their L1, 47% mixed an African language with their L1, and 4% used more than one South African language with their L1 (MarkData – PANSALB, 2000). It is, therefore, particularly true in the South African context that code-switching is a phenomenon displayed by more than a third of the population.

Although both adults and children use code-switching, older multilinguals appear to have control over the amount of code-switching in their communication. Code-switching in adults appears to be influenced by contextual, situational, and personal factors, and is used more frequently in informal communication situations between people with shared interests (Zulu, 1996:108). Multilingual learners also mix languages for their own purposes. They will often code-switch between class and playground, or revert to L1 when they feel threatened (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124), and even when they want to exclude adults from their conversations (Hoff, 2004:353; Heugh, 2002:189). According to Heugh (2002:188), children from Africa and India, who are usually multilingual, have a remarkable ability to negotiate their way around multilingual neighbourhoods, using code-switching and code-mixing in their communication. It appears that learners in multilingual situations draw on their language sources by code-switching to accommodate

each other. It may in fact be a strategy for effective communication (SASLHA, 2003:2).

In the ongoing debate on the use of code-switching as teaching strategy for ELoLT acquisition in South Africa, the one viewpoint that features prominently in the literature, is that code-switching may be used as a tool in learning (Lawrence, 1999:266; Peirce & Ridge, 1997:174; Zulu, 1996:104; Peires, 1994:15). Code-switching in the classroom may lead to better understanding and communication with ELoLT learners and prevent communication breakdowns between teachers and learners. However, if teachers are to employ code-switching in urban ELoLT classrooms in South Africa, they need to learn African languages. Bearing in mind that South Africa has 11 official languages, and that, theoretically, all of these languages may be represented in a single classroom, the language learning task of the teacher becomes overwhelming.

An organisation called *The project for the Transfer of African Languages* (TALK) ran courses in the nine official African languages of South Africa, and reported a great deal of interest from teachers in these courses from 1994 to 1997, when South African schools became heterogeneous. Since 1997, however, the interest from teachers has unfortunately waned (Murray, 2002:115). One might speculate that this may be attributed, on the one hand, to the learning of so many diverse languages becoming too overwhelming, or, on the other hand, to teachers starting to cope in multilingual classrooms through the employment of successful teaching strategies.

Teachers who want to employ code-switching as teaching strategy in their classes, but cannot code-switch themselves, may employ peer-tutoring (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:83). Peer-tutoring is a promising coping strategy for teachers of Black learners in urban South African schools, by which individualised help may be provided to learners in a large group. Learners are involved to assist in conveying the teacher's instruction, or summarise the lesson in a structured manner, by code-switching to the L1 of fellow learners. Usually peer-tutoring is done on a one-to-one basis, but can also be

effectively employed in small groups (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:83; 84). A report that revealed how this form of code-switching may be used in the South African classroom to build upon the strength of L1, was published by Kamwangamalu and Virasamy in 1999. They described how teachers at a former *Indian* school in Durban used peer-tutoring as transitional strategy to communicate with IsiZulu-speaking learners. In this secondary school, learners with English as L1 and learners with ELoLT were placed in the same classroom. As the teachers could not code-switch to IsiZulu themselves, learners proficient in ELoLT and with IsiZulu as L1, assumed the role of surrogate teacher. They acted as intermediaries between the teacher and ELoLT learners by explaining the learning content in IsiZulu to the learners, as well as relaying answers in English to the teacher. The researchers observed how peer-tutoring motivated previously passive learners to communicate and participate in class activities (Kamwangamalu & Virasamy, 1999:64). These results prove that, through peer-tutoring, L1 may be a resource in an English-only environment where teachers do not have sufficient knowledge of the learners' L1.

The exact developmental function of code-switching is unknown. It is, however, known that the behaviour is not random and does not reflect an underlying language deficit (Owens, 2001:433; 343). Code-switching by multilingual speakers is currently accepted and recognised as a teaching strategy in ELoLT classrooms. This presents a challenge to teachers as peer-tutoring has to be planned and incorporated in the classroom activities. Another challenge to teachers is to ensure that learners master Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), as well as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), both being required for authentic language proficiency, as discussed in the following section.

2.3.5 Linguistic aspects of additional language acquisition

It is now generally accepted that *proficiency in English* should be qualified as either language proficiency needed for interpersonal communication, or language proficiency required for academic tasks (Viljoen & Molefe,

2001:121; August & Hakuta, 1998:14). *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills* (BICS) in ELoLT learners are estimated to take approximately two years to develop and allow learners to communicate through English in everyday situations. This type of language tends to be used in relation to personal matters, real objects, and present events, and includes the *visible* aspects of language like pronunciation, basic vocabulary and grammar, to converse fluently in undemanding situations. These skills are, however, not sufficient for academic success as they do not include the academic language needed for cognitive tasks (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121; Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; Lemmer, 1995:90; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:43). Besides the social language skills provided by BICS, an ELoLT learner also needs to acquire academic language skills in English to succeed in a school environment with English as Mol.

According to Roseberry-McKibbin and Brice (2000:5), learners take approximately five to seven years to develop *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP), which is the required proficiency in any language to grasp academic concepts for learning and achieving at school. As this type of language is contextually reduced, learners require CALP to use English on a higher level of abstraction. It includes the ability to hypothesise, compare, contrast, and explain (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; Lemmer, 1995:90; Makin et al., 1995:47; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:41).

In South Africa, some learners acquiring ELoLT face the challenge of developing BICS and CALP in English simultaneously within the school context. It is emotionally demanding for ELoLT learners to acquire CALP and to master academic content at the same pace as English L1 learners, and this may be the reason why some ELoLT learners lag behind their English-speaking peers.

Currently, many ELoLT learners in South Africa have acquired BICS in English and can communicate adequately in everyday conversation, but struggle with CALP when there is little context-embedded language to support them. This indicates that these learners have not yet reached the language

proficiency levels required to learn in English (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121). It is often incorrectly assumed that these learners have language disabilities when, in fact, they are only displaying a BICS/CALP gap (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5-7). The number of years needed to acquire BICS and CALP is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

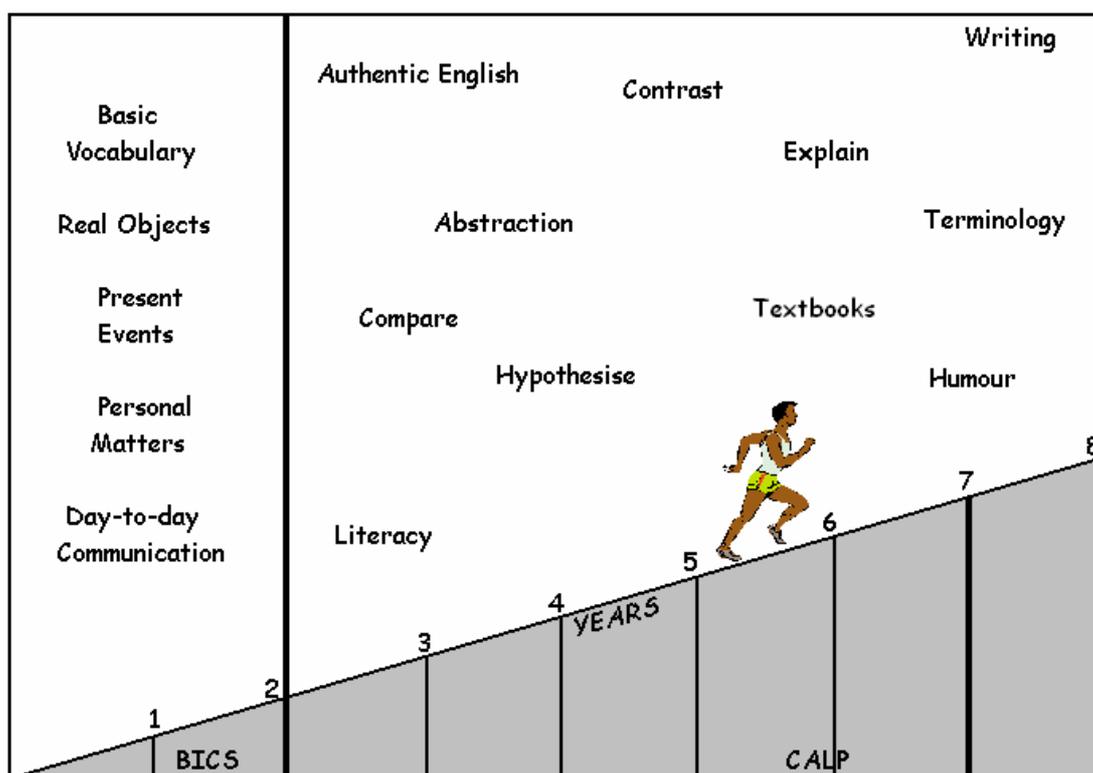


FIGURE 2.3: NUMBER OF YEARS REQUIRED TO REACH BICS AND CALP LEVELS

Source: Meyers (1993:15).

Figure 2.3 illustrates that the acquisition of English may present a challenge to learners acquiring ELoLT in South Africa, as the time available to gain CALP before the learners transfer to English in Grade Four is limited. CALP differs markedly from BICS used in everyday spoken interactions and is more difficult to master. In addition, it is even more challenging for ELoLT learners to transfer CALP to literacy skills, as literacy in the multicultural class implies the mastery of technical vocabulary, various genres of writing, the language of

textbooks, and comprehension and writing skills required for assessment (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:46).

One of the main concerns of Baker (1993:12) regarding the BICS and CALP classifications is that such terms label and stereotype learners. He is of the opinion that these terms over-simplify the reality, where language competence consists of a larger number of dimensions. He stresses that adults and learners gradually increase in language competence rather than in sudden achievements (Baker, 1993:12). The distinction between BICS and CALP (as illustrated in Figure 2.3) does, however, seem to fit the ELoLT learner in South Africa, where learners appear to be fluent in ELoLT but cannot cope with the curriculum in English. They may develop conversational English and be able to converse adequately on a social level, appearing to be fluent, but they struggle with CALP and have difficulties in subjects with little context to support the language being heard or read (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42).

To assist ELoLT learners in developing BICS and adequate CALP before the transfer to English in Grade Four, teachers have to add ELoLT skills to L1 skills in the rural areas of South Africa, or to support ELoLT as well as L1 skills in the urban areas. The introduction of compulsory Grade R education, as envisaged by the Department of Education (DoE), would allow another year for the acquisition of BICS and CALP. Black parents' or caregivers' choice of ELoLT for their children from preschool years needs to be respected, and these additional years may be used to develop the language skills required for academic learning in the primary school.

As described in this section, parents or caregivers, as decision makers, and all other role-players in ELoLT acquisition need to be guided through the acquisition process to understand the importance of L1 maintenance, the value of code-switching as tool in ELoLT acquisition, the very important distinction between BICS and CALP, and the linguistic demands of academic learning. By being aware of these factors, role-players may be able to support the multilingual learner acquiring ELoLT more appropriately.

However, role-players, need to be aware that these are not the only important factors in ELoLT acquisition. In the following section, additional factors influencing the process are discussed.

2.4 INFLUENCES ON ELoLT ACQUISITION IN SOUTH AFRICAN LEARNERS

Jordaan (2003) stated that L1 acquisition is enviably consistent in comparison with the erratic and idiosyncratic variability in additional language acquisition. Why is there such a considerable variation in the rate at which learners acquire ELoLT, and why do some learners attain only a minimal level of BICS and CALP even after having attended English schools for a number of years? Certain factors appear to affect the acquisition process and influence the rate of acquisition. Researchers divide the factors that influence L2 acquisition into two main categories, namely individual influences and external influences (Jordaan, 2003; De Klerk, 2002b:20; August & Hakuta, 1998:14;15; Tabors, 1997:79-82; Makin et al., 1995:56; Jordaan, 1993:22-27; Cole, 1983:26). In the light of the current problematical situation in South Africa regarding critical levels of ELoLT needed for academic achievement, these two aspects are reviewed to gain insight into factors influencing the acquisition of ELoLT.

2.4.1 Individual influences

There are definite individual influences or characteristics of learners determining the rate at which they acquire ELoLT (Hoff, 2004:350). Tabors (1997:84) points out that individual influences on learners are contributing factors which will determine each learner's approach to the acquisition process. These individual influences or characteristics appear to be interrelated, although their importance varies for each individual learner. As the individual influences have been researched extensively and are well documented, a summarised overview of these influences is presented in Figure 2.4.

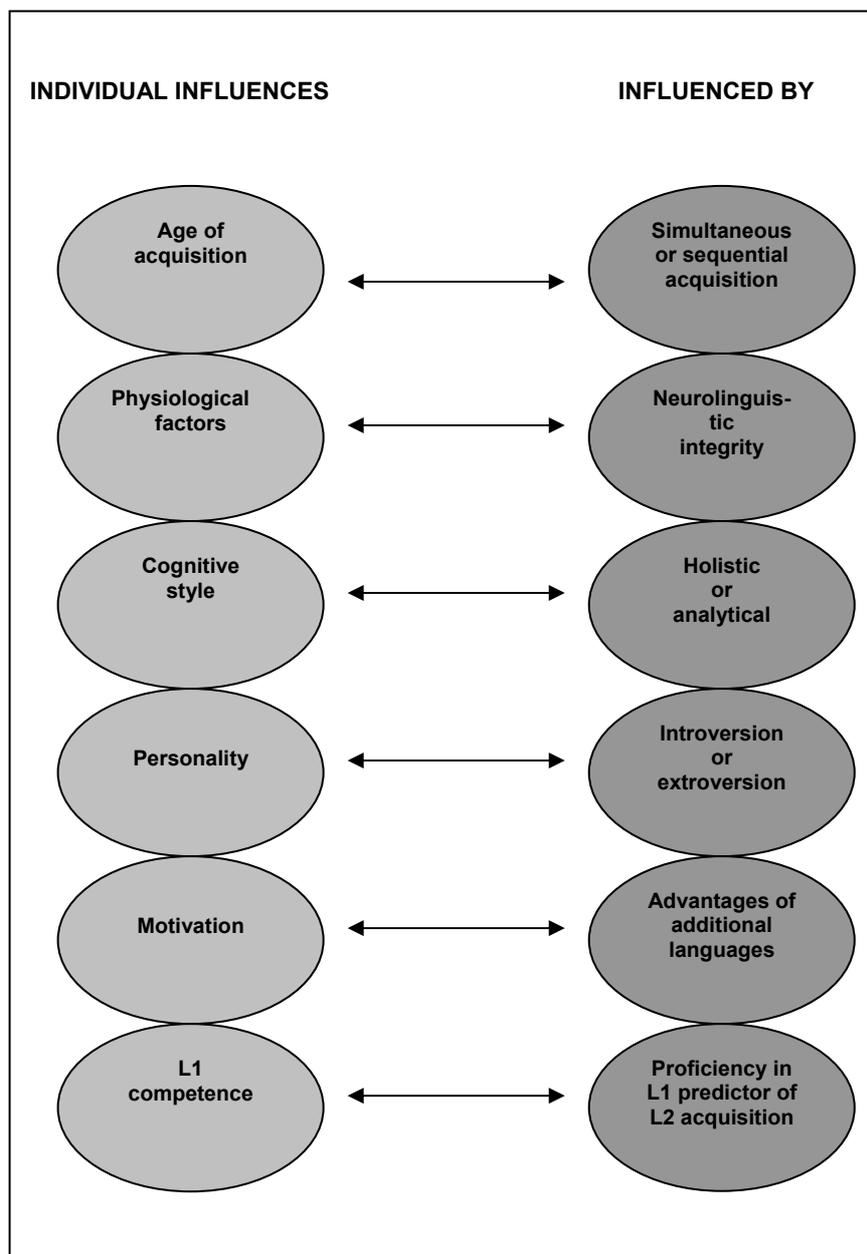


FIGURE 2.4: INDIVIDUAL INFLUENCES ON L2 ACQUISITION

Sources: Jordaan (2003); De Klerk (2002b); August and Hakuta (1998); Tabors (1997); Makin, Campbell and Diaz (1995); Jordaan (1993); Cole (1983).

The individual influences depicted in Figure 2.4 are generally accepted as predictors of proficiency in L2 acquisition. These factors interact in complex ways to influence the rate of L2 acquisition. In the South African context, the optimal age for the acquisition of ELoLT is one of the important individual

influences identified, as most of the South African learners will be confronted with ELoLT during their school years.

The optimal age for L2 acquisition is a controversial issue. Many researchers support *the earlier the better* approach (De Klerk, 2002b:20; Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:10; Cole, 1983:26). The assumption is that, similar to L1 acquisition, the critical period hypothesis of learning a language before the age of twelve is also valid for L2 acquisition (August & Hakuta, 1998:15; Cole, 1983:26). There is, however, no consensus that younger learners acquire an L2 easier, and with a higher level of proficiency, than older learners. Tabors (1997:12, 83) argues that L2 acquisition can be undertaken at any age. He believes that the two important variables at any age are cognitive capacity and cognitive demand. Although the cognitive capacity of older learners is better developed for the cognitive challenge of L2 acquisition, the cognitive demand on them is much higher than on the preschool learner. Preschool learners are not required to use sophisticated language and their utterances are usually accepted without too much criticism of their language abilities, which means that the cognitive demand on preschool learners is lower. In the South African context, multilingual preschoolers may, therefore, appear to have sufficient English language skills for formal schooling in English, but in reality may not have the more sophisticated language proficiency needed for formal schooling.

However, when young learners acquire an L2 with more ease than older learners, it seems to be linked to the simultaneous development of L2 with L1 from birth. *Simultaneous acquisition* refers to the exposure of a child to more than one language from an early age - usually from birth (Tabors, 1997:9-10; Makin et al., 1995:39). As a result of the multilingualism of the South African environment, many families choose to expose their children to more than one language from birth. In this way, all the languages develop simultaneously. According to Sadiki (2002:10), it is commonly found in Black communities in South Africa that more than one language is spoken at home, and that all the spoken languages develop equally. It appears that children growing up in such multilingual environments have an impressive ability to interact

appropriately when communicating with individuals speaking diverse languages (Makin et al., 1995:44). Romaine (as cited by Makin et al., 1995:40-42) identified six types of multilingual situations that might occur in families. A summary of these multilingual situations is provided in Table 2.2.

All the situations depicted in Table 2.2 exist in the South African context and in some cases it is impossible to identify a dominant L1. In the South African research described earlier (MarkData - PANSALB, 2000), results indicated that 35,4% of the respondents use more than one language at home. Of this group, 91% of the respondents indicated the use of one L2, while 8% indicated the use of two or more L2s at home. It is suggested that some individuals in South Africa may have a set of languages, each used in a different context. Children who grow up in such multilingual environments may develop language proficiency in all the languages they are exposed to from birth. In the Black communities of South Africa, it is often the different African languages that develop simultaneously from birth. Although multilingualism is regarded as an asset in the South African multilingual environment, the simultaneous acquisition of more than one language needs to be monitored carefully. It appears that the rate of development of more than one language simultaneously may be the same as in the case of the monolingual child. Early exposure to more than one language may, however, lead to *double half-literacy* or *semilingualism*, in other words a failure to reach proficiency in any of the languages (Owens, 2001:431; 432). Role-players need to monitor the acquisition process to prevent the latter, as semilingualism may have a very negative impact on the learner's future.

TABLE 2.2: TYPES OF MULTILINGUAL SITUATIONS

TYPE	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE
Type one: one person - one language	Parents/caregivers each speak a different L1 with some competence in each other's language. The dominant language of community is spoken by one parent/caregiver	Father L1: IsiZulu - IsiZulu to child Mother L1: IsiXhosa - IsiXhosa to child Community: IsiZulu
Type two: non-dominant home language with community support	Parents/caregivers each have a different L1 and one L1 is also the dominant language in community. Parents/caregivers both speak non-dominant language at home and child is exposed to dominant language at educational programme	Father L1: Afrikaans - Afrikaans to child Mother L1: English - Afrikaans to child Community: English - English at school
Type three: non-dominant home language without community support	Parents/caregivers have the same L1 which is not dominant in the community. Children do not attend any educational programme and have no exposure to community language	Father L1: German - German to child Mother L1: German - German to child Community: Afrikaans - No exposure to Afrikaans
Type four: double non-dominant home language without community support	Parents/caregivers each speak their own L1. None of these languages is dominant in the community. Children do not attend any educational programme and have no exposure to community language	Father L1: Italian - Italian to child Mother L1: Spanish - Spanish to child Community: English - No exposure to English
Type five: non-dominant home language with dominant-language parents	Parents/caregivers are both multilingual. One language is dominant in community. One parent/caregiver speaks dominant language and one parent/caregiver non-dominant language to children	Father L1: English - Portuguese to child Mother L1: English - English to child Community: English
Type six: mixed languages	The different languages spoken by the parents/caregivers and the multilingual community are both used. Parents/caregivers are multilingual and code-switching occurs	Father L1: Afrikaans - Afrikaans and English to child Mother L1: English - Afrikaans and English to child Community: Afrikaans and English

Source: Romaine (as cited by Makin, Campbell and Diaz 1995:40-42).

When English is added as an L2 subsequent to L1 development, it is referred to as sequential acquisition. *Sequential acquisition* is the process that is set in motion when all the basic components of L1 are in place, often when a learner is around five years old (August & Hakuta, 1998:12), or, alternatively, when a learner enters an educational or care centre (Makin et al., 1995:49). Not only Black families in South Africa, but also White families with an L1 other than English serve as examples of how English may be added

sequentially to L1. The current phenomenon in South Africa of parents preferring to place learners at preschool or primary school levels in English schools results in a sudden transfer to ELoLT. During this phase of sudden transfer to English, learners need as much support as possible from teaching staff (Macdonald, 1991:29).

In summary, individual influences affect the rate at which an L2 is acquired. While researchers fervently debate the optimal age for ELoLT acquisition, parents or caregivers in South Africa have to make a choice between simultaneous or sequential acquisition of languages for their children. However, as knowledge about L2 acquisition multiplied over the past 30 years, researchers, both internationally and locally, established that external factors also play an important role in acquiring an L2. A discussion of some of these external factors relevant to the South African context follows.

2.4.2 External influences

External influences, or the social environment that learners are exposed to, affect the acquisition of an L2 and need to be examined in the unique South African situation. Problems and issues facing South African learners acquiring ELoLT differ markedly from those in developed countries. A wide variety of socio-economic contexts exists within South Africa. White learners from middle-class backgrounds are often introduced to school-like experiences from early childhood, and their parents or caregivers are involved to enhance learning, as opposed to Black learners who may come from a variety of backgrounds - from middle-class families to illiterate homes, from elite suburbs to informal settlements (Lemmer, 1995:92). It is estimated that 40% of young learners in South Africa are subject to conditions of poverty and neglect (RSA, 2001a:5). In the lower socio-economic milieu, learners are often deprived of home support for learning.

Many learners come from poverty-stricken backgrounds and suffer from malnutrition (Harber, 1999:5). As a result of deprivation and poverty, learners from disadvantaged communities often already lag behind in L1 development

(Jordaan, 1993:23). These learners may not have the spoken-language skills in L1 that are required to develop reading and writing skills (Locke, Ginsberg & Peers, 2002:3). Some of these learners suffer from protein-deficient malnutrition, and such undernourishment may cause a lack of concentration, affecting the ability of the learner to engage appropriately in the learning process (RSA, 1997:13). Feeding schemes are often necessary for these learners to facilitate effective education (Harber, 1999:6). A further complication is the pandemic of HIV/AIDS in South Africa, which may affect both parents or caregivers and learners. Many learners have to deal with chronic illnesses resulting from the disease, or with the loss of a family member. In addition, myths about HIV/AIDS and misconceptions associated with the disease have caused many learners to be excluded from attending schools (RSA, 1997:14; 15; RSA, 2000:10). The question arises whether L2 acquisition could progress sufficiently in such circumstances.

Learners from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds may display general linguistic deprivation. They are often deprived of a critical level of home literacy necessary to support success in school (Hoff, 2004:401; Harris, 2003:81). If the parents or caregivers are illiterate and there are no books available at home, the early patterns of literacy which support the development of ELoLT are inconsistent and cannot support the school's input. This situation is of great concern, as limited literacy has a negative impact, not only on the learners' success in school, but also on their overall well-being and competitiveness in society (Hammer, Miccio & Wagstaff, 2003:21). To put South African literacy in perspective to the rest of the Southern African region, a literacy map of adult literacy in Southern Africa is presented in Figure 2.5. Although it is difficult to determine exact levels of literacy (as data are limited and definitions of literacy vary), an indication of literacy is provided in the map (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:176).

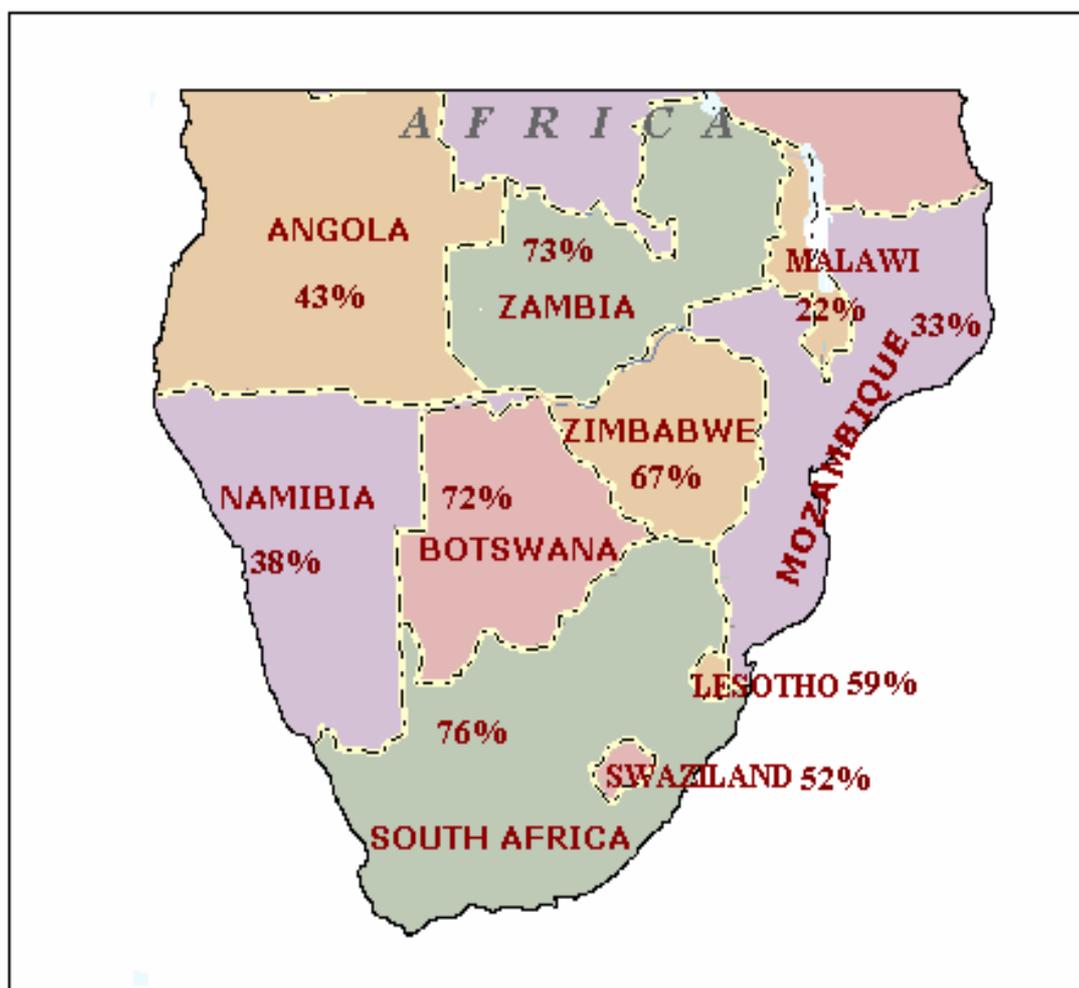


FIGURE 2.5: LITERACY MAP OF SOUTHERN AFRICA

Source: Peirce and Ridge (1997:176).

Although literacy in South Africa is the highest in the region (76%), according to Figure 2.5, a large section of the population is still illiterate (24%). As children of illiterate parents or caregivers may not be supplied with books, magazines, and newspapers at home, a poor culture of learning is sustained in many households (Bosman, 2000:221). This affects learners adversely, as those who do not make the breakthrough into literacy during the first two or three years of schooling are at an academic risk throughout their formal school years (Makin et al., 1995:169). Chang and Lia (as cited by Cheng, 1996:350) investigated the home interactions of Cantonese learners acquiring EAL in the USA. They found that parents or caregivers were so exhausted after work and occupied with their household chores, that they were unable to support their children through any literacy or linguistic enhancement of EAL.

Lemmer (1995:91) revealed that the same situation exists in South Africa, where the majority of Black parents or caregivers are, unfortunately, unable to support the acquisition of ELoLT after school. Teachers of learners from illiterate backgrounds have to find ways of presenting literacy as purposeful and meaningful to learners. The challenge is to provide all learners with optimal levels of literacy experiences that engage and motivate them. This may entail research to investigate the parents' or caregivers' options on how to enhance literacy at home, and to investigate improved practices in preschool programmes to provide the most advantageous learning environment in both settings. The latter is addressed in the current empirical investigation.

Not only the home, but also the community has an external influence on ELoLT development. It is commonly held that the quantity of exposure to English is important for improved proficiency. However, societal factors that influence the development of L2 include the quantity *and* quality of exposure to English. Unfortunately for Black South African learners, the neighbourhood and wider community may not provide them with many opportunities to hear or practise English (Lemmer, 1995:91). As many of the parents or caregivers and community members may not be proficient in English, or may have been taught by an L2 speaker of English themselves, the learners are often exposed to a less than ideal model of English (De Klerk, 2002b:21). In the rural areas of South Africa, the teachers, too, often do not have sufficient exposure to English and consequently may lack the necessary proficiency in English for effective teaching (Bosman, 2000:221; Diedricks, 1997:46; Lemmer, 1995:88). It is speculated that teachers may often revert to their L1 (African languages) during instruction because of their tentative command of English (and not to use code-switching as a tool in English acquisition). This limits the quality of ELoLT input.

Another external factor influencing the quality of exposure to English is the diverse forms of English used by teachers. Learners in urban areas may find it difficult to follow the English as spoken by native English-speaking teachers, not being used to the accents and nuances (Lemmer, 1995:91). South

African English as used by South African speakers, on the other hand, is largely undocumented. Sarinjeive (1999:131) observed (in his study on Black students at Vista previously discussed) that the written language of students is developing more towards their own language than towards Standard English. South African English appears to be developing its own vocabulary, and even grammatical adjustments are made to the Standard English form. Teachers are therefore often at a loss as to how to evaluate and correct errors made in written work (Lemmer, 1995:92). It is clear that exposure to diverse forms of English may affect language acquisition, and the interference of African languages in the production and understanding of English needs to be recognised, lest learners be incorrectly labelled as slow because of this external influence. New grammatical and lexical features of South African English have implications for the language assessment of learners. More empirical evidence on the stability of such features are, however, required as researchers have up till now compiled only tentative evidence of these features (Van der Walt, 2001:1; Nxumalo, 1997:16-30). The current study will attempt to contribute in this regard. In addition, there is a general absence of assessment material standardised on South African learners, and research to provide such assessment material suitable for South African multilingual learners is urgently needed.

The school environment itself may be an external influence on the acquisition of ELoLT. Resources in a number of schools in South Africa are comparable to those in developing countries where electricity, telephones, water, toilets, or even basic facilities, like desks and chairs, are lacking. Many local schools do not have electricity, and in six provinces many of the schools do not have access to a telephone (Harber, 1996:6). Approximately 25% of the schools in South Africa do not have running water (Harber, 1999:6). For schooling to be effective, features like a basic level of safety and resource provision are required, which is currently not always the case. The physical degradation in some rural schools distracts from the educational priorities, such as the acquisition of ELoLT.

Another problem in South African schools is overcrowding. Barkhuizen (1993) surveyed a multilingual, secondary school classroom during the first six weeks of an academic year. The consequences of crowding, lack of space, and interaction between teachers and learners were investigated. The lack of space and overcrowding caused instability in the classroom, and the crowding resulted in high social and sensory stimulation. The result was that the teacher was inhibited during her lessons and she could often not complete the language learning activities she planned. With complex problem-solving tasks, where a great deal of information had to be processed over a short period of time, crowding was found to decrease the learners' performances (Barkhuizen, 1993:33). It is known that language used to convey such processing typically places great demands on the auditory memory and the ability to process language in sequence (Nelson, 1978:299). In this context, for sufficient L1 and L2 learning to take place, inadequate classroom space and the accompanying noise levels need to be addressed.

External influences pose a variety of barriers to effective learning. To address these problems leading to learning breakdown, it is necessary to focus on the nature of these barriers. To formulate realistic goals for education in South Africa, the needs of both the learner *and* the society need to be recognised and addressed. In addition to goals, established phases and time frames for upliftment need to be adhered to, including the training of teachers, upgrading of all education facilities, and distribution of educational resources (LANGTAG, 1996:27). Only then may appropriate language curricula deliver results, and may language development eventually benefit, be it L1 or ELoLT.

2.5 CONCLUSION

Theories and solutions for the acquisition and improvement of ELoLT cannot be transferred from one context to another, but their practicality in different circumstances needs to be considered carefully. South Africa needs to find its own answers to illiteracy, malnutrition, overcrowding, and other problems, in order to improve school effectiveness. Educational goals need to be

context and culture specific, and based on local goals and desired outcomes (Harber, 1999:8).

Currently, one of the most serious problems facing South African education is the difficulties experienced with ELoLT. Despite the current Government's relatively high expenditure on education, the educational performance of Black learners at all levels is generally disappointing (Steyn, 2000:46). As sufficient ELoLT skills are required for higher education, the acquisition of ELoLT should be given a high priority in education to prepare South Africa's human resources for meaningful participation on the global stage. Surprisingly, ELoLT acquisition was not mentioned in the major strategic priorities of the DoE for the time frame from January 2000 to December 2004. Their priorities for this period included co-operative government issues, illiteracy, developing schools as centres of communities, improving physical conditions, developing teaching staff, outcome-based education, creating further education centres, building an education system answering professional challenges, and dealing with HIV/AIDS (RSA, 2000:8). One might speculate that ELoLT acquisition will be addressed in the following phases of educational development in the new South Africa.

Although the latter part of this chapter provides a bleak picture of the educational system, teachers remain important resources in education. As decision makers, they have a powerful influence on society as a whole. Teachers have developed strengths in response to the historical discrimination that learners, parents or caregivers, and educators have experienced (RSA, 2000:40), and they may again be instrumental in guiding the community towards an approach of additive multilingualism - an inclusive approach where all languages are recognised and promoted. This may be achieved by educating teachers about the acquisition process, as such knowledge may empower them and strengthen their opinions when advising parents.

This chapter on the acquisition of ELoLT in South Africa provides the relevant information to appreciate that, for the larger part of South Africa's Black

population, a good foundation in L1 remains the starting point. It is clear that ELoLT needs to be added gradually from the preschool years, building on the CUP of L1, through a process of additive multilingualism.

2.6 SUMMARY

This chapter described the process of ELoLT acquisition in the South African context. Additive versus subtractive multilingualism was discussed, and the use of code-switching as a tool in additional language acquisition was highlighted. The importance of BICS and CALP in ELoLT and the individual and societal influences affecting the acquisition of ELoLT were discussed. The aim of the discussion was to create a framework of the South African context as background to the current study.

CHAPTER 3

MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOL CONTEXT

... young children are capable learners and suitable experiences during the preschool years can have a positive impact on school learning (RSA, 2001a:7).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Individual differences exist in the way that learners acquire English as an Additional Language (EAL), similar to the different rate at which learners learn and develop. Variables such as the quality and length of exposure to English appear to influence the levels of proficiency reached (Collier, 1989:509). For academic achievement, learners need to reach high levels of proficiency in English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT), including the necessary language and cognitive skills to construct knowledge and to have their learning tested (NAEYC, 1996:4).

The ability to converse in an additional language (L2) does not necessarily indicate that a learner has the language proficiency required to learn at school. The language proficiency required for school includes all language domains (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics), and all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), which have to be acquired in each domain. In addition, these domains and skills have to be mastered within each learning area (Collier, 1989:512).

Not only is language development essential for the development of cognitive skills and learning, but also for the learner's social development (NAEYC 1996:4). Similar to mother tongue (L1) acquisition, where interaction with the environment occurs because of the need to communicate (Owens, 2001:67;

Bunce, 1995:97; Makin et al., 1995:xxix), L2 acquisition also requires a social environment that provides opportunities to interact with other learners and adults who speak the target language (Green, 1997:150; Tabors, 1997:82; Bunce, 1995:96; Makin et al., 1995:45).

Social interaction, therefore, remains crucial to ELoLT acquisition. To acquire ELoLT, the learner needs to engage in verbal interactions, as these opportunities provide the appropriate input for the acquisition of additional languages. The acquisition occurs most naturally when the process closely resembles L1 acquisition. It is generally believed that preschool learners acquire an L2 through natural interaction, rather than learning the language through direct instruction. The latter approach may at times be appropriate for older learners and adults, but is usually not regarded as the manner of preference in which preschoolers acquire a language (Renton, 1998:32; Makin et al., 1995:xxxi; Nieman, 1995:303; Nieman, 1994:13).

Preschoolers' ability to acquire the proficiency in English that will allow them to follow instructions of school subjects through the medium of English (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121) requires relationships with adults who can create a positive, non-threatening, language-learning environment (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:45). This implies that the adults involved with L2 learners carry the responsibility for meeting these learners' needs. Considering the ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity of the South African population, this responsibility presents a daunting challenge to all the role-players.

Research indicated that parents or primary caregivers and the home environment are the main influences in a young learner's life, which means that parents or caregivers may be the major role-players in the preschooler's successful acquisition of ELoLT (Dunn, 1993:16). The achievements of learners who have support from their parents or caregivers often differ positively from those of learners whose parents or caregivers show little interest (Dunn, 1993:41). Although the concept of parental or caregiver involvement in education tasks is supported by educationalists, this practice is generally poor in South Africa (Smalle-Moodie, 1997:72; Lemmer & Squelch,

1993:98). Smalle-Moodie (1997:72) suggested that it may be attributed to some parents or caregivers being illiterate, whereas Lemmer and Squelch (1993:98) identified various obstacles to parental or caregiver involvement, such as cultural barriers, language barriers, feeling intimidated by teachers, not knowing what is expected, difficult working schedules, socio-economic barriers, and single parent issues. Cognisance of parental or caregivers' needs and the barriers that prevent them from getting involved in multilingual learners' ELoLT acquisition may initiate and improve communication lines between home and school.

Ideally, the needs of caregivers as role-players need to be addressed by schools. It may be in the multilingual preschool learner's interest if adult education and parental or caregiver enrichment programmes could be offered at preschools, providing information to parents or caregivers and training them as language facilitators. As L1 and L2 acquisition by learners, as well as literacy, cannot be taken for granted, parents or caregivers need to provide language experiences to learners prior to entering formal schooling, as these experiences are the foundation upon which school learning is based. Education begins before learners enter primary school and continues throughout adulthood. Parents or caregivers, therefore, have to establish an early relationship with the educational system. Through the support and guidance of parents or caregivers, interaction between them and the learners may be stimulated to create an L2 learning environment at home.

When learners reach the age of three, their worlds begin to expand and they may enter a preschool setting. Although parents or caregivers continue to serve a primary role, the role of the preschool teacher becomes dominant in the lives of preschool learners who are generally eager to build relationships with their teachers (Nelson, 1998:296). The preschool learner's experiences at school will impact on his or her social, emotional, cognitive, and linguistic development. Interactions with the preschool teacher will influence the learner's values, outlook on society, perspectives on family, and connections to the community (NAEYC, 1996:6; Makin et al., 1995:58).

Teachers are viewed to be the most important link in the education of preschool learners and, at the same time, stand central to the difficulties created by new political developments in the South African society (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124). The present education system places great demands on preschool teachers because of the variety of additional language-learning situations that they encounter in their classrooms. Learners with English as L1 may have to share a classroom with learners who have English as an L2, and with the same or a variety of mother tongues. Teachers are expected to meet the language needs of the group *and* the individual learner, as well as the social needs of each learner (Tabors, 1997:91; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:146; Lemmer, 1993:89). In addition, teachers are expected to introduce learners to the complex culture of the school in which the learners have to comprehend, among others, computers, electricity, and emerging technology (Macdonald, 1993:18).

Teachers are required to create a classroom atmosphere conducive to language learning *and* teach curriculum content, creating a dual challenge (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:46). Apart from the learners' poor proficiency in English that hampers teaching, some teachers have to teach in English despite it being their own second or third language. Moreover, some well experienced and established African L1 teachers lack proficiency in English (Young, 1995:107). The standard of the majority of these teachers' English will have to be raised to meet the commitment to develop the upcoming generation of learners as proficient English speakers (Macdonald, 1991:19).

Societal expectations of teachers are high. Teachers are expected to implement the decisions of the Department of Education (DoE), among others Outcome-Based Education as teaching and learning philosophy. Other policies that have been introduced include Curriculum 2005, Early Childhood Education (ECE), Inclusive Education, and most recently the Revised National Curriculum Statement (Lewis, 2004:36). To deal with the unique South African multilingual preschool context, teachers are constantly seeking to improve their skills and develop appropriate strategies (Mafisa, 2001:36). It is of the utmost importance that teachers be supported in gaining the

expected knowledge and skills to ensure the scholastic success of multilingual learners.

In the spirit of *Tirisano*, which means working together in SeTswana, and which is also the motto of the DoE (RSA, 2001a:1), speech-language therapists are viewed to be important role-players in ELoLT acquisition by providing strategies and techniques for language learning within the classroom environment. They may add to the general environment for ELoLT learning already present in schools. Through language planning and facilitation with teachers, focused stimulation of specific language features in the classroom may be provided, and language learning activities may be embedded meaningfully within the activities of the classroom curriculum (Hadley, Simmerman, Long & Luna, 2000:281).

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the use of ELoLT in the South African multilingual, urban preschool context by describing the importance of language acquisition for learning in the early academic phases of schooling and the challenges faced by L2 learners; by exploring ways in which the respective role-players can facilitate ELoLT acquisition by multilingual preschoolers; and by providing insight into the specific role of the speech-language therapist in ELoLT learning.

3.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT FOR LEARNING

An investigation into research on child development issues highlights the fact that language development is a complex process (Owens, 2001:233; Makin et al., 1995:xxi) that involves genetic, maturational, and social factors. This implies that children have a genetic heritage, a biological mechanism predisposing them to make cognitive sense of the world; needs for social interaction; and needs for the acquisition of linguistic rules that could be moulded through interaction with an external environment (Nelson, 1998:89; Makin et al., 1995:xxi). Language forms a part of the child's social and

cognitive profile, and difficulties with language will affect many other aspects of development.

Language acquisition is a lifelong process, but the first five years are the most important for optimal development. From birth to age five, all the rudiments of language are developed as children acquire a great deal of phonology, vocabulary, grammar, semantics, and pragmatics. The process continues when learners enter formal schooling, and a new kind of language development occurs when formal concepts are introduced through the school curriculum. However, if a learner has not acquired functional language by the age of eight, it becomes much more difficult to acquire proficiency in any language. It is generally believed that the cognitive development of L1 continues up to the age of twelve, when L1 acquisition is largely completed (Collier, 1989: 510; 511).

When learners shift from preschool to formal schooling, from oral to written modalities, increased decontextualisation occurs and a shift from situated meaning to lexicalised meaning takes place. According to Nelson (1998:298), the functions of the formal language of the classroom are to convey instruction on reading and writing, to talk about language, to use language to describe procedure, and to convey learning content. Learners who experience problems with the concrete language of the home and preschool will follow the abstract discussions in school with difficulty. It is clear that, without proficiency in the school's Medium of Instruction (Mol), multilingual learners will experience problems with learning.

Language is a set of resources for meaning making, as language, meaning, and thought are closely related (Makin et al., 1995:xxix). Since there is a strong link between comprehension, production, and cognition, the learner's conceptual development is the primary tool for comprehension of the language the learner hears (Owens, 2001:198). Evidence suggests that learners use language as a means of coding their experiences (Thurman & Widerstrom, 1990:97). This coding ability depends upon prior development of

cognitive abilities that enable the learner to organise or process information in verbal form (Thurman & Widerstrom, 1990:97).

Verbal communication or talking means to share information and ideas, to plan, to negotiate, and to create. Language provides a meaningful way by which to share ideas and obtain information – when teachers and learners speak the same language. As they share words and rules to combine words, they can communicate (Nelson, 1998:198). The importance of interactions between teachers and learners is emphasised by the *Whole Language* approach to language development (Schory, 1990:206), which refers to a philosophy about how learners learn language. Advocates of *Whole Language* recognise the importance of all areas of language in the acquisition of literacy. They acknowledge that the four basic communication skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing – evolve interdependently and progressively with intellectual development, and that each skill aids in the development of the other skills (Norris & Damico, 1990:212; Schory, 1990:207). While listening and speaking are *the* basic communication skills, the language basis of reading and writing skills is being recognised (Westby, 1990:228).

Learners learn much about reading and writing while they are talking and listening. They learn about reading when they explore writing, and their oral language improves when they read and write. The development of these communication skills during preschool years prepares learners for their biggest challenge when entering school, namely the acquisition of reading and writing skills. Reading and writing are closely related and growth in one area will be reflected in the other. In addition, the skills acquired in the writing process will help the learner to master other areas of language (Schory, 1990:207). It is maintained that knowledge of reading and writing begins long before learners enter school, and critical literacy development takes place during the years from birth to age six. Reading and writing are tools for learning, and failure to acquire these skills renders education virtually impossible (Macdonald, 1991:44-50).

Language exists for the formulation, comprehension, and transmission of meaning. All components of language are simultaneously present and interact when language is used (Norris & Damico, 1990:214). The traditional set of language components includes the five linguistic categories of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (Nelson, 1998:26). Bloom and Lahey (1978) viewed the traditional linguistic categories from a different perspective and identified three components, namely language form (phonology, morphology, syntax), content (semantics), and use (pragmatics) (Tabors, 1997:7; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:9). Language form, content, and use are acquired in a steplike fashion across a developmental continuum. Normal language development involves the ability to integrate these component areas (Owens, 2001:202; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:7; Mills, 1993:80). To be in command of a language system, young learners need to develop language control, as it lays the foundation for the acquisition of skills such as reading and writing on which the formal school system is based and which are viewed to be important for learning.

The language demands on learners throughout their formal education are high. Failure to reach sufficient levels of language proficiency required for learning will negatively influence the learning process in school. The following section puts the specific language demands on the learner during the early academic phases into perspective.

3.3 LANGUAGE DEMANDS OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE EARLY ACADEMIC PHASES

There is a difference between the language demands of an educational setting and the language demands of the child's home. The learner-to-adult ratio at home will afford the learner with more opportunities for one-on-one interaction with a communication partner. In addition, the emotional and personal involvement at home is much greater than the objective involvement of teachers (Makin et al., 1995:50). During the objective and more formal interactions in the classroom, power differences exist, with the teacher assuming the role of authority by controlling topics, allotting turns, asking

questions, and establishing communication rules (Nelson, 1998:297). As different teaching approaches to language acquisition distinguish the discerning academic phases, it becomes necessary to differentiate between curriculum expectations in the South African preschool context and in the Foundation Phase.

3.3.1 The preschool curriculum

In South Africa, the teaching approach adopted for preschool education entails a partnership between teachers and parents or caregivers to accompany the preschool learner towards school readiness (Erasmus, 1991:116). This short-term goal of school readiness is linked to one of the main long-term goals of preschool education, namely the preparation of learners on affective and social levels for a stable transition to formal education (HSRC, 1988:38). The latter goal clearly indicates that school readiness encompasses much more than the correct chronological age, and that the emotional and social needs of learners must be taken into account when decisions on school readiness are taken.

Central to most preschool programmes are the components of social, physical, emotional, and intellectual development to ensure a holistic approach to the learner's development (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:365; Tabors, 1997:116; Erasmus, 1991:38). To clarify the learning content in each of these components, the structure of the preschool programme, incorporating the aims of preschool education, is depicted in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 shows that the preschool curriculum is developed mainly around the learning needs of learners. Through developmentally appropriate learning activities, learners actively explore and learn about their environment, with ample time for social interactions. (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:354; Tabors, 1997:116). These interactions can be teacher directed or peer directed (Tabors, 1997:117; 118; Erasmus, 1991:91). During social interactions, learners are actively involved in processing information based on patterns that

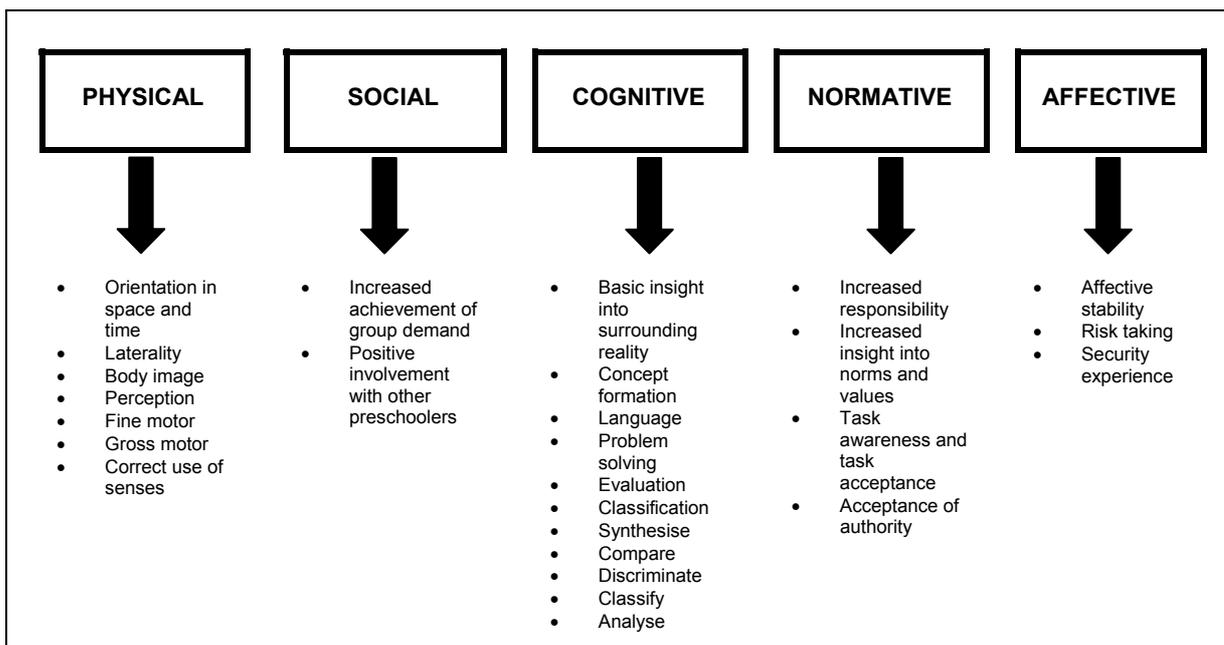


FIGURE 3.1: THE STRUCTURE OF THE PRESCHOOL PROGRAMME INCORPORATING THE GOALS OF PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

Source: Le Roux (1987:97).

are observed in incoming language, and words are learned in social context (Owens, 2001:119).

Language abilities and concept formation are continuously expanded by teachers in the school's Mol, while preschool learners are involved in activities on a concrete level. The teacher's language stimulation is not limited to a specific lesson, but is totally integrated with the whole preschool day programme. In a similar, informal manner the learner's numeracy and preliteracy skills are developed (Erasmus, 1991:45; 106). Book-handling skills, among others, are encouraged as part of preliteracy development (Tabors, 1997:119), and numeracy development is supported through activities such as sorting, classification, comparing, and counting (Genesee & Cloud, 1998:64).

The holistic, individually focused, and interactive framework of the preschool presents the ideal setting for learners to acquire an L2. In the preschool

environment where learners are encouraged to engage in meaningful interactions with others, L2 acquisition may be facilitated. By including L2 stimulation, the L2 developmental needs of learners may be met and learners' preparation for formal schooling may be improved (Tabors, 1997:115; Nieman, 1995:302).

The acquisition of an L2 by preschoolers is considered to be one of the *Rights of Children* according to the White Paper on ECE (RSA, 2001a:39). However, L2 acquisition presents a challenge in the current South African preschool context, because some learners without any prior knowledge of, or proficiency in English are presently being taught in English (Calitz, 1990:20). As it is assumed that learners at preschool level would be proficient in the school's Mol and that instructions given in class would be comprehended, the learners' poor ELoLT proficiency complicates the teaching process (Diedricks, 1997:46). In the South African preschool context there is often an abrupt transfer to L2, rather than the ideal gradual introduction thereof (Lemmer, 1995:84).

Jordaan (1993:ii) identified the needs of young preschool learners in order for them to cope with ELoLT when starting their schooling. The multilingual nature of the preschool environment, among others, has compelled the current South African government to adopt a strategy of ECE to enhance learning at a younger age (Lewis, 2004:36). In White Paper 5, the current South African government proposed the ongoing development of the preschool curriculum to support and improve teaching practices in the preschool environment (RSA, 2001a:18). One might speculate that the revised curriculum would allow for the development of ELoLT in South African preschools, not only to improve the quality of Early Childhood Development (ECD), but also to reverse the effects of early deprivation and maximise the development of learners' potential.

It is imperative for the DoE to develop an action plan to address the early learning opportunities of preschool learners. While the curriculum for preschools is being formulated through strategic planning, a curriculum for

Grade R has been incorporated with the curriculum of the Foundation Phase (Curriculum 2005) and will be implemented as soon as Grade R becomes compulsory in 2010, as envisaged by the DoE (RSA, 2001a:24). In the following section the curriculum for the Foundation Phase is discussed.

3.3.2 The Foundation Phase curriculum

Curriculum change in post-apartheid South Africa was initiated after the election in 1994, with the main aim of developing a national core syllabus. During 1998, Curriculum 2005 was introduced into schools, and in 2000 its implementation was reviewed by a Ministerial Committee. The Review Committee mainly recommended that the design features of Curriculum 2005 be streamlined and its language be simplified. The curriculum design features were reduced from eight to three - critical and developmental outcomes, learning outcomes, and assessment standards - and expressed the requirements and expectations of learners per grade. They should be viewed as the minimum knowledge, values, and skills required for progression through the school system, and are designed in accordance with Grade Nine requirements when learners conclude the General Education and Training (GET) phase. The Review Committee further recommended that the curriculum and assessment be aligned (what learners should know, demonstrate, and be able to do at each level, and the ways in which they demonstrate their achievement), and that implementation be reinforced by improving teacher orientation and training, learning support materials, and provincial support. In addition, it recommended the relaxation of time frames (RSA, 2002:1-7).

The revision of Curriculum 2005 resulted in a Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) for Grades R to Nine and Grades Ten to Twelve (RSA, 2002:2). The principles of Outcome-Based Education (as a teaching and learning philosophy) of Curriculum 2005 were not changed, but the terminology was adapted to be more comprehensible to users. The terminology of the learning areas was changed as shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1: THE LEARNING AREAS OF CURRICULUM 2005

PREVIOUS LEARNING AREA	REVISED LEARNING AREA
Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics & Mathematical Sciences (MLMMS)	Mathematics
Language, Literacy & Communication (LLC)	Language
Human and Social Sciences (HSS)	Social Sciences
Economic and Management Sciences	Economic and Management Sciences
Natural Sciences	Natural Sciences
Technology	Technology
Life Orientation	Life Orientation
Arts & Culture	Arts & Culture

Source: RSA, 2004:4.

As shown in Table 3.1, the eight learning areas originally incorporated in Curriculum 2005 were retained, but the terms for mathematics, languages, and social sciences were simplified. The dates of implementation of the RNCS will be as follows: Foundation Phase - 2004, Intermediate Phase - 2005, Grade Seven - 2006, Grade Eight – 2007, and Grade Nine - 2008 (RSA, 2004:4). The RNCS also gave an indication of teaching time allocations, and stipulated that the formal teaching time during the Foundation Phase should be divided into 40% of teaching time spent on literacy, 35% of teaching time on numeracy, and 25% of teaching time on life skills (RSA, 2002:9). A typical timetable for the Foundation Phase is presented in Table 3.2.

The time allocated to literacy in the Foundation Phase (Table 3.2) indicates its importance in the later academic phases. Literacy skills in L1 build onto listening and speaking skills, and most of the teaching taking place in Grade One depends on these two skills – the basic communication skills (Macdonald, 1991:51). For learning to take place it is, therefore, of the utmost importance to have proficient listening and speaking skills in the Mol. It is assumed that Grade One learners are able to understand and speak the Mol, as the language learning area builds on these skills (RSA, 2002:17).

TABLE 3.2: TIMETABLE FOR THE FOUNDATION PHASE

TIMETABLE		FOUNDATION PHASE					GRADES ONE AND TWO							
Weekdays	Period	1	2	3	4	Break	5	6	7	Break	8	9	10	
Monday	Time	7:30	7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13		10:01	10:32	11:03		11:52	12:23	12:54
		7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13	9:44		10:32	11:03	11:34		12:23	12:54	13:25
	Minutes	10	31	31	31	31	17	31	31	31	18	31	31	31
	Reg	Act	Numeracy	Activity	Numeracy			Literacy			Lit	Life Skills		Act
Tuesday	Time	7:30	7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13		10:01	10:32	11:03	11:34		12:30	13:00
		7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13	9:44		10:32	11:03	11:34	12:05		13:00	13:25
	Minutes	10	31	31	31	31	17	31	31	31	31	25	30	25
	Reg	Act	Act	Numeracy			Lit	Literacy			Life Skills		Life Skills	Act
Wednesday	Time	7:30	7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13		10:01	10:32	11:03		11:52	12:23	12:54
		7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13	9:44		10:32	11:03	11:34		12:23	12:54	13:25
	Minutes	10	31	31	31	31	17	31	31	31	18	31	31	31
	Reg	Act	Act	Numeracy			Lit	Literacy			Literacy			Act
Thursday	Time	7:30	7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13		10:01	10:32	11:03		11:52	12:23	12:54
		7:40	8:11	8:42	9:13	9:44		10:32	11:03	11:34		12:23	12:54	13:25
	Minutes	10	31	31	31	31	17	31	31	31	18	31	31	31
	Reg	Act	Act	Numeracy			Lit	Literacy			Literacy			Act
Friday	Time	7:30	7:40	8:10	8:45	9:20		10:12	10:47	11:22		12:15	12:50	13:25
		7:40	8:10	8:45	9:20	9:55		10:47	11:22	11:57		12:50	13:25	
	Minutes	10	30	35	35	35	17	35	35	35	18	35	35	25
	Reg	Act	Numeracy			Literacy		Literacy	Life Skills			Life Skills		Act

Reg - Register
Act - Activity

LEARNING PROGRAMMES	TIME
Literacy	9:03
Numeracy	7:34
Life Skills	5:46
Total	22:23
Break	3:02
Register	:50
Activities	3:20
Total	7:12
Total	29:35

Analysis:	per day	per week
Literacy 40%	2x110=220min 1x99=99min 2x112=224min	543min
Numeracy 35%	1x94=94min 4x90=360min	454min
Life Skills 25%	1x51=51min 2x68=136min 1x74=74min 1x85=85min	346min

Source: Van der Merwe (2004).

In the language learning area, the DoE has specified six learning outcomes, namely listening, speaking, reading and viewing, writing, thinking and reasoning, as well as language structure and use (RSA, 2002:15). The learning area is divided into home language, first additional language, and second additional language (RSA, 2002:17). It is assumed that learners come to school able to understand and speak the Mol, and consequently an additive approach to multilingualism is followed, acknowledging that L1 needs to be maintained and developed while acquiring L2 (Lewis, 2004:37). L2 therefore builds on the common underlying proficiency (CUP) of L1.

The language curriculum further recognises the importance of preliteracy skills and builds on the knowledge acquired during the preschool years and in literate homes (RSA, 2002:22). According to Kriegler (1990:68), one of the most reliable predictors of scholastic success is the learner's literacy development prior to Grade One. Successful learners typically arrive at school with a set of prior experiences and well-established skills conducive to literacy (August & Hakuta, 1998:20). Learners from a reading culture, where caregivers introduced books from a young age, have six years of informal knowledge to build on when they start their schooling. The opposite is often true of learners from developing countries like South Africa, where they might enter school from a disadvantaged environment and where literacy development has to start at the development of basic book-handling skills (Macdonald, 1991:25, 42). The task of reading textbooks at Grade Four level seems almost impossible for these learners. It is known that on Grade Four level learners are expected to have a reading vocabulary of several thousand words (RSA, 2002:52). The cognitive demands of textbooks are high and learners have to use a whole range of thinking skills to comprehend the text. These include skills to match information from the text to life experiences, to predict what is to come, as well as to maintain a grasp on the meaning of the text (Macdonald, 1991:48). Throughout the curriculum, learners have to use language to acquire and demonstrate their knowledge in specific content areas and as a means of enquiry. Classroom tasks involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the school's Mol (Nunan, 1989:10). It is recognised that a language basis to learning exists

and that language proficiency will affect academic success (Meyers, 1993:33).

As language proficiency is an important predictor of scholastic success (Macdonald, 1991:51), language proficiency for school purposes needs to be on a level that will allow learners to create meaning and structure from new information and experiences presented at school. Language ability for academic progress needs to include the development of technical vocabulary and special uses of language required for each learning area, which would allow learners to comprehend the academic content at appropriate grade levels. For ELoLT learners, learning in their L2 may present an obstacle to the acquisition of the academic content at school, as discussed in the following section.

3.4 LEARNING IN AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE

Multilingual learners in urban South Africa are often placed in English-medium preschools to acquire verbal communication skills in English as preparation for learning, reading, and writing (Sarinjeive, 1999:135). One of the purposes of these placements is learning to understand and speak English proficiently for academic success (De Klerk, 2002a:6-7). Multilingual learners who have acquired English by the time they enter Grade One, or, alternatively, when they transfer to ELoLT in Grade Four, will have an advantage over learners who have to transfer suddenly from L1 to ELoLT. In a sudden transfer situation learners will have to acquire Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) simultaneously with Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), presenting a challenge when they have to understand curriculum content (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42).

Shifting to another language for learning purposes is a difficult task for some learners, as they may experience extreme problems comprehending instructions in class where they are required to have the ELoLT proficiency to use English on high levels of abstraction (Nelson, 1998:298). The high

density of unfamiliar words and their replacement by similarly unknown words usually aggravate these comprehension problems during explanations. Multilingual learners may be confronted with written and oral passages and questions they do not comprehend (Macdonald, 1991:13-17). During assessment, their poor comprehension and writing skills have a negative influence, because they may lack the language skills to comply with the expectations, finding it difficult to pay attention to language form and content simultaneously (Green, 1997:46).

Multilingualism also has an impact on literacy learning. Literary texts present problems as multilingual learners may not be able to apply themselves to literary texts without the basic communication skills (Sarinjeive, 1999:136). Reading or listening to English material may become a burdensome task if learners do not understand the text (Makin et al., 1997:119; Macdonald, 1991:45). Many ELoLT learners often develop skills to read in English without properly understanding the meaning of the text, in other words reading is degraded to a decoding skill without any enjoyment of the content (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:32). Reading for meaning in ELoLT, therefore, presents a challenge to ELoLT learners.

Learning to read and write in an additional language not related to L1 is generally known to be difficult, especially when the L2 writing system is complex and the orthography is deep (Geva, 2000:18). In South Africa where learners have to acquire ELoLT, it is particularly true that some learners experience problems acquiring skills in English because the African languages are not related to English, and English has a complex spelling system (Macdonald, 1991:32; 45). ELoLT learners often confuse the English short vowels /i/ and /e/, /a/ and /e/, as well as /a/ and /u/. Some consonant digraphs in English do not exist in other languages (e.g. /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʒ/ and /kw/) and will need special attention (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:32). English does not follow a one letter, one sound system, and learners have to learn the complex spelling pattern of English for growth in writing and the other language skills (Schory, 1990:207).

In contrast to L1 research that indicated the existence of a positive relationship between L1 proficiency and L1 reading comprehension, findings from available research on reading by multilingual learners showed that for some multilingual learners L2 proficiency does not necessarily precede L2 reading development. It appears that for some multilingual learners L2 acquisition and L2 reading are developing simultaneously. Multilingual learners will therefore be able to decode words even when their L2 proficiency is still developing (Geva, 2000:16; 18). Most recently, researchers have explained that through processes like *bootstrapping* (using what they already know to learn more advanced forms of language) and *scaffolding* (imitation of words not fully understood), L2 learners may acquire reading skills in L2 while acquiring verbal skills in L2 (Thurman & Widerstrom, 1990:102).

Kinberg (2000:61) reached a similar conclusion in her study on Immersion programmes, which indicated that multilingual Immersion programme learners exhibited good listening, comprehension, and reading skills in L2, and less well-developed writing and speaking skills (Kinberg, 2000:64). In Immersion programmes, as in many South African schools, learners are placed in schools where the target language to be acquired is also the Mol. The Conventional Immersion Model, where all instruction takes place in the target language and where the Mol is the teacher's L1 or L2, seems to fit the South African context in particular. Although the South African situation is more complex because of the eleven official languages, similar situations exist in countries like America and Canada in that many teachers teach in English (the Mol) which is their L1 (as often found in urban South Africa) or their L2 (as often found in urban or rural South Africa) (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003:123).

Evidence from Immersion programmes further suggests that the exposure to English provided in the programmes may result in learners developing good receptive and expressive language skills in English (Kinberg, 2000:61). In addition, it appears that better L2 proficiency was acquired when Immersion started earlier rather than later in the learners' academic careers (Hoff,

2004:358). When learners are successful in the acquisition of ELoLT through either simultaneous or successive acquisition processes, and cognitive development continues in both L1 and L2, they frequently outperform monolinguals in assessments of cognitive flexibility, linguistic and metalinguistic abilities, concept formation, divergent thinking skills, creativity, and diversity. Even high-functioning, five to six year old L2 learners may exhibit higher divergent thinking, imagination, and reading proficiency than monolingual learners (Owens, 2001:435; Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:4; August & Hakuta, 1998:4).

Although learning in an additional language poses a challenge to the learner, proficiency in ELoLT can become a strength, a valuable resource, and an asset. If learners are supported from their preschool years, higher proficiency levels may be reached and their academic achievements may be positively influenced. From the above discussion, it follows that multilingual preschoolers and their specific needs within the multilingual preschool context need to be investigated.

3.5 MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS WITHIN THE PRESCHOOL CONTEXT

Whereas L1 acquisition in learners occurs mostly in the context of social interactions within the family, young ELoLT learners are often placed in English preschools where they have to interact in a social setting as part of learning to communicate in English (Makin et al., 1997:116; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:186). Figure 3.2 illustrates the home background and learning environment as factors that may influence the preschool learners' language acquisition.

As illustrated in Figure 3.2, ELoLT acquisition may be influenced by certain environmental factors. For Black South African learners, the distinction often lies between the traditional, informal home environment, and the formal Western-type schooling environment. This distinction may include different manners of task completion at school, as opposed to customary ways

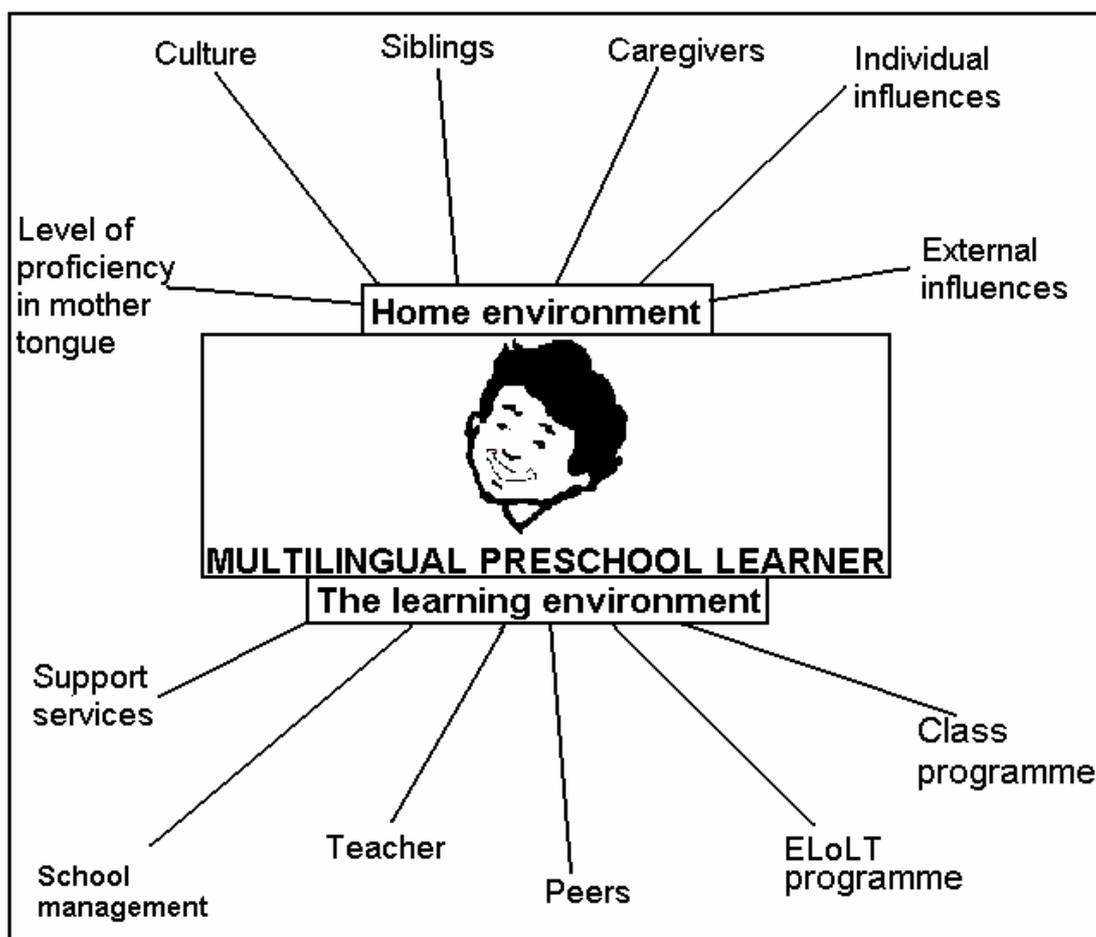


FIGURE 3.2: FACTORS THAT MAY INFLUENCE ELoLT ACQUISITION

associated with the learners' own culture (Macdonald, 1991:26). The multilingual learner may also experience changes in language demands between the home and school environments. Parents or caregivers provide natural communication situations at home, whereas teachers provide settings for both naturalistic and structured language acquisition at school (Bunce, 1995:97). ELoLT acquisition within the home and learning environment is possible if responsible and responsive adults provide input according to the learners' needs, as discussed forthwith.

3.5.1 The needs of the multilingual preschooler

Although proficiency in English is important, preschool learners do not only have linguistic needs. For optimal development and learning, their diverse developmental (intellectual, emotional, social and moral, physical), cultural,

linguistic, and educational needs have to be addressed. It is postulated that the acquisition of language is an essential need in preschool learners, as it is important to learners' cognitive and social development (NAEYC, 1996:4). Most multilingual preschool learners in South Africa enter preschools with well-developed language skills and knowledge in their L1, as their L1 has been utilised since birth to establish meaningful relationships and acquire knowledge. When preschool learners, whose L1 is not English, transfer to ELoLT at preschool level, they may experience needs in the acquisition thereof. The following needs were identified as important in the process of ELoLT acquisition by multilingual preschool learners.

3.5.1.1 The need for social interaction

There is a strong social component to the ELoLT learner's adaptation to the preschool classroom (Tabors, 1997:105; Erasmus, 1991:41). Learning to interact and communicate in the classroom is the first step in this socialisation process. Interaction in the classroom may be initiated with single peer interaction and gradually progress to socialisation in the larger group (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:205). Social interaction, as a source of stimulation and feedback, is viewed to be essential for language acquisition, based on an interpretation of Vygotsky's theories on cognitive development (Meyers, 1993:31).

Vygotsky's theories on cognitive development are particularly relevant to L2 teaching, as he proposed an explicit and fundamental relationship between social interaction and language, and the development of the learner's potential for thought and higher level thinking processes (Nelson, 1998:83). This theory explained language learning as the result of both internal and external factors, determined by the learner's needs and intention. Language learning is described as a process of interaction with the environment as determined by the learners' maturation *and* the input in the language learning situation. From this view, both learners and adults play active parts in language learning (Makin et al., 1995:xxviii; Meyers, 1993:30). Many current approaches to L2 acquisition have developed in response to Vygotsky's

theories. Such L2 acquisition programmes are often based on the importance of socialisation, among others, in language development (Meyers, 1993:30).

The preschool classroom environment is organised to facilitate social interaction (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:206). In fact, the whole preschool context provides the physical environment for meaningful social experiences. Interaction with teachers and English-speaking peers is probably the most powerful way for ELoLT learners to acquire English (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:34). These interactions foster acceptance and friendship formation, and present opportunities to interact with peers who could provide excellent language models. The English L1 learners function as language facilitators and peer conversation partners as they interact and socialise with their L2 peers. By the age of three, a typical learner has already developed the social and language skills in L1 to fulfil this function (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:204). Learners with ELoLT benefit greatly from positive interactions with peers, as this social experience is beneficial to the L2 acquisition process. It is through these daily interactions with peers that communicative competence is developed and supported. Under such ideal circumstances the minimum time frame to develop BICS may be two years (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5).

In the South African urban context, the situation is, however, not as clear-cut as described above. In some urban preschools, the English L1 learners are in the majority and, as peer conversation partners, may provide excellent opportunities for social communication with ELoLT learners. Some urban preschools are, however, more multilingual and English L1 learners are in the minority. August and Hakuta (1998:36) believe that, in such situations, language is often the basis for categorisation and the formation of groups where learners speak the same L1. De Klerk (2002b:21) provided insight into the South African situation in her study on language issues in South African schools. She interviewed principals of preschools, primary and secondary schools (private and governmental) to explore how these schools experienced the general conduct of multilingual learners. It transpired that learners with similar cultural backgrounds had a tendency to group together and revert to

their L1 (De Klerk, 2002b:21). Valuable opportunities to use ELoLT socially were therefore not utilised. Where English was the L1 of the majority of learners, English was spoken. The same conclusion was reached by Viljoen and Molefe (2001:121) who observed similar behaviour during their research. They further noted that some South African learners could cope with the informal English of the playground, but not with the more formal ELoLT of the classroom.

As preschool learners spend a fair amount of time on the playground, the social interaction with peers may provide valuable stimulation in ELoLT. The learners' social predisposition may therefore facilitate ELoLT development. Interaction on the playground is relatively free from adult direction and learners may communicate without being self-conscious, whereas some preschool learners may not participate in classroom communication, being too self-conscious of language mistakes in English (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121). Such non-participation and withdrawal from classroom activities may, however, be indicative of negative influences on multilingual preschool learners' self-esteem (Robb, 1995:16), necessitating the consideration of which influences may hinder the development of a high self-esteem.

3.5.1.2 The need for cultural recognition to develop self-esteem

A high self-esteem needs to be a priority in the social and personal development of all preschool learners (Eloff, 2001:67). Self-esteem appears to be linked to the culture and L1 of the learner, and to deny the existence of cultural differences negates the learner's experiences and serves to undermine his or her self-concepts (Robb, 1995:17). There is an increasing awareness that multilingual preschool learners need to be viewed as a whole, and that a holistic approach - including cultural awareness - needs to be the basis of education for all ELoLT preschool learners (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:365; Tabors, 1997:116; Erasmus, 1991:38).

Upon entering preschool, multilingual learners have to adapt to the learning environment and the changing language demands of the environment, and

often also to a different culture. At this young age, preschool learners have to negotiate difficult transitions between their home and educational settings. For learners entering urban preschools in South Africa, it is often their first experience of schooling. With no prior exposure to institutional learning, the learner may be overwhelmed with the expectations and the routines. The home and school environments may have diverse sets of rules, values, expectations, and behaviours, requiring an adaptation between these settings from the preschooler.

Within the school environment, behaviour such as paying attention and persisting at tasks is valued (McLaughlin, 1992:8). In addition, the classroom curriculum has implicit and explicit rules, and learners have to act appropriately in class (Westby, 1997:274). For the culturally and linguistically diverse learners, the implicitness of how to behave may present an obstacle to their acquisition of the academic content of the school. Learners have to adapt to the school environment to learn, but also have to achieve a balance between the home and school environment to be able to function optimally (NAEYC, 1996:5; Meyers, 1993:6). Their needs may also differ from those of other students, for example they may prefer small group work, peer tutoring, individualised instruction, or visual presentations, or they may work at a slower pace or require explicit instructions (Westby, 1997:274-276).

Often Black learners in South Africa are faced with a sudden transfer from L1 at home to ELoLT when starting preschool (Lemmer, 1995:88). The ELoLT classroom presents a particularly challenging context to some learners with limited English proficiency, as most activities place considerable language demands on the learners who have to understand instructions and follow directions in English. The sudden transfer to English may also influence the learners' self-esteem if they wrongfully conclude that their L1 has no value as no reference is made to it in the classroom.

Under these circumstances, multilingual preschool learners attending English-medium preschools may feel alienated from their culture, as language is considered to be a bearer of culture (Smit, 1993:156). In addition, multilingual

learners lack the childhood heritage – fables, legends, nursery rhymes, proverbs, songs, and games – of the English L1 learners' cultural world which strongly features in the curriculum (Lemmer, 1995:93; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42). As learners are emotionally connected to their culture, the emotional importance of this affiliation cannot be underestimated and needs to be recognised (Cline, 2000:7).

Cultural differences between the home and school may result in different expectations in terms of communication skills from teachers and learners (Louw, 2004:261). The learners' home experiences may affect patterns of language use and interpersonal styles. Differences in pragmatic behaviour such as talkativeness, the loudness of verbal interactions, the proximity to conversational partners, among others, may be perceived as problematic or disruptive behaviour in class, when, in fact, these behaviours may be part of a cultural communication pattern and are not intended to be disruptive or aggressive (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:123; Kamwangamalu, 1997:248). Verbal skills do not have the same value cross-culturally, and many language teaching approaches, based on studies of White middle-class families, may not match the interaction patterns of learners from other culture groups (Van Kleeck, 1994:67). Cultural differences in communication patterns between teachers and learners may predispose the teachers towards misunderstanding and misjudgement of both the academic and communicative competence of the learners.

Earlier research highlighted the fact that learners from cultural and linguistic backgrounds different to the school's culture and Mol are at risk of displaying behavioural problems. In comparison with typically developing learners studied by Fujiki, Brinton, Isaacson and Summers (2001:108), learners with limited English proficiency showed significantly more withdrawal and aggressive behaviour. Emotional problems caused by alienation from culture and L1 may therefore present as behavioural problems.

A study by Viljoen and Molefe (2001), reflecting the South African urban context, focused on the behavioural problems of young Black learners with

limited English proficiency in an English-medium school and produced similar results. Teachers' and parents' or caregivers' perceptions of the behaviour of learners were investigated, as well as the actual conduct of learners on the playground. Both parents or caregivers and teachers observed aggression, frustration, and swearing, and teachers also observed disruptive behaviour in the class owing to learners being unable to express themselves in English. The negative incidences are unfortunate as the early school years form the foundation for further learning, and negative experiences may adversely affect the rest of the learners' academic careers. The researchers also observed frustration, anxiety, and psychosomatic symptoms among learners who did not understand instructions given in English. The most important implication arising from the research is that the needs of multilingual learners need to be taken into account for multicultural education to succeed (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:26).

As multicultural education is, and always will be, a given in South Africa, a paradigm shift regarding ELoLT learners is overdue. A culture of tolerance and respect for diversity always needs to be part of the services provided. Diversity needs to be accepted to the benefit of all learners in the classroom. When learners feel accepted and appreciated as individuals, and behavioural problems are understood against the background of emotional uncertainty as a result of language and cultural differences, language learning, in particular ELoLT development, will largely benefit.

3.5.1.2 The need to develop language

To become linguistically proficient and competent in any language requires time and input. Language acquisition occurs over a number of years and requires stimulation and feedback in the target language from communication partners (Collier, 1989:510). Linguistically and culturally diverse learners need to master BICS, which take two to three years to develop, and CALP, which is more dependent on the learning environment and takes five to seven years to develop under ideal conditions (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5). An appropriate learning environment is essential for the

development of spoken language abilities across both these spectrums (NAEYC, 1996:8). Language development follows a developmental continuum as children progress from single words to multiple word utterances in their expressive language. Although L1 development continues into pre-adolescence and adolescence, dramatic language acquisition occurs during the preschool and Foundation Phase years. Language develops in three areas, namely grammatical development (language form), expansion of concepts (language content), and appropriateness of communication in particular contexts (language use) (Nelson, 1998:288). As the same language developmental pattern is expected from L2 learners, a spoken language checklist was compiled by Mills (1993) to assess the development of spoken English in multilingual learners, and to provide information on the development of ELoLT over four stages. The checklist is presented in Table 3.3 to highlight normal language development in ELoLT learners.

The checklist summarised in Table 3.3 divides ELoLT development into four stages – for learners new to acquiring English, for learners becoming acquainted with English, for learners becoming confident as users of English, and for experienced and near fluent users of English. The checklist can be a valuable tool in assessing the ELoLT of learners when planning intervention, and opportunities to promote ELoLT development according to the developmental stages in the checklist could be created in an environment that allows learners to interact in English. Preschool learners need to interact, otherwise they are excluded from socialisation, estranged from group acceptance, and barred from learning and language activities.

TABLE 3.3: ELoLT DEVELOPMENT CHECKLIST

	SOCIAL/LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS/PURPOSES	VOCABULARY/SYNTAX
STAGE 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observes others and imitates • Makes verbal (L1/L2) contact with another learner • Joins in activities • Uses L1 in some class activities • Uses body language to communicate • Approaches adult to make needs known • Follows a one-part simple instruction • Uses context clues to understand simple instructions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of use of different language functions in L1, e.g. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) telling a story; b) holding a conversation; c) exploring a problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses single words • Uses two-word combinations • Imitates short phrases • Names personal possessions • Names classroom objects • Vocabulary of immediate family • Uses complete phrases
STAGE 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strives to communicate regardless of correctness • Joins in activities using English • Initiates conversation with peers • Directs action of others • Evidence of understanding more English than can use 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands simple stories and can retell a shortened version in English, with support • Takes/brings a simple oral message in English • Gives short report of a personal event, using simple tenses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing vocabulary; more extensive classroom vocabulary • Can put objects into simple categories • Asks simple questions • Uses some pronouns increasingly appropriately • Uses some adjectives • Uses simple adverbs • Combines/expands simple phrases
STAGE 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses English confidently but still some inaccuracies • Requires support in subject areas • Interacts confidently with peers and adults • Contributes to large group discussions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can carry out simple role plays • Can give a simple description • Can sequence events using simple connectives • Can give reasons and predict events • Can make comparisons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English shows some features of L1 • Increasing vocabulary to extended environment • Pronunciation generally accurate • Paraphrases/substitutes when English vocabulary unknown • Increasing use of preposition • Uses question words • Greater range of tenses: future, past, continuous
STAGE 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses English with confidence in most social situations • Requires support in some subject areas with specialised vocabulary • Interacts confidently in group discussions • Moves easily between L1 and L2 • Gaps in understanding extended monologue • Gaps in detail when hearing unfamiliar accents • Asks for clarification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can retell a story at length • Can describe accurately • Can explain a process • Can switch between functions with little difficulty, within the same oral comment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses many tenses appropriately • Uses greater variety of connectives • Uses some complex question structures

Source: Mills (1993).

Preschoolers need communication partners and role-players striving to meet their needs for language acquisition. Learners do not acquire ELoLT through direct instruction or as an isolated subject, but through interaction in social

activities. Adults facilitate the language acquisition process through verbalising and input in language acquisition activities. The belief that interaction between adults and learners plays such an important role in helping learners to verbalise meaning can be seen as the practical side of Vygotsky’s theory, in which social relationships are considered important in higher mental functions (Makin et al., 1995:xxix; Meyers, 1993:31). Figure 3.3 shows how the two major role-players during the preschool years may be involved to support the specific needs of the multilingual learner, as discussed in the previous section. Figure 3.3 provides a point of departure for the following section.

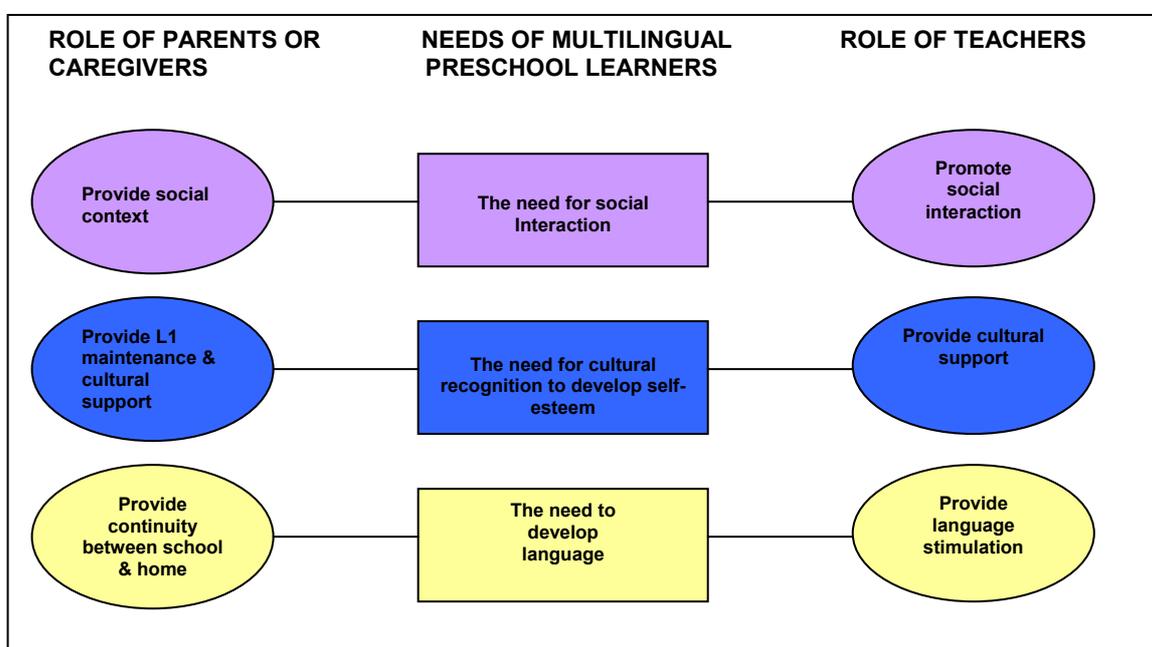


FIGURE 3.3: PRIMARY ROLE-PLAYERS AND THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN ELoLT ACQUISITION

Figure 3.3 illustrates how the needs of the learners and the roles of parents or caregivers and teachers link. During the preschool years, parents or caregivers and teachers are the main role-players as a result of the amount of time that learners spend in either the home or school environment. As White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:4) stated that the responsibility for the care and upbringing of young children belongs to parents or families (caregivers), their involvement as primary role-players is directly implicated.

3.5.2 The role of parents or primary caregivers

Historically, formal education was deemed the domain of the teacher, resulting in limited involvement of parents or caregivers in education. Recently, the complete division between home and school has been questioned because of a growing awareness of the central role that parents or caregivers can play as equal partners in learners' education (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:96).

As a result of greater democratisation in South Africa, the role of parents or caregivers is currently being reviewed. Not only are Black parents or caregivers allowed to choose the MoI for their children, but caregivers' roles in the management of schools have also received greater recognition (Lemmer, 1995:85; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:96). Parental or caregiver involvement, however, needs to be broader than financial support and formal participation in school activities. Research has shown that learners succeed best when they observe their parents or caregivers being included in the school environment, and when parents or caregivers support learners' education (Heugh et al., 1995:18).

Although there is a great deal of support for parental or caregiver involvement, various barriers to effective and successful involvement were identified by Lemmer and Squelch (1993:99). These barriers are:

- *Feelings of intimidation:* parents or caregivers feel intimidated by teachers and the school environment if the school does not actively promote interaction with parents or caregivers;
- *parents or caregivers do not know how to get involved:* many parents or caregivers want to participate in learners' education, but are unsure of their rights and the activities they can be involved with;

- *parents or caregivers have negative feelings about the school:* negative attitudes may be present because of an unpleasant experience involving the school in the past. Such negative feelings can be transferred to learners, diminishing their motivation;
- *parents or caregivers have a negative view of teacher competence:* some parents or caregivers, for various reasons, may doubt the teacher's ability and professional competence. Such negative feelings can severely affect the home-school relations;
- *difficult work schedules:* many parents or caregivers cannot get involved as a result of occupations and the extended hours of working and travelling;
- *cultural barriers:* some parents or caregivers do not speak the language of the school and are excluded as they are unable to communicate with staff;
- *socio-economic barriers:* some parents or caregivers from lower income groups do not get involved in school activities because of financial restrictions. They cannot purchase books and educational material, pay for extra-curricular activities, or afford transportation to school activities;
- *single parent or caregiver families:* although single parents or caregivers may want to get involved with learners' education, circumstances might prevent them from attending and participating in school activities.

Parents or caregivers who start their involvement with learners' education during the preschool years may have a long-term impact on their future learning and academic success (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:362). Their supporting role in the preschool context is of dual nature, namely to provide support to the learner and to provide support to the school, as discussed under the following heading.

3.5.2.1 Provide social context

The role of parents or caregivers in ELoLT acquisition is not completed when the decision on ELoLT has been taken. As primary role-players who will be constantly involved in the acquisition process, they are often the key to the successful acquisition of multilingualism. Parents or caregivers need to provide language stimulation in L1 and ELoLT at home. Although they are encouraged to speak L1 to preschoolers, opportunities to listen and interact in English may be created through television, radio, films, and contact with English-speaking peers. Language stimulation in L1 needs to include activities that involve descriptions, queries, and open-ended questions, that is who, what, where, why and when questions requiring metacognitive skills. Questions that require critical thinking and problem solving facilitate the conceptual development of the learner. Storytelling also needs to be incorporated in social interactions (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:34; Cheng, 1996:352). The aim of such interactions is to facilitate the learner's willingness to engage in spontaneous interactions. In an informal manner, parents or caregivers can utilise interaction to create a language learning environment at home. Such informal interactions may foster not only ELoLT acquisition, but also L1 development and maintenance.

3.5.2.2 Ensure L1 maintenance and cultural support

Parents or caregivers are expected to support L1 and the learner's culture within the home environment. To understand the importance of L1 maintenance, parents or caregivers need to comprehend the dynamics of L2 acquisition, and how the CUP from L1 is transferred to ELoLT. Learners may demonstrate higher order thinking such as defining, generalising, hypothesising and abstraction in L1, but lack the CALP in English required to employ these same skills. High proficiency in L1, including the above-mentioned complex uses of language, will contribute to the development of L2. As role-players in ELoLT acquisition, it is generally believed that parents or caregivers should maintain and strengthen L1, thereby adding to the

learner's existing knowledge and cognitive skills (NAEYC, 1996:9; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42).

In South Africa, significant numbers of Black preschool learners with an L1 other than English attend English-medium preschools (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003: 122; De Klerk, 2002b:21). These preschoolers distinguish between English, as language of the school, and L1, as language of the home. The attitude of parents or caregivers towards L1 and its usage is of central importance in this transition. Preschool learners need to perceive their L1 to be respected and valued, which may be ensured by observing their parents' or caregivers' identification with, and positive attitudes towards their L1 (Makin et al., 1995:46). Some parents or caregivers, however, are unsure which language to use and have the perception that maintaining L1 is less important than learning English. These parents or caregivers often discourage the use of L1 to offer the learners more opportunities for learning English at home. Such a far-reaching decision of parents or caregivers is often based on misinformation about multilingualism, as current research highlights the importance of L1 maintenance (Romaine, 1996:598; Makin et al., 1995:73).

The sentiment of L1 maintenance is echoed in the position statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (1996:9). It states that the use of English at home could hinder communication and result in limited and unnatural verbal interaction between the parent or caregiver and learner. The learner hears a restricted amount of language that may limit vocabulary increase and reduce overall verbal expression (NAEYC, 1996:9), again highlighting the importance of L1 maintenance.

In the past, teachers in South Africa often encouraged parents or caregivers with EAL to speak English at home to multilingual learners to accelerate the acquisition of ELoLT (De Klerk, 2002b:21). Currently, most teachers have discontinued this practice, as determined in a study by De Klerk (2002b). During her interviews with school principals, they disclosed that they discourage the constant use of English at home for two reasons, namely the poor proficiency in English of some parents or caregivers, and the importance

of L1 to the self-esteem of learners (De Klerk, 2002b:21; 22). Similar results were reported by Brits (1996:90), who explored the knowledge of teachers in urban South Africa on L2 acquisition. She established that 17% of teachers in the study recommended non-English parents or caregivers to speak English at home, even though the parents or caregivers indicated that they had poor proficiency in English (Brits, 1996:90). As these parents or caregivers would not have been able to provide appropriate language models in English, this recommendation was inappropriate and probably based on misinformation of the teachers, highlighting the need for informed teachers.

When L1 is not supported, learners are unable to remain connected to their L1 and culture (NAEYC, 1996:9), which may result in cultural and linguistic assimilation (the shift from non-English to English), or even a full language shift (August & Hakuta, 1998:17). A full language shift in the South African context was identified by De Klerk (2002a) while investigating why Black parents or caregivers sent their children to ELoLT schools. Parents or caregivers involved in the study actively promoted the shift from IsiXhosa to English in their children. The reason for their indifference towards IsiXhosa was seated in the legacy of apartheid, because they still regarded the Black government schools with IsiXhosa as Mol, as ineffective. Their negativity towards IsiXhosa stems from their personal experiences with an educational system where little was done to encourage respect or enthusiasm for IsiXhosa (De Klerk, 2002a:11; 12). The parents' or caregivers' attitudes towards L1 were thus the dominant reason for not supporting L1 maintenance.

By demonstrating cultural norms, beliefs, and value systems, parents or caregivers as role-players in ELoLT acquisition provide the cultural support that builds the good self-esteem preschool learners need to function successfully in a multilingual, multicultural learning environment. Through this support of L1 and culture, parents or caregivers are in fact supporting the learning environment. To support the learning environment even further, the role of parents or caregivers needs to be expanded to include the provision of continuity between home and school.

3.5.2.3 Provide continuity between school and home

It is generally accepted that parents or caregivers need to be involved in learning activities at home, in support of the school with its limited teaching hours. Their alliance and educational support are critical for establishing a culture of learning at home. As one of the main objectives of education is literacy (RSA, 1997:11), and preliteracy skills are predictors of future academic success (Kriegler, 1990:68), parents or caregivers play a crucial role in the provision of literacy support to preschool learners (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:34).

Research suggests that a positive relationship exists between reading to learners and the development of language and literacy abilities (Hammer, Miccio & Wagstaff, 2003:21), therefore literacy activities at home, which include reading to learners, support the school towards raising educational standards (Locke, Ginsberg & Peers, 2002:3). There is evidence that reading partnerships of various kinds at home and at school can make a significant contribution to enhancing reading achievement (Cline, 2000:9). Even parents or caregivers who are not fluent in English could read to preschoolers in English, as the text in the book will contain linguistically correct sentences. Literate non-English parents or caregivers may read stories in their L1, whereas illiterate parents or caregivers may enlist other caregivers to read to the learners. All parents or caregivers, irrespective of social, economic, or cultural circumstances, need to expose preschoolers to books (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:34; Cheng, 1996:352; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:47; Macdonald, 1991:42). Pflaum (as cited by Thurman & Widerstrom, 1990:111) suggested the following activities to promote literacy development, including the development of print awareness, in preschool learners:

- The learner needs to be encouraged by parents or caregivers to look at picture books;

- the learner may be supported by parents or caregivers to tell the story from the pictures in storybooks;
- parents or caregivers may read stories to the learner, showing him or her the pictures;
- parents or caregivers may show the learner the printed words and explain their meanings in the story;
- the learner needs to be supported to understand that print and pictures have different functions;
- the learner may be asked to help predict what will happen next in the story;
- parents or caregivers may ask the learner to identify letters in the words found in the stories;
- parents or caregivers need to indicate to learners that some letters may be used repetitively in different words;
- parents or caregivers may encourage the learner to trace the words while they read aloud, moving in a left-right direction;
- parents or caregivers may teach the learner to recognise his or her own name and may indicate the different sounds represented by the letters in the name;
- parents or caregivers may explain punctuation and question marks in written examples and explain their use in writing and in texts;
- parents or caregivers may stress the letters in the words and the sound they represent when reading to a preschool learner.

Literacy development in English is vital for educational achievement as reading and writing are the basic tools for lifelong learning (Harris; 2003a:80). Reading and writing are based in language and the development thereof is a process that starts even before learners attend school, in the home environment (Harris, 2003a:81; Westby, 1990:228). Although there is an inextricable link between the development of spoken and written language in L1, as discussed earlier (Hammer et al., 2003:20), acquiring literacy is more complex when the L1 of learners differs from the school's Mol.

Parents or caregivers who support learners to acquire preliteracy skills in a spontaneous manner, not only support educational goals, but also the learners' needs. As they work together with the school to achieve the greatest benefit for all learners, parents or caregivers need to respect and reinforce preschool programmes. However, they cannot support the multilingual learner on their own, but also need the teacher's involvement to achieve the desired outcome of proficiency in ELoLT.

3.5.3 The role of preschool teachers

Preschool teachers are viewed to be the second major role-players in the acquisition of ELoLT by preschool learners. As learners spend many of their waking hours with teachers, their experiences under the guidance of the teachers will have an impact on the learners' social, emotional, cognitive, and ELoLT development (NAEYC, 1996:6).

Preschool teachers have special knowledge, acquired through training, of education in early childhood (preschool phase). They are also knowledgeable about preschool learners as a result of continuous observation of these learners and can assess learners in natural situations (Du Plessis, 1998b:53). Bredenkamp (as cited by Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:29) described the competencies of preschool teachers as follows:

- Teachers need to demonstrate and apply a basic understanding of learner development, including the observation and assessment of individual learners;
- teachers need to plan and implement developmentally appropriate curricula;
- teachers need to establish supportive relationships with learners and implement appropriate guidance and group management;
- teachers need to establish positive and productive relationships with parents or caregivers;
- teachers need to support the individuality of each learner and recognise that learners are best understood in the context of family, culture, and society;
- teachers need to demonstrate basic understanding of the early childhood profession and make a commitment to the profession.

The question arises whether these abilities are sufficient to teach in the current South African situation, where schools have become multilingual and English L1 learners attend school with ELoLT learners (Barkhuizen, 1993:269). Preschool teachers are placed in the predicament of teaching in English, knowing that all learners will not comprehend the content of their teaching (Macdonald, 1991:19).

Currently, South African preschool teachers are faced with more and more demands at all levels (Cunningham, 2001:213). Preschool teachers are expected to have sophisticated knowledge of subject matter and a wide repertoire of teaching strategies. Moreover, they need to be familiar with learning theory, cognition, pedagogy, curriculum, technology, assessment, and programmes. The South African context further requires preschool

teachers to understand multiple languages, and socio-cultural and developmental backgrounds (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124). It is clear that multilingual classrooms present a challenge to teachers.

Diedricks (1997) interviewed teachers to determine their perspectives on multilingualism in South African classrooms, and found that the educational situation described by the teachers hampered both their learners and themselves. Teachers reported that multilingualism in the classroom was stressful, as they felt isolated and untrained for the situation. They also stated that multilingual learners hindered the effective flow of activities in the classroom. Barkhuizen (1993:271) reported that teachers felt frustrated and even resentful towards multilingual learners, as they were unable to cope with the situation in their classes. These two reports indicate the urgent need for teacher guidance on the management of multilingual classrooms. The motivation of teachers needs to be restored, as they are important role-players and are required to support ELoLT learners. Although solutions were not evident, the teachers interviewed by Diedricks (1997) considered these challenges as opportunities to respond to the needs of linguistically and culturally diverse learners (Diedricks, 1997:viv). If teachers are familiar with the unique characteristics and needs of learners, they may construct a classroom context accommodating these needs (Cele, 2001:189; NAEYC, 1996:7; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42). Preschool teachers may therefore create a learning environment which provides conditions for support and creates a challenge to their learners – a positive learning environment for education and learner motivation.

3.5.3.1 Promote social interaction

As social interaction is central to language learning (Makin et al., 1995:xxxix) and is one of the identified needs of multilingual preschool learners, it is an important aspect to consider in the acquisition of ELoLT in the South African preschool. Learners absorb and process language input better in an encouraging atmosphere (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:21; Turner, 1993:79). The role of the preschool teacher is, therefore, to create a positive, non-

threatening environment for ELoLT learning (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:45). A sympathetic, warm, secure environment provides the foundation from which preschool learners can move into communication participation when they are ready (Tabors, 1997:105; Mills & Mills; 1993:79).

Preschool teachers may utilise the preschool classroom to facilitate ELoLT development through social interaction among preschoolers. In this way, peer interaction is facilitated, which may vary from single peer interaction to integration and socialisation in a larger group of learners (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:147; 205). Smalle-Moodie (1997) strongly recommends peer-tutoring as teaching strategy in the classroom (as described in Section 2.3.4). Through peer-tutoring, multilingual learners may practise ELoLT skills and actively participate in the learning process (Smalle-Moodie, 1997:70). Peer interaction may take a variety of forms depending on the cultural background of the learners. As interactions may vary from highly verbal to a great deal of non-verbal physical contact, teachers' tolerance of such behaviour needs to be taken into account. Teachers who see their role as authoritarian and controlling are less likely to allow such interaction, whereas teachers who interpret their role as facilitators may incorporate this in the learning situation.

Adult-learner interactions form a large part of the preschool programme. For ELoLT acquisition, the interactions need to be participating, democratic, and activity based (Heugh et al., 1995:16). The needs of ELoLT learners may be met within the environment of the preschool classroom by teachers who provide them with activities and material to lead them towards understanding and speaking English (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:125). Such principles of natural language learning are also embraced in the Whole Language approach. The informal, concrete, play environment of the preschool is used by the learner to scout and discover, and ELoLT acquisition is promoted through social interaction (Calitz, 1993:110).

3.5.3.2 Provide cultural support

As mentioned previously, South Africa is a multicultural society evolving from a history where multiculturalism could not be celebrated because of the separation of cultures. With schools currently being integrated, teachers need to be sensitive to the cultural and linguistic needs of their learners, as the learners' development may be negatively affected if cultural habits are not further developed in school (Gumba, 2001:233-236; Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:125; Macdonald, 1993:26). The teachers' attitudes, knowledge base, and cultural competence may be crucial when setting educational goals of acceptance and appreciation of diversity.

In future, teachers' sensitivity towards cultural diversity in multilingual classes may be promoted by the introduction of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) by the DoE (RSA, 2003:3). The main objective of this document is to improve the quality of learning and teaching by setting certain performance standards expected from teachers, including inclusive strategies and the promotion of respect for diversity. Individual teachers will be appraised according to the IQMS standards to determine areas of strengths and weaknesses and to draw up programmes for individual development (RSA, 2003:3).

In the multilingual education of post-apartheid South Africa, the challenge is to introduce the school's culture, while preserving and respecting the diverse mother tongues and cultures of its learners. Preschools therefore need to strive towards achieving an equilibrium between the school and home cultures. Cultivating and developing a multicultural approach to teaching require a change of attitude and a commitment from teachers to adapt curriculum content thus that it is culturally relevant and appropriate (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:78).

The recognition that multilingual preschool learners are emotionally connected to their languages and cultures is important (NAEYC, 1996:7). From such recognition flows respect through the modelling of the appreciation of diversity

(Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:513; NAEYC, 1996:4). References in class to the heritage of other cultures make ELoLT learners feel appreciated (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121). Teachers who can code-switch to learners' L1 (although complex in South Africa as teachers may theoretically have eleven languages represented in one class) may communicate to the learners that the teachers are aware of them as persons, that the worth of their L1 is acknowledged, and that value is ascribed to their culture (Viljoen & Molefe 2001:125). By incorporating the ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity of the nation in preschool programmes, preschool learners will feel valued, and prejudice and stereotyping, created by simply ignoring differences, may be prevented (Combrink, 1996:9). In this way, a society tolerant of other cultures in a multilingual, multicultural country like South Africa may be created (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:83).

3.5.3.3. Provide language stimulation

In the responsive environment of the preschool, the role of preschool teachers in ELoLT acquisition is not only to provide language *input*, but also to provide appropriate *feedback*. Feedback usually entails, among others, the repetition, expansion, and modification of the learners' utterances (Tabors, 1997:128; Brits, 1996:17; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:193; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:45). To provide focused stimulation and feedback on a particular language feature, teachers need to be aware of the specific language abilities in L1 and L2 of each learner. This implies that preschool teachers require knowledge of L1 and L2 acquisition.

All preschool teachers, however, have not been trained in the theories of additional language acquisition (Green, 1997:147). As teacher training may not currently equip preschool teachers with the principles of language *acquisition*, some teachers may lack the skills to support ELoLT acquisition (Lemmer, 1995:88; Nieman, 1995:297). As coping strategy, teachers often resort to rote learning and drill to teach ELoLT (De Klerk, 2002b, 18; Brits, 1996:101; Lemmer, 1995:88). This was confirmed in a study by Brits (1996) who explored teachers' knowledge of additional language acquisition in the

South African urban context. Brits (1996) found that teachers viewed language drill to be a technique to improve the communication abilities of ELoLT learners, and admitted to using drill quite often for the same reason (Brits, 1996:101). In the literature, inappropriate drill and skills approaches are, however, regarded as the least effective programmes for ELoLT acquisition, as such practices may confuse learners and intervene with the natural developmental progression of L2 acquisition (Tabors, 1997:147; Soto, 1991:33). Brits (1996:101) reached the conclusion that teachers need to be encouraged to facilitate ELoLT acquisition through more indirect techniques and incidental learning.

Preschool teachers may facilitate ELoLT proficiency in preschool learners with innovative L2 teaching skills, and may manipulate the learning structure by organising activities to target specific responses and language behaviour. Teachers provide a language model, and may regulate their input to learners in order to increase the probability of reciprocal communication. They may provide a hierarchy of prompt levels by modelling, physical support, and verbal elicitations (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:45).

The naturalistic setting of the preschool provides the best opportunities to facilitate the development of language content, form, and use (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:189-192). To incorporate all three of these components when planning a lesson, may, however, be difficult for preschool teachers, as shown by Du Plessis (1998b). It was indicated that preschool teachers could plan language content rather well, but language form and use were not adequately planned in language lessons. The conclusion was reached that preschool teachers may require support in planning all three components of language development (Du Plessis, 1998b; 134). A similar sentiment was expressed by Nieman (1994:15), who advocates that lessons for ELoLT acquisition in South African preschools need to be planned with the support of knowledgeable professionals with specific skills in language acquisition.

When planning individual language goals for learners, teachers require individual language profiles to indicate the current linguistic abilities of

learners and to note progress (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:357). This implies that the ELoLT skills of preschool learners need to be assessed to assist preschool teachers in planning their language goals. Although the assessment of language is a complex endeavour that requires relevant knowledge from the assessor, the informal observations and documentation by teachers may be extremely useful in the assessment of preschool learners. Teachers often apply the model of Dynamic Assessment where learners are assessed while performing tasks taken directly from the classroom content, and where teachers observe the learners' progress during intervention (Lidz & Peña, 1996:368). The model agrees with the recommendations in the RNCS that curriculum and assessment be aligned (RSA, 2002:1-7).

The recognition of specific patterns of linguistic errors in ELoLT by multilingual preschoolers may provide teachers with information to plan appropriate language stimulation in their lessons. Speech-language therapists may assist preschool teachers in the analysis of language errors and may assume responsibility for collecting, analysing, and synthesising language assessment information, as well as presenting the results to the teachers. The relevance of insight into learners' linguistic errors lies in the potential that knowledge of the nature of errors may enable the teacher to plan input to diminish or prevent them (Nxumalo, 1997:1). In addition, knowledge of the specific characteristics of linguistic errors by ELoLT learners may assist preschool teachers to distinguish between normal ELoLT development (language difference), as opposed to pathological development (language deficiency), which might warrant intervention.

The preschool teacher plays a critical role in the lives of the multilingual preschool learner and has as primary focus the needs of the learner. Since ELoLT acquisition was identified as an important educational need in multilingual preschool learners in preparation for formal schooling, the preschool teachers need to foster this goal of ELoLT development. Although teachers and parents or caregivers may assist each other in support of the learners, they may require assistance in planning, developing, and implementing learning activities to enhance ELoLT acquisition. The next

section describes how speech-language therapists may employ their skills to support teachers in fulfilling their role with ELoLT preschoolers in South Africa.

3.5.4 The role of speech-language therapists

As the client population of speech-language therapists in a democratic South Africa is increasingly diverse, it compelled them to reflect on their role in the changing context. Apart from the changing working environment, changes within the discipline have also occurred that necessitate continuous adaptation (Seymour, 1998:108). There is a rapid rate of growth in knowledge and technique, and a better and broader understanding of the human communication process has developed (Apel, 2001a:149). The advances in the discipline of Communication Pathology opened the door for interdisciplinary cross fertilisation in research, test formulation, and intervention procedures, as an awareness developed that more can be achieved together (Seymour, 1998:103;104).

In the discipline of Communication Pathology, the concept of speech pathology has remained fairly constant and includes articulation, phonology, voice, and fluency. The understanding of what constitutes language, however, has expanded since the 1970's, and the concept of language development in preschoolers has broadened from vocabulary and grammar development to include pragmatics, discourse, preliteracy, phonemic awareness, and print concepts (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:284; 285). Theoretically, a wide scope exists for speech-language therapists in schools as they are able to support learners' language needs. Language forms part of almost every learning area, and the curriculum statements require learners to use language to gain knowledge, to demonstrate their knowledge in specific content areas, and as a means of enquiry (Lewis, 2004:37; 38). Multilingual learners with potential linguistic barriers to learning and development may therefore be particularly challenged across the curriculum.

The multilingualism of learners in South African schools prompted teachers to express the need for support (Soto, 1991:32). Despite speech-language

therapists' comprehensive knowledge of language development, they first had to request clarification of their role in working with these learners (ASHA, 1998:24) to ensure their compliance with the Code of Ethics, composed by international and national professional associations. In this regard, ASHA leads the way by setting standards and defining the Code of Ethics for professionals in the field of human communications (ASHA, 1998:24; Seymour, 1998:104). In a Position Statement in 1998 (ASHA, 1998:24), ASHA expanded the scope of speech-language therapists to include populations who are linguistically diverse in their practice. The South African Speech-Language and Hearing Association (SASLHA) followed suit and, in 2003, issued guidelines regulating local intervention with multilingual populations (SASLHA, 2003). These guidelines clarified the current role of therapists in South Africa serving multilingual clients. This role definition stipulated that speech-language therapists may work within the scope of their knowledge base, skills, competencies, and education in service delivery to multilingual learners.

To fulfil their role appropriately, a different service delivery model – as opposed to the individual, direct, specialised support speech-language therapists currently provide to learners - may have to be adopted because of the enormous need of multilingual learners (Lewis, 2004:37). The traditional role of the speech-language therapist to assess, intervene, and monitor change in learners' language development in isolation may have to be extended to support a wider group of learners experiencing barriers in ELoLT development. The move towards *Inclusive education* as an educational model, based on the principle that all learners have the right to learn and that all learners need support in order to learn, highlights the need for change in the nature of speech-language services to include all learners (Lewis, 2004:36). As speech-language therapists redefine their role to interventionists serving learners with needs in acquiring additional languages, intervention moves closer to the classroom context, as described in Chapter Four.

It is concluded that role-players are decision makers who need to make informed decisions on behalf of ELoLT preschool learners. Relevant

knowledge about varying policies and practices for the acquisition of language in the early childhood needs to form the basis for the decision-making and planning of appropriate support to multilingual preschool learners.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The need of the multilingual preschooler in urban South Africa to acquire proficiency in ELoLT needs to be addressed urgently by all role-players involved. Such proficiency would enable the learners to increase their communication skills and cognitive flexibility in a multilingual environment. However, learners do not acquire an L2 effortlessly (Robb, 1995:22). Role-players need to intervene in ways that stimulate and support language development, always taking into account the specific and unique needs of the preschool learner acquiring ELoLT.

Many parents in South Africa rely on educators to teach their children English. They also expect teachers to support the cultural values and norms of the home. Cultural diversity is, however, often viewed by teachers as a challenge rather than an opportunity, as they had no professional preparation in the areas of culture and diversity (NAEYC, 1996:9-10). It is clear that learner diversity challenges the educational system, and teachers feel overwhelmed by the complex educational problems arising in multilingual schools. As excellently prepared teachers are pivotal to the success of education, their needs for support and knowledge should be addressed.

Traditionally, role-players and decision makers in multilingual education in South Africa *did not* support teachers. This resulted in teachers often feeling demotivated by the excessive demands they are expected to meet. Some teachers believe that the multidimensional nature of multilingualism may have been oversimplified, underestimated, and obscured by ideological rhetoric (Lemmer, 1995:94). While changes have been made to the political system in South Africa, educational problems have not been solved automatically (Macdonald, 1991:27).

The South African educational system needs to be transformed to positively change the perceived inferior status of the teaching corps. Teacher empowerment needs to include appropriate training programmes, as well as adapted school language policies in which management, parents or caregivers, and all teaching and educational support staff assume responsibility for creating a school environment that supports ELoLT learning. Such programmes offer shared ownership of problems and solutions and need to be initiated to replace the current situation of crises management in some schools. Educational reform in the spirit of *Tirisano* needs to be promoted, thereby meeting the challenge of educating all South African multilingual learners.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter described the importance of language acquisition for learning in the early academic phases of school, and the way in which role-players could facilitate ELoLT acquisition during the preschool years. Parents or caregivers and preschool teachers were identified as primary role-players. The needs of the learners were placed central to the discussion, and the support that parents or caregivers and teachers are required to offer in acquiring ELoLT was discussed. Speech-language therapists were identified as role-players in intervention. The aim of the chapter was to establish the individual roles and the specific support needed by the role-players to form a basis for the next chapter in which collaborative partnerships to ELoLT acquisition are explored.

CHAPTER 4

COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS IN AN INCLUSIVE APPROACH TO THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

A mind that is stretched by a new experience can never go back to its old dimensions (Holmes, as cited by Apel, 2001a:96).

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The role-players who are involved with multilingual learners acquiring ELoLT in the South African context are challenged to adopt new and expanded roles in intervention. To meet this challenge, they need to determine the most appropriate manner in which they can provide effective services to multilingual learners in the larger school context.

Political changes in South Africa have had an impact on education which resulted in culturally and linguistically diverse school populations. In addition, global trends of limited resources and a rising awareness of human rights have combined in the movement towards *inclusive education*. South Africa's Department of Education (DoE) responded to this movement by releasing White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education in July 2001, which introduced inclusive education to South Africa (Swart, 2004:232).

Inclusive education acknowledges that all learners are different and have different learning needs, and advocates that *all* learners, irrespective of their diverse needs, be accommodated in inclusive classrooms (Lewis, 2004:37). The fact that *all* learners need to be accommodated indicates that inclusive education is not only about learners with disabilities (Van Rooyen, Le Grange

& Newmark, 2004:6), but also includes ELoLT learners with their specific linguistic needs.

The phrase *all learners* further implies that inclusive education accommodates individual differences in *preschool learners*. According to Eloff (2001:68), numerous studies have revealed successful inclusion of learners at preschool level. These studies mostly reported more appropriate social interaction and increased levels of social play in learners with learning and developmental needs. Clinical practice indicates that these preschool learners have been accommodated relatively successfully in South African preschools. This successful inclusion in preschools, where informal, less structured programmes are followed, may be ascribed to the fact that less academic demands are made on preschoolers, allowing preschool learners with diverse needs to progress through the preschool years with more ease than learners with diverse needs during the formal school phases.

As language is integrally involved in reading, writing, and academic achievement in the formal school phases (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:285), the DoE stated in White Paper 6 that special efforts need to be made in inclusive education to address learning barriers arising from, among others, differences in learners' home language (L1) and schools' Medium of Instruction (Mol) (RSA, 2001b:49). Currently, the most effective approach to support these learners in their challenge to acquire proficiency in the schools' Mol – which is often English – appears to be the Whole Language approach, in which all learning areas are used as opportunities to expand learners' language skills. This is also known as *language across the curriculum* or *integrated language instruction* (Genesee & Cloud, 1998:63; 64).

Inclusive education and the Whole Language approach can only be successful if role-players collaborate and are supported to create learning environments that meet the needs of learners acquiring ELoLT (Swart, 2004:233). To provide comprehensive support to learners, the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) proposed a

partnership between teachers and educational support professionals (RSA, 1997:64). Collaborative partnerships provide role-players, such as preschool teachers, speech-language therapists, and parents or caregivers, opportunities to share knowledge and skills in the interest of every ELoLT learner.

Such collaboration is an effective process for problem solving and consensus building between professionals from different disciplines (Hixson, 1993:43). In collaboration, the different professionals are released from their traditional roles and ideas are shared (Throneburg, Calvert, Sturm, Paramboulas & Paul, 2000:17). Collaboration provides a bridge that merges their separate knowledge domains into a new and expanded vision of the learner. In the preschool context, collaboration in language intervention primarily involves speech-language therapists, preschool teachers, and parents or caregivers sharing assessment data, intervention planning, and language facilitation. The benefits of collaboration between team members are numerous, such as creative problem solving (Mafisa, 2001:37; Venter, 1998:44), facilitating language abilities outside the therapeutic situation (Hadley, Simmerman, Long & Luna, 2000:291; Venter, 1998:44), the generalisation of language skills to the classroom curriculum and home setting (Throneburg et al., 2000:10; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:157;194; Hixson, 1993:45), increasing speech-language therapists' knowledge about the curriculum (Throneburg et al., 2000:10), increasing teachers' strategies for learners acquiring ELoLT (Mafisa, 2001:37; Throneburg et al., 2000:10), actively involving parents or caregivers in the educational process (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:157), creating a positive school climate, and fostering team work (Mafisa, 2001:37).

In the South African urban preschool context, collaboration has an additional advantage in that a larger population of *at risk* learners could be reached and served, and disadvantaged learners who do not have the financial means for therapy could be reached through teachers incorporating team knowledge into their own skills (Hadley et al., 2000:291). Ultimately, collaboration could result in a better outcome for the individual ELoLT learner than could be achieved by role-players addressing the learner's linguistic needs in isolation.

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of collaboration between speech-language therapists and teachers in the South African preschool and formal school contexts, and to discuss collaboration against the background of interaction in an eco-systemic model, inclusive education, and the specifications of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS). The role of speech-language therapists in a collaborative approach towards assessment, intervention planning, and language development in ELoLT acquisition is described and the process of role release highlighted. Barriers to collaboration are explored to provide insight into obstacles that may prevent successful collaboration.

4.2 AN ECO-SYSTEMIC MODEL

An eco-systemic model presents a systems theory to understand the complex interrelationships between individual learners and their contexts, and a developmental model to understand individual change and growth in learners over time (Green, 2001:3). A learner's development results from interaction between the learner and his or her environment, and the learner's behaviour evolves as a function of this interaction (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:16). In a systems theory, the individual multilingual learner exhibits behaviours that result in actions or changes, reflecting the learner's relationship to the surrounding environment. Such a theory therefore provides a useful way of understanding the complex influences and interactions apparent in education, schools and classrooms.

The multilingual preschool learner can simultaneously be part of a number of systems, for example a caregiver system, a school system, and a peer system. All of these systems contribute to the multilingual learners' lives by offering opportunities and imposing constraints (Green, 2001:7). This means that factors in any of the contexts may contribute to potential language problems experienced by the multilingual learners and create barriers to ELoLT acquisition (RSA, 1997:54). These barriers may be created by factors relating to the multilingual learners themselves, family life, classroom and school dynamics, education factors, community processes, or social factors.

On the other hand, the contexts may provide a responsive learning environment to the multilingual learner, where problem solving and development come from within. Such an asset-based approach is by implication an approach within the eco-systemic model (Eloff, 2001:75). A visual representation of the preschool learner within an eco-systemic model is presented in Figure 4.1.

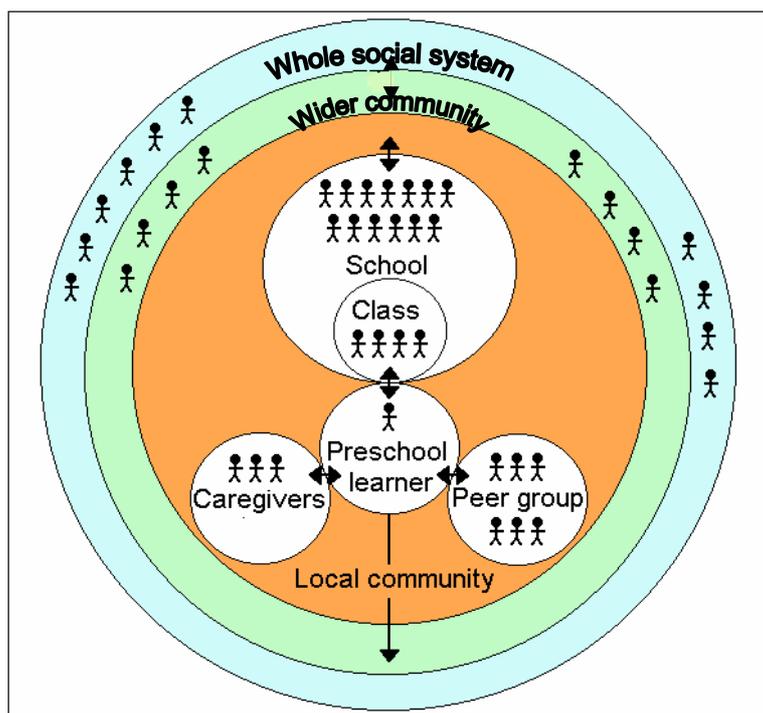


FIGURE 4.1: THE LEARNER IN AN ECO-SYSTEMIC MODEL

Source: Green (2001: 9).

Figure 4.1 illustrates that human society is conceptualised in the eco-systemic model as a system with different levels that are in constant and dynamic interaction. The causative patterns in the system are recursive or circular rather than linear, indicating the essential interrelatedness and interdependence of the phenomena (Engelbrecht, 2001:21; Nelson, 1998:16). For multilingual preschool learners, systems such as the school or home have the capacity to function as contexts for development, depending on the existence and nature of social interrelations between systems – including joint participation, communication, and sharing of information between parents or caregivers and preschool teachers (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:6). This highlights

the importance of parents or caregivers and preschool teachers interacting with preschool learners, and the equal importance of interconnectedness between individuals in the school and home systems.

The multilingual preschool learner is primarily part of the dynamic system of his or her family or primary caregivers. This system consists of several subsystems of individuals who interact with each other. Although families have common characteristics, the boundaries of a system may differ across cultures (Battle & Anderson, 1998:217). Educational changes in the multilingual preschool learner may affect the family system, and it may be important to facilitate the family's active involvement with such changes. Empowering the parents or caregivers through their involvement in education develops their role as active decision makers in the educational process (Tiegerman–Farber, 1995:43), and may result in a responsive environment for ELoLT acquisition at home.

Besides the family or primary caregivers system, the school, and specifically the preschool, is the only other system that serves as a comprehensive context for individual development from the early years (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:132; 164). Bronfenbrenner (1979:165) states unequivocally that, from an eco-systemic viewpoint, the impact of preschools on family systems and society at large may have greater consequence than any direct effects for the development of individuals in modern societies. According to Green (2001:3), an eco-systemic understanding of issues is important in the accommodation of preschool learners in South African preschools, as barriers to learning and development in these learners do not necessarily reside only in themselves, but may also reside within the learning system.

From an eco-systemic perspective, external barriers to effective learning and development, such as social and economic issues, may also have an impact on learning (Green, 2001:13). Addressing both internal and external systems may therefore be vital in the accommodation of multilingual learners with diverse needs. As a result of the dynamic interconnectedness between systems, support professionals, like speech-language therapists, have to

realise that their services to preschool learners, instead of being provided in isolation, need to be seen as an integral part of the social system within which they function (Engelbrecht, 2001:19, 21). To create change in preschoolers' language behaviour, an integrated perspective of the learner's abilities by all professional disciplines, as well as parents or caregivers, needs to be established. Intervention planning therefore needs to be based on a valid assessment of the multilingual learner as a participant within a complex system of environments, interacting individuals, and expectations, and requires collaboration from all role-players, including speech-language therapists (Hixson, 1993:44).

To bridge the worlds of home, school and clinical setting, speech-language therapists in South Africa may have to modify their intervention approach and extend their professional capacities to include eco-systemic and inclusive values, within a holistic approach to service delivery (Engelbrecht, 2001: 21;22). This approach requires a change from rational thinking about linear relationships to holistic thinking about interactions (Nelson, 1998:18). Such reorientation necessitates interdisciplinary collaboration, bringing together different systems and coordinating support within an eco-systemic framework (Engelbrecht, 2001:22). Changes in speech-language therapists' attitudes, roles, and practices may result in a better understanding of multilingual preschool learners and their unique learning and developmental needs. It is particularly important to employ an eco-systemic approach in the interpretation of inclusive education, where educators and therapists have to understand the importance of context and how to adapt the school system to accommodate learners with diverse needs.

4.3 INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

The term *inclusive education* describes the educational policies and practices that allow all learners to have access to a single education system responsive to diversity (Green, 2001:4; RSA, 1997:54). This philosophy of inclusive education has been adopted by numerous countries around the globe (Swart, 2004:231). In South Africa, inclusive education was adopted, among others, to

eradicate the inequities of apartheid, where segregation of learners on the basis of race was extended to incorporate segregation on the basis of disability (RSA, 2001b:9). Inclusive education in South Africa is seen as a call for action to establish a caring and humane society that embraces the principles of social justice, educational equity, and school responsiveness (Swart, 2004:232).

In South Africa, inclusive education is shaped by two major policy developments, namely White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education and the RNCS (Lewis, 2004:37). The core agenda is to make it possible for all learners to access the curriculum. All schools have to respond to learner diversity by transforming the curriculum and to minimise, remove, and prevent barriers to learning and development (Oosthuizen, 1998:4). The system, rather than the learners, therefore has to change. A realistic time frame of 20 years for the implementation of inclusive education was proposed in 2001, the target being 380 special schools, 500 full-service schools and colleges, district support teams, and 280 000 out-of-school learners and youths by 2021 (RSA, 2001b:42; 43).

This vision of inclusive education differs from policies implemented in the past, for example *integration*, where learning needs were supported through additional input in unchanged mainstream classrooms (Swart, 2004:236; Prozesky, 1999:24), and *mainstreaming*, which suggested that learners had to conform to fit the school system (Prozesky: 1999:24). In both these policies, learners were supported by specialist professionals who used a pull-out model with which support was focused on changing the learner to fit into the system (Swart, 2004:236). In inclusive education, the support services will have to be appropriate and adequate for this new philosophy of *changing the learning environment*. One of the most important insights emerging from the policy of inclusive education is that the focus will be shifted from learners' weaknesses to emphasising and building on their strengths. This approach is in agreement with the asset-based approach that focuses on individuals' capacities, skills, and assets rather than weaknesses and problems (Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2001:149; 151).

An important asset and the best predictor of the successful implementation of inclusive education in South Africa may be the positive attitude of teachers. In a study investigating these sentiments, Prozesky (1999) found that South African teachers, although accepting the philosophy of inclusion, were ignorant about the contents of the policy. They had no previous training in inclusion, but were willing to participate in interdisciplinary teamwork to facilitate learners with barriers to learning and development (Prozesky, 1999:81). Such teamwork, where teachers and various educational support professionals collaborate in effective working relationships to enhance the development of the teaching and learning environment, is endorsed by the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) (RSA, 1997:60). This collaborative approach poses many challenges and opportunities to all educational support professionals, including speech-language therapists, as it provides the opportunity for sharing knowledge and skills with teachers to the benefit of every learner.

Education support professionals are challenged to move away from the medical deficit approach to learning and educational needs, and to adopt an approach that combines the unique knowledge and skills of all team members involved (Engelbrecht, 2001:18; 19). If support professionals in education can address the challenges of change and adopt a collaborative team approach, they may have an important role to play in supporting *all learners* in an inclusive education system (Engelbrecht, 2001:19). Creating the ideal inclusive learning environment for learners requires an inclusive school climate, a shared vision, and a culture of collaboration among all professionals involved in education.

4.4 COLLABORATIVE INTERVENTION

The collaborative approach to intervention in inclusive education empowers team members through participation, as opposed to external experts solving problems and forcing decisions on others (Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2001:149).

Professional team members who have been trained as experts in a particular discipline may experience domain conflicts when other professionals attempt to cross disciplinary borders. In order to adopt a collaborative team approach, a change in rules, responsibilities, perceptions, and behaviour is required from educational support professionals. Speech-language therapists, in particular, have been challenged to move away from a problem-orientated approach, to extend the nature of their professional activities, and to adopt a contextually relevant approach within the South African preschool context (Engelbrecht, 2001:22; 24).

In 1993, the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) recognised collaborative intervention in the discipline of Communication Pathology as an appropriate model for communication intervention, and guided interdisciplinary collaboration in intervention. Speech-language therapists were advised to integrate the learners' therapy with academic skills and expand their role into the classroom (Farber & Klein, 1999:83; Seymour, 1998:103). Although the new directions pointed to the sharing of responsibilities for learners' success, and were much debated in the 1990s (Christensen & Lockett, 1990; Norris & Hoffman, 1990; Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Ellis, Schlaudecker & Regimbal, 1995), the question arose whether collaboration could be successfully implemented. A recent study by Hadley et al. (2000) in the United States of America (USA) added to the growing literature on collaboration in which researchers explored the effectiveness of collaboration in vocabulary development and phonological awareness of preschool learners. After a six-month period of weekly joint curriculum planning by the speech-language therapist and the preschool teacher, superior gains were noted in the learners' receptive vocabulary, expressive vocabulary, beginning-sound awareness, and letter-sound associations (Hadley et al., 2000:280). This research serves as an example of successful collaboration.

In South Africa, it is widely accepted that speech-language therapists play a central role in meeting multilingual preschool learners' linguistic needs within a collaborative approach to support. However, schools in urban South Africa

appear to be lagging behind, despite the promise shown by collaboration between speech-language therapists and teachers in language intervention. Venter (1998) conducted research on South African speech-language therapists' collaboration intervention practices in ELoLT acquisition, and found that they had limited consultation and collaboration with teachers. In fact, only 27% of speech-language therapists in the study were involved in any form of collaboration at all. Venter (1998:114) speculated that the reasons for non-collaboration might be the therapists' limited knowledge of L2 development, their burden of large case-loads, or, alternatively, therapists being unapproachable. Venter (1998) maintained that the teachers were unaware of their own needs and, consequently, not prepared or receptive for consultation and collaboration. Barriers to consultation therefore existed in both professions, which prevent them from creating a positive environment for collaboration.

Collaboration between speech-language therapists, teachers, and parents or caregivers creates an effective process by which a valid description of the learner's abilities may be established (ASHA, 1998:26; Hixson, 1993:48), and provides the basis for shared planning so that curricula may be adapted to meet learners' needs. Shared planning also reduces the exclusion of speech-language therapists from the curricula (Engelbrecht, 2001:17). Collaborative planning enables speech-language therapists to modify the English language input in the classroom, making it more comprehensible to learners with limited English proficiency. Teachers may also be assisted by therapists to modify their own language input, and may be empowered with knowledge of techniques and approaches to language intervention (Venter, 1998:39; Jordaan, 1993:57; Meyers, 1993:49-54). In such collaboration, the teacher remains responsible for the planning of activities to meet the curriculum goals (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:354; Hadley et al., 2000:281; 285; ASHA, 1998:26).

In the South African urban preschool context, Du Plessis (1998b) found that collaborative planning between speech-language therapists and preschool teachers resulted in more appropriate language lessons when compared to individually prepared lessons. The conclusion was reached that collaboration

between these two professions requires adaptations and role release from both, the most significant being the teacher having to release autonomy of her classroom (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:235; Du Plessis, 1998b:62), and speech-language therapists requiring a better understanding of the classroom context and curriculum in order to provide appropriate support to teachers (Lewis, 2004:37). Successful collaborative intervention in inclusive education therefore depends on a shared understanding of the curriculum. The challenge in South African preschools remains to define the roles of team members within inclusive education and to utilise all the available expertise in a collaborative approach with shared responsibility (Engelbrecht, 2001:24).

An important part of a collaborative effort is to expose preschool learners to various contexts and situations which may provide them with opportunities to generalise their language skills across systems and disciplines. Collaboration between teachers, speech-language therapists, and parents or caregivers is critical for such generalisation of skills. The natural setting of the home represents the learners' primary system and needs to be mobilised to facilitate newly acquired language skills (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:198; 203). In addition to being facilitators, parents or caregivers need to be allowed to function as decision makers, thereby contributing to the collaborative team effort. In collaborative decision making, professional team members, such as teachers and speech-language therapists, need to reach mutual decisions with parents or caregivers, thus employing the individual expertise of *all* team members to meet the learners' learning and developmental needs (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:54).

Interdisciplinary support teams need to be established with the shared objective of teaching and learning providing the foundation for collaboration between speech-language therapists, teachers, and parents or caregivers (Lewis, 2004:37). These teams need to meet regularly to develop inclusive practices in schools (Swart, 2004:239), and such meetings need to be accommodated in the team members' working schedule. In Figure 4.2 the proposed amount of time allocated for planning in speech-language therapists' working schedules is compared to their other functions in the

school context to give an indication of their role in a collaborative approach to language intervention.

Figure 4.2 illustrates how collaboration with preschool teachers can be accommodated in the speech-language therapist's working schedule. Different *bases of needs* were used in the allocation of time that may ultimately result in a better outcome for individual learners than when addressing their learning and developmental needs in isolation. In a collaborative approach to intervention, the supporting role of speech-language therapists may focus on learner-based needs, class-based needs, teacher/therapist-based needs, and school-based needs (Wren et al., 2001: 109). To address these needs and to fulfil their role in collaborative teams, speech-language therapists' involvement ranges from direct contact with learners to the provision of service on an indirect level through consultation. At the least direct level (school-based needs), system-centred consultation may focus on collaborative system-wide efforts of the school to respond to learners' language needs, for example when speech-language therapists share information on language acquisition with a large number of teachers (Engelbrecht, 2001:25;26).

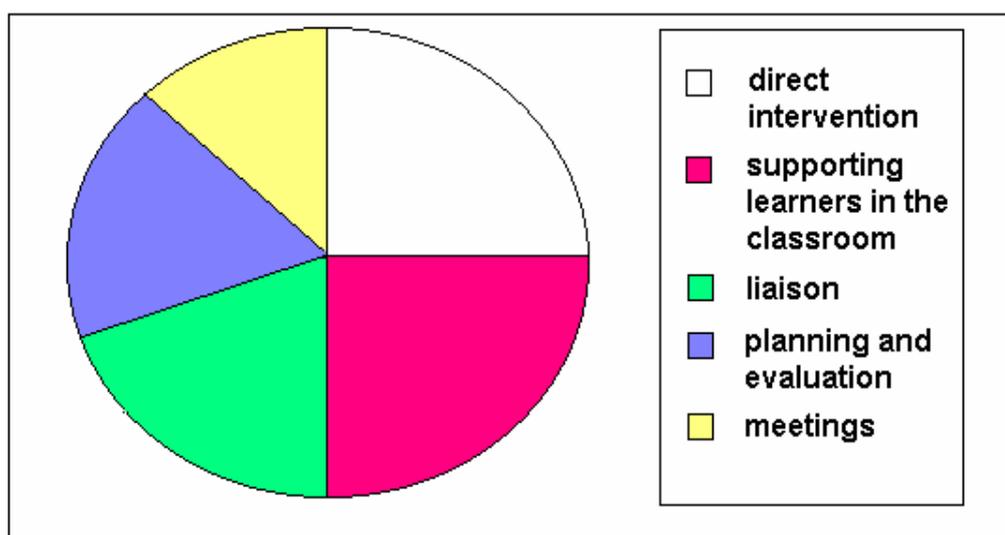


FIGURE 4.2: PROPOSED ALLOCATION OF SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPIST'S TIME SPENT IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

Source: Adapted from Wren, Roulstone, Parkhouse and Hall (2001:112).

The time allocations proposed in Figure 4.2 may be presented to school principals to create an understanding of the demanding professional functions that collaborative teamwork requires from speech-language therapists, apart from their direct intervention with learners. Collaboration requires support from principals to provide teams with time to plan, discuss, share, and develop roles, rules, and responsibilities (Swart & Pettipher, 2001:39). Without the support of management, collaborative intervention cannot be applied (ASHA, 1991:46). In fact, school principals need to be integral members of collaborative service delivery teams. As team members, principals need to be role models and support collaborative decisions to establish inclusive climates and cultures at schools (Swart & Pettipher, 2001:39).

Collaborative partnerships between caregivers and educational professionals involved with multilingual preschool learners have numerous benefits. They include the following:

- Collaboration emphasises the value of parents or caregivers as important members of intervention teams, and empowers them as decision makers (Rivers, 2000:67; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:43);
- collaboration encourages parents or caregivers to express their needs, concerns, and priorities, and allows intervention teams to develop a support plan based on the learners' and parents; or caregivers' needs, priorities, concerns, and resources (Engelbrecht, 2004:256; Rivers, 2000:67);
- collaboration promotes a holistic view and provides cultural specific information of learners, allowing intervention teams to develop culturally appropriate services (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:365; Madding, 2000:10; Rivers, 2000:67);

- collaboration results in creative problem solving as team members share information, knowledge, and skills which transcend disciplinary borders (Engelbrecht, 2004:256; Venter, 1998:44);
- collaboration reduces and even eliminates the fragmentation of intervention services as intervention goals are integrated, and learners are less often pulled out of classrooms for therapy (Du Plessis, 1998b:63);
- collaboration has the potential to deliver high quality outcomes as collaborative curriculum analyses by team members may identify ELoLT skills critical for academic success, and these skills may be facilitated in learners outside therapeutic situations and generalised to classroom and home contexts (Engelbrecht, 2004:256; Hadley et al., 2003:291; Throneburg et al., 2000:10; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:194);
- collaboration challenges all professional team members to reflect on their own professional practice, and to grow and improve in knowledge and practice within their disciplinary boundaries as they contribute to the knowledge of all team members (Engelbrecht, 2004:254);
- collaboration expands the knowledge of speech-language therapists and preschool teachers regarding the relationship between language and curriculum outcomes (Du Plessis, 1998b:63);
- collaboration leads speech-language therapists to acquire knowledge on the nature of the classroom curriculum and its associated language demands (Gerber, 1987:120);
- collaboration empowers speech-language therapists to improve their knowledge and abilities to work in classrooms such as, among others, discipline skills and group handling techniques, as they move from the traditional medical model to adopt an educational model of intervention (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:90; Du Plessis, 1998b:61);

- collaboration empowers preschool teachers with knowledge regarding the nature of language and how to facilitate language acquisition in the classroom context, adding clinical knowledge to their repertoire of professional skills (Gerber, 1987:120);
- collaboration creates a positive school climate where teamwork is fostered as team members share knowledge and communicate on a regular basis, while affiliations and alliances develop among group members (Engelbrecht, 2004:256; Mafisa, 2001:37).

Research has shown that collaborative partnerships between speech-language therapists and teachers can indeed be successful (Du Plessis, 1998b). The key to successful collaboration appears to be intensive support of the partnership by speech-language therapists at the onset of the project. As teachers become more comfortable with the language enhancement activities and facilitation techniques, and role release occurs, it may be possible to reduce the time that speech-language therapists spend in the classroom (Hadley et al., 2000:291). The success of the collaboration process depends largely on the competency of speech-language therapists to redefine their role as team members of interdisciplinary teams providing services to multilingual learners in preschool contexts.

4.5 THE ROLE OF SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPISTS IN A COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TO INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

The role of speech-language therapists in inclusive education is to empower teachers to solve learners' communication problems in the learning environment, rather than being decision makers who make recommendations that have to be followed (Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2001:49). A major goal of speech-language therapists in inclusive education needs to be the introduction of the concept of clinical teaching to teachers. This concept may include the

acceptance of learners at their present communication level of performance; the assumption of responsibility to analyse patterns of communication needs and to guide communication progress from present levels of performance to higher levels of performance; as well as the planning of communication intervention programmes based on knowledge about the nature of language and factors effecting change in performance (Gerber, 1987:119). Speech-language therapists therefore convey their knowledge of typical and atypical communication development and naturalistic language facilitation techniques to the knowledge base of the teachers.

Through consultation and collaboration, professional team members and parents or caregivers may jointly identify communication needs in ELoLT learners and seek common solutions. Such sharing of information, interaction, and creative problem solving among team members may enhance and provide understanding of the specific ELoLT needs of multilingual preschool learners. In the multilingual preschool environment, speech-language therapists may, therefore, introduce strategies and interventions to guide teachers in coping with the diversity of learning and teaching needs (RSA, 2001:10). According to Venter (1998:44), speech-language therapists may include the following information during consultation and collaboration with team members in order to facilitate multilingual preschool learners' ELoLT acquisition in ecologically valid contexts:

- Speech-language therapists may provide information on ELoLT acquisition in order to support the language and communication needs of all learners in the class;
- Speech-language therapists may provide instructional strategies in order to contextualise and facilitate language development in ELoLT learners;
- Speech-language therapists may recommend and provide appropriate material in order to facilitate ELoLT acquisition and make instructional language more concrete for the learners;

- Speech-language therapists, with knowledge of the curriculum, may suggest modifications to assignments, activities, and assessment material for ELoLT learners in order to ensure non-biased procedures when assessing and documenting learners' progress;
- Speech-language therapists may provide information on the facilitation of pragmatic skills in ELoLT learners in order to support the development of the learners' communication functions;
- Speech-language therapists may recommend coping strategies for the management of ELoLT learners in order to enhance the development of insight into the influence of language on school performance and social behaviour;
- Speech-language therapists may suggest ways in which to include caregivers in learners' instructional programmes in order to improve school-home partnerships (Venter, 1998:44).

The role of speech-language therapists in optimal interdisciplinary collaboration appears to be the sharing of ideas and resources while planning and working together with team members to coordinate goals and objectives. Such a redefinition of the speech-language therapist's role and functions requires teachers and parents or caregivers to discard the notion that *only* speech-language therapists may provide communication intervention. In multilingual preschools, the role of speech-language therapists may involve the traditional assessment, intervention planning, as well as ELoLT facilitation, but these services need to be provided in collaboration with preschool teachers and parents or caregivers, as will be discussed forthwith.

4.5.1 Assessing communication proficiency

Assessment of communication provides the guidelines for intervention (Venter, 1998:33). In multilingual preschoolers, the purpose of communication assessment is to establish their level of proficiency in ELoLT (Venter, 1998:23; 33), by assessing the learner's abilities to meet everyday linguistic demands in social and educational contexts. This implies that speech-language therapists need to consider language to be more than the individual parts of form, content, and use, but need to observe and assess the language of multilingual learners in the context in which it occurs (Brice & Perkin, 1997:21). In collaboration with other team members, learners need to be assessed in the context of a larger social system by using multiple perspectives across professional domains. The process of collaborative assessment across disciplines, and involving parents or caregivers, seeks to establish an integrated view of the learners' communication abilities (Hixson, 1993:44).

Speech-language therapists are also required to broaden the communication assessment process to include more than only standardised normative test data, as it is generally accepted that such tests may be culturally biased if not standardised on multilingual ELoLT learners (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:44; Tabors, 1997:158; Hixson, 1993:47; Vaughn-Cooke, 1983:31). Multilingual learners' communication may be assessed by incorporating procedures such as criterion-referenced measures (where a learner's performance on a specific language skill, grammatical structure, or linguistic concept is compared to independently predetermined criteria) (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:46); language sampling (where a spontaneous or elicited language sample of a learner is obtained in natural settings) (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:46); ethnographic observations (where the learner is observed in natural settings like the classroom or home, using language, communication patterns, and interactional patterns that are familiar to the learner) (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:46; Brice & Perkins, 1997:21); and dynamic assessment (where the focus is on improving communication performance) (Laing & Kamhi; 2003:48).

A promising communication assessment procedure for ELoLT learners is the use of *dynamic assessment*. Dynamic assessment is an interpretation of Vygotsky's concept of a *zone of proximal development*, which is the difference between a learner's current level of independent performance on a task and how he or she succeeds with guided assistance at the same task (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:48). Dynamic assessment not only evaluates the learner's current level of functioning, but also assesses the best method to mediate further learning. The assessor, therefore, actively engages the learner in a learning interaction and attempts to promote positive changes (Lidz & Peña, 1996:368).

The dynamic assessment models yield non-normative data and the learner's responses to intervention-within-assessment appear to offer a more meaningful basis for diagnosis than normative test data (Lidz & Peña, 1996:371). Evidence suggests that speech-language therapists have used dynamic assessment as a valid base to differentiate between ELoLT learners who are language impaired as opposed to language different, as the latter is not a disorder and should not be treated as such (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; ASHA, 1998:4; Seymour, 1998:108; Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:35). The use of dynamic assessment procedures by speech-language therapists may clarify the important distinction between a language disorder and typical difficulties associated with ELoLT acquisition. Another advantage of dynamic assessment is that this model enhances the linkage between assessment and intervention, which fits the recommendation of the RNCS.

Learner assessment as part of Curriculum 2005 is conceptualised as being a continuous and flexible process where a variety of strategies may be employed (Oosthuizen, 1998:5). If the vision of inclusion, namely access to education for all, is taken into account, detailed and costly procedures may not benefit the implicated responsibility of inclusion to provide services to meet the needs of all learners. However, appropriate approaches to communication assessment, such as dynamic assessment, may be applied by interdisciplinary teams in inclusive education to provide a shared view of the learner, and facilitate the possibility of increased coherence of team

assessments. The role of speech-language therapists may be to observe the learner in multiple contexts, to consider multiple sources of information such as parents or caregivers and teachers, and to provide a collaborative format for team-based conclusions regarding the learners' linguistic strengths and needs in ELoLT. The DoE envisages that educational support professionals, including speech-language therapists, will involve and support teachers in the assessment of learners. By improving the teachers' confidence, skill, and knowledge on communication assessment through a process of role release, educational support professionals may focus on other roles, such as intervention planning (RSA, 1997:84).

4.5.2 Intervention planning

Intervention planning by speech-language therapists in inclusive education needs to be guided by the RNCS, which is the curriculum, and also by the specific barriers to learning and development that ELoLT learners may experience. The primary focus of intervention planning needs to be meeting the needs of ELoLT learners (Prelock, 2000:213). To understand their needs and to guide the intervention planning, critical assessment information on the learners' ELoLT proficiency needs to be organised into a logical and cohesive framework. The aim of intervention planning is to support teachers in delivering the curriculum to learners with linguistic barriers within the school context, and to plan targets for the Individual Education Plan (IEP) by means of collaborative consultation (Wren, Roulstone, Parkhouse & Hall, 2001:109; 116).

The development of IEPs ensures that the needs of learners with barriers to learning and development are met by schools (Rivers, 2000:64). Teachers need to assume overall responsibility for the development of learners' IEPs, while speech-language therapists contribute to IEP development in areas related to their expertise in Communication Pathology (McCormic, 1984:370). The learners' IEPs need to include statements of their present performance levels; long- and short-term goals; support services needed; dates for initiation and termination of support services; assessment criteria and assessment

schedules (McCormick, 1984:360). It is highly desirable that parents or caregivers participate in IEP planning together with teachers and speech-language therapists to make meaningful decisions towards providing appropriate and effective language intervention.

It is clear that intervention planning cannot be based on single-discipline perspectives. Parents or caregivers and professional team members need to be an integral part of the team and need to determine the level of role release between them (Giangreco, as cited by Prelock, 2000:214). Speech-language therapists, teachers, and parents or caregivers need to plan the manner in which ELoLT acquisition in multilingual learners will be facilitated by utilising the knowledge of speech-language therapists to analyse the language content of the curriculum, the specific content knowledge of teachers concerning the learning areas, and the parents' or caregivers' identification of priorities and meaningful contexts for communication (Palinesar, Collins, Marano & Magnusson, as cited by Prelock, 2000:215; Hixson, 1993:50). In addition, strategies to support the learner's access to the curriculum need to be determined and negotiated through collaboration between these team members (Ehren, as cited by Prelock, 2000:216).

The curriculum creates significant barriers to learning for ELoLT learners. These barriers to learning arise from the various integrated parts of the curriculum, such as content of learning programmes, ELoLT, management of classrooms, teaching styles, pace, time frames, materials and equipment, as well as assessment methods and techniques (RSA, 2001b:31). As the approach of inclusive education is to change the environment and not the learner, the curriculum needs to be individualised to meet the learner's needs (Swart, 2004:242). However, such curriculum development that endeavours to remove learners' barriers cannot be successful without collaboration between teachers and educational support professionals (Swart, 2004:242; RSA, 2001b:49).

The specific role of speech-language therapists in intervention planning may be to increase teachers' understanding of communication difficulties in class

and to add to their knowledge and strategies to manage these. The prerequisite language skills for each learning activity need to be identified and suggestions need to be made for classroom intervention through the differentiation of activities (Lewis, 2004:37). Speech-language therapists need to highlight the importance of language across the curriculum throughout the instructional day (Wren et al., 116; 118).

Developing language in an integrated way across the curriculum endorses the Whole Language approach (as discussed in Section 3.2). This approach integrates all aspects of language in personally meaningful activities to facilitate literacy (Westby, 1990:228). Speech-language therapists, being knowledgeable about the Whole Language philosophy and by incorporating their own language expertise, could be active members of a Whole Language team when developing curricula to fit the needs of learners. They need to consult with teachers when planning intervention programmes that address the language-learning requirements of the academic curriculum. Thus, the Whole Language approach provides an excellent opportunity for speech-language therapists to work as an integral part of interdisciplinary teams, seeking to overcome the learning barriers of ELoLT learners.

The team members of the interdisciplinary team are required to produce an integrated intervention plan, including the IEP, to establish linguistic changes across a variety of contexts, among others, home and classroom. Such an intervention plan needs to focus on meaningful ELoLT communication skills for multilingual learners. Team members, therefore, need to utilise the targeted interactional patterns to facilitate language development.

4.5.3 Facilitating language development

As the urban South African school context, in particular, is becoming culturally and linguistically more diverse, there is an increasing awareness of the role that speech-language therapists may play in this setting with its growing population of ELoLT learners. Research has established that speech-language therapists can significantly enhance the language development of

preschool learners (Hadley et al., 2000:292; Jordaan, 1993:iii). Jordaan (1993) explored the role of speech-language therapists in ELoLT acquisition by Black preschool learners in urban South Africa. The results indicated that the language skills of the group who received language intervention improved significantly more than those of the control group, which proved that language intervention provided by speech-language therapists can indeed improve ELoLT proficiency in preschool learners (Jordaan, 1993:ii). In fact, both the L1-impaired learners *and* the ELoLT learners gained from intervention. However, as the speech-language therapist is moving away from the traditional role of the expert seeking to change the learner in isolation, the question arises as to which service delivery model ought to be employed in the urban preschool setting. The following discussion will attempt to answer this question.

Traditionally, speech-language therapeutic services entailed the direct provision of individual treatment with the primary focus on remediation of identified limitations in communication abilities (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:217). This model has been applied in medical and educational settings and is known as the *pull-out* model. Learners were removed from classrooms so that speech-language therapists could provide individual intervention treatment, during which dyadic interaction occurred between the speech-language therapist and the learner (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:200). This model continues to have a place in intervention to the extent that it introduces and establishes communication behaviours (Hixson, 1993:50). Individual treatments may be necessary to establish or facilitate initial skills acquisition. With multilingual learners pull-out therapy can be used to pre-teach language demands of the curriculum (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:35).

Since the 1990s, increasing emphasis was placed on the importance and necessity to provide speech-language therapy services that incorporate integrated practices, as required in inclusive practices in the classroom. As the learners' need to actively learn language in natural interactive contexts was identified, two service delivery models were developed – the *classroom-based* model and the *collaborative* model (Throneburg et al., 2000:10). The

classroom-based model refers to intervention in the classroom context by the speech-language therapist and the teacher, in such a manner that both of them are involved in various ways (one teaches and one observes; one teaches and one drifts; station teaching). Intervention is delivered in the classroom, but the therapist and the teacher work independently (Throneburg et al., 2000:11). Although this model requires collaborative planning to coordinate intervention aims, Paramboukas, Calvert and Throneburg (as cited by Throneburg et al., 2000:11) found that 76% of speech-language therapists providing services in classrooms did not have scheduled planning time with classroom teachers. They were, therefore, not engaging in collaborative intervention as propagated by ASHA in 1993 (Throneburg et al., 2000:11).

In the *collaborative* or *co-teaching* model the teacher and speech-language therapist co-teach lessons. This model appears to hold great potential, as indicated by the results of the following two studies. In the first study, Farber and Klein (1999) investigated this model of intervention in twelve preschool and Grade One classes to evaluate the effect of collaborative communication intervention by classroom teachers and speech-language therapists in these classes, and to compare the results with control groups. During the study, teachers and therapists planned and taught specified language skills together, and the results indicated that the learners who participated in this language enrichment programme did indeed demonstrate significantly higher abilities in vocabulary and cognitive-linguistic concepts. This research undoubtedly proved the efficacy of collaborative intervention during the preschool and early school years (Farber & Klein, 1999:89). In a similar research project, Throneburg et al., (2000) established that the collaborative model was more effective than the other two models for teaching vocabulary to all learners.

These conclusions are in agreement with the theoretical advantages of the collaborative model reported in the literature, and encourage the use of this approach for intervention in the school context (Throneburg et al., 2000:10). Such research-to-practice approaches are known as Evidence-based Practices. Evidence-based approaches to clinical services involve the conscious use of current theory and research to frame the services provided

(Gambill, as cited by Apel, 2001a:196). Research findings therefore support the implementation of certain intervention approaches and may be used to motivate changes in service delivery models. Du Plessis (1998b) investigated collaboration in the South African urban preschool context, and proposed the following Evidence-based model of collaboration:

- The speech-language therapist and preschool teacher plan language intervention collaboratively for at least 30 minutes every week.
- Apart from these planning times, the speech-language therapist is available for consultation with the preschool teacher on a daily base.
- The speech-language therapist continues to provide individual therapy to individual learners to facilitate specific language behaviours, or to pre-teach concepts (pull-out).
- Learners are grouped according to language abilities for specific intervention sessions provided by the therapist and the teacher separately, or collectively (classroom based).
- The speech-language therapist and teacher work collaboratively during intervention in the classroom (collaborative approach).
- Role release occurs as the teacher is being empowered by knowledge on communication intervention (Du Plessis, 1998b:155; 156).

It is clear that all three service delivery models (pull-out, classroom based, collaborative approach) may be employed in language intervention, and are compatible with integrated practices based on the classroom curriculum. If team members share information and skills during the various phases of services delivery, the probability for the delivery of truly integrated educational services will be enhanced. In the collaborative model, it is assumed that no individual or professional has an adequate knowledge base or sufficient

expertise to execute all the functions (assessing, planning, intervention) associated with providing relevant educational services to learners. Collaboration between teachers, speech-language therapists, and parents or caregivers is further critical for the successful generalisation of communication skills across disciplines, contexts, and situations. Generalisation not only strengthens the skill, but emphasises learning strategies (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:221). At this level of programme implementation, outcomes are focused on providing eco-systemic based programmes to facilitate communicative skills across systems.

To be accountable, speech-language therapists need to provide services that lead to meaningful outcomes, as defined by the collaborative team. Speech-language therapists need to question their traditional service delivery role, trust the knowledge and skills of teachers, create a structure for their presence in the classroom, and provide the relevant support to achieve improved communicative skills in preschool learners (Giangreco, as cited by Prelock, 2000:215). As speech-language therapists move into the classroom, and the pervasiveness of language across the curriculum is recognised, one of the major components of their role in inclusive education is that of progressive role release, as found in the transdisciplinary model of teamwork which attempts to overcome the boundaries of individual disciplines.

4.5.4 Role releasing

Role release, a critical component of transdisciplinary teamwork, is considered an opportunity to provide integrated educational services in inclusive education (Lyon & Lyon, 1980:250). To put the transdisciplinary approach in perspective to the other models of teamwork, a comparison of the different team models in the educational setting is presented in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1: COMPARISON OF TEAM MODELS IN EDUCATION

ASPECTS IN TEAMWORK	MULTIDISCIPLINARY MODEL	INTERDISCIPLINARY MODEL	TRANSDISCIPLINARY MODEL
Assessment	Individual assessment by speech-language therapist and teacher	Individual or collaborative assessment by speech-language therapist and teacher	Collaborative assessment by speech-language therapist and teacher, or one team member assesses all developmental domains, or arena assessment
Intervention planning	Individual intervention planning by speech-language therapist and teacher	Collaborative intervention planning by speech-language therapist and teacher	Collaborative intervention planning by speech-language therapist, teacher, and parents/ caregivers
Intervention	Individual intervention by speech-language therapist and teacher	Individual intervention by speech-language therapist and teacher	Intervention by speech-language therapist or teacher under supervision of the other team member
Team meetings	Not necessarily any team meetings between speech-language therapist and teacher, but meetings may be used to monitor results and progress	Regular meetings for discussions and planning between speech-language therapist and teacher	Regular meetings between speech-language therapist, teacher, and parents/caregivers for discussions, planning, and training
Communication	Lack of open communication between speech-language therapist and teacher	Communication channels are open and communication between speech-language therapist and teacher is encouraged	Constant communication between speech-language therapist, teacher, and parents/caregivers to share information, knowledge, and skills
Philosophy	Speech-language therapist and teacher acknowledge each other's expertise	Speech-language therapist and teacher are willing to share information with each other	Speech-language therapist and teacher committed to collaborate across disciplinary borders
Staff development	Independent staff development within disciplines of education and communication pathology	Independent staff development in and outside of discipline	Staff development approach by speech-language therapist and teacher
Caregiver involvement	Parents/caregivers communicate individually with speech-language therapist and teacher	Parents/caregivers are parallel to the team process. Caregivers communicate with speech-language therapist and teacher	Parents/caregivers are centrally involved and are full team members
Model of service delivery	Parallel model of service delivery	Discipline specific model of service delivery	Indirect integrated model of service delivery
Financial cost	High financial cost	High financial cost	Financial cost lower than other two models

Source: Du Plessis (1998b:24).

Table 4.1 illustrates how team members in the different models of teamwork liaise to utilise the skills of each individual team member. There is a striking

difference in the levels of collaboration between the multidisciplinary team model and the transdisciplinary team model. Collaboration in the multidisciplinary model is limited to minimum interaction, as opposed to the transdisciplinary model that promotes maximum interaction. In the latter approach, information, knowledge, and skills are consciously shared across disciplinary borders. Such integrated service delivery results in a better understanding of learners and their specific learning needs. The transdisciplinary model includes the process of role release in which team members expand their professional role to incorporate, not only knowledge, but also responsibilities across disciplinary boundaries. Role release follows the following steps:

- In a process of *role extension* speech-language therapists and teachers increase their own knowledge and skills in their individual disciplines through intensive self-study;
- in a process of *role enrichment* speech-language therapists and teachers increase their knowledge outside their individual disciplines, and examine and integrate theoretical knowledge and basic concepts through team discussion and the attendance of interdisciplinary conferences;
- in a process of *role expansion* speech-language therapists and teachers consciously integrate ideas by making informed observations and programme recommendations outside their individual disciplines in evaluations across disciplinary boundaries and across all developmental domains;
- in a process of *role exchange* speech-language therapists and teachers, with adequate knowledge and skills across disciplinary borders, incorporate newly acquired skills into their own repertoire and implement intervention aims under each other's supervision;

- in a process of *role release* speech-language therapists and teachers incorporate techniques and specific performance competencies of each other's disciplines into their intervention through constant interdisciplinary consultation to progressively increase knowledge and refine skills;
- in a process of *role support* speech-language therapists and teachers support each other while certain skills are retained, as team members are legally prohibited from sharing these skills (Briggs, 1993:36).

The transdisciplinary model moves educational programming beyond the single-discipline approach as ELoLT acquisition in learners is facilitated while disciplinary borders dissolve. This approach in education can succeed if all team members are committed to the approach. Through shared information, technique demonstration, and joint problem solving, this model of collaboration can result in dynamic collaborative teams (Engelbrecht, 2004:254). Professionally, the opportunities to share responsibility for learners' linguistic, literacy, and academic success can be an enriching process for all the team members (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:285).

However, changing the educational practice within a school context is a complex process that involves team members' attitudes, actions, beliefs, and behaviour (Muthukrisna, 2001:46), and the success of the collaborative approach depends on the team members themselves. An inability to adapt theory to practice may be one of the barriers obstructing the process.

Various authors have emphasised that the theory of inclusive education can only succeed in practice if *learners and teachers* receive adequate *classroom* support (Swart, 2004:233; Prozesky, 1999:81). Currently educational support professionals in South Africa, including speech-language therapists, seem to experience difficulties in implementing the transformation of their services (Hay, 2003:135). In the following section the barriers to collaboration that may negatively impact on speech-language therapists' service delivery in inclusive education are discussed.

4.6 BARRIERS TO COLLABORATION FOR SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPISTS

The barriers to collaboration experienced by speech-language therapists need to be viewed from an eco-systemic perspective, as such barriers affect learning and developmental needs and may be found in any system surrounding the ELoLT learners. Educational support professionals, like speech-language therapists, will have to address all systems which may influence collaborative communication intervention. These systems include, among others, the home, the school, and the community (Hay, 2003:136).

As discussed in Chapter Two (Section 2.4), some learners in South Africa experience personal and environmental stressors that put them at risk of emotional, behavioural, and academic difficulties. Learners may live in a society struggling to meet the fundamental needs of its citizens. In the home context, some caregivers are struggling to meet their family's basic needs of nutrition and shelter, and in the educational context, some schools have to deal with overcrowding, shortage of resources, and limited educational support (Engelbrecht, 2001:19). In such environments, often found in rural South Africa, collaboration by team members for communication intervention may not be a priority. In the urban areas of South Africa where educational support services like speech-language therapy are more available, speech-language therapists working with ELoLT preschool learners may encounter different barriers, including system barriers that involve the school systems where services are provided, and individual barriers that involve the people concerned (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:233).

In the preschool context, *system barriers* may be an obstacle to effective collaboration (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:236). These barriers include large case-loads (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:285; Ehren & Ehren, 2001:236), time constraints (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:236; Hadley et al., 2000:291; Throneburg et al., 2000:17; Venter, 1998:96), fixed timetables (Drake, 1993:20), financial cost (Throneburg et al., 2000:17), lack of administrative support (Ehren & Ehren, 2000:236), staff turnover (Drake, 1993:21), and leadership issues

(Drake, 1993:21). All of these external barriers challenge the South African speech-language therapists to engage in a growth process, prompted by an expanded research base and the reality of the South African educational environment. Speech-language therapists need to take control of their own professional destinies by acting to overcome the system barriers, as well as individual barriers to collaboration.

Individual barriers to collaboration are experienced by speech-language therapists within themselves, or are presented by other educators whom they encounter. Speech-language therapists need to explore the dimensions of their own attitudes, feelings, and knowledge, which may prevent them from assuming their role in the collaborative intervention with preschool learners (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:234). ELoLT intervention requires knowledge, skills, and competencies that therapists may have acquired through academic preparation and experience (ASHA, 1998:25). These include aspects such as normal language development (Hixson, 1993:53), additional language development (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5; ASHA, 1998:25; Venter, 1998:97), culturally appropriate assessment (ASHA, 1998:25; Venter, 1998:100; Cole, 1983:25), knowledge of the curriculum (Venter, 1998:44), collaboration strategies (ASHA, 1998:25), and language policies (ASHA, 1998:25).

Venter (1998) highlighted the particular limitations in the knowledge about additional language acquisition of individual speech-language therapists in urban South African schools. Her research indicated that these therapists had below average knowledge of additional language acquisition (Venter, 1998:105), and only average knowledge of intervention with ELoLT learners (Venter, 1998:97). In addition, some speech-language therapists had limited knowledge of the development of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), as well as the silent period associated with additional language acquisition (Venter, 1998:105). Their limited knowledge may result in these therapists feeling incompetent in the collaborative team, and they may, therefore, prefer to intervene without any collaboration with teachers. Professional competence is

a personal decision, a professional commitment, and an ethical mandate. Hence, it may be in the interest of all therapists, who historically have not been trained in additional language acquisition, to ensure that they have the necessary knowledge before intervening with learners acquiring ELoLT. To provide such a service without proper education, training, and experience is to violate the professional Code of Ethics (Seymour, 1998:106). Training institutions therefore need to incorporate such training in their pre- and post-graduate programmes, to overcome this individual barrier experienced by speech-language therapists.

Teachers may also present individual barriers to speech-language therapists. These barriers are usually unintentional, but inadvertently occur because of some teachers' lack of information, especially a misperception of the therapists' skills (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:235). Apart from being concerned about losing the autonomy of their classes (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:235; Du Plessis, 1998b:62), teachers may be misled with the term *speech therapist* or *speech teacher*, or *speechy* as therapists are called at school. These terms emphasise only the speech aspect, and exclude the other aspects of their work (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:288; Ehren & Ehren, 2001:235; Wiener, Berger & Bernstein, 1998:21). Terminology, it seems, does matter and although the South African Speech-Language-Hearing Association (SASLHA) added the word *language* to the speech pathology title decades ago in an attempt to improve communication with the public regarding the skills and domains of therapists, it appears that only communication professionals appreciate the specific distinction (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:295; Seymour, 1998:103; 105). These barriers need to be addressed or speech-language therapists may be excluded from collaborative planning sessions on language and literacy programmes, which may be detrimental to speech-language therapists' attempts to assume expanded roles in education.

Speech-language therapists need to play a role in the preparation of South African multilingual preschool learners for formal learning in the primary school. The challenge is to meet the needs of a diverse populace, while continuing to fulfil traditional roles and broad-based societal expectations

(Harris, 2003:80). Change is powerful and motivating, and therapists need to take notice of the changes in the discipline, evaluate them, and adapt (Apel, 2001a:196). One might speculate that if some speech-language therapists could improve their knowledge of additional language (L2) acquisition and the effect of multilingualism on learning, the areas of ELoLT assessment and intervention might become less of a barrier (Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:161). ASHA urged speech-language therapists to be innovative when performing their duties. Their intervention needs to be outcome based, stretching the boundaries. Therapists are encouraged to be more experimental within the context in which they are practising (Seymour, 1998:105; 106), and to market their skills to team members (Lazar, 1994:11). Through successful collaborative efforts to facilitate multilingual preschool learners' ELoLT skills, speech-language therapists could play a vital role in getting South Africa's learners ready to learn.

4.7 CONCLUSION

Unabated shortages of all types of learners' services in South African rural areas, geographically remote areas, and inner cities call for the most creative and efficient use of every available resource. In developing countries like South Africa, an eco-systemic approach to school improvement may be appropriate, rendering support to groups of learners and schools to encourage whole school development. The focus in whole school development is both organisation development and professional development of all role-players in education (Swart & Pettipher, 2001:33). Whole school development in inclusive education requires collaborative partnerships between all team members, that is parents or caregivers, teachers, and educational support professionals, all of whom are equally important and need to contribute knowledge towards a shared goal (Swart & Pettipher, 2001:34). Such multiple perspectives may be important to maximise academic and social success in inclusionary classrooms (Engelbrecht, 2001:24-27).

The challenge in the South African context is to redefine the roles of educational support professionals within inclusive education. Educational

support professionals need to broaden their roles and responsibilities away from the traditional, narrow focus of service delivery, which may not be appropriate in the inclusive approach to education (Hay, 2003:135; 137). Roles need to be transformed from an acontextual and individualised perspective to a contextually relevant and systemically sensitive approach (Engelbrecht, 2001:24-27). Team members, including speech-language therapists, who comprehend their new roles and release information and roles across disciplinary borders may be an asset in interdisciplinary teams.

Educational partners have the choice to collaborate and provide appropriate services to learners, or to continue outside this framework of change. If the challenge to collaborate in education is accepted, role-players will improve their skills and provide improved professional services. Should disciplines continue to provide services unilaterally, they will provide inappropriate services to learners with barriers to learning. Much potential will be wasted (Du Plessis, 1998b:12).

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter described the importance of a collaborative approach to communication intervention from an eco-systemic perspective against the background of current changes in the South African education system, such as the introduction of inclusive education and the RNCS. In the quest to change the learning environment to accommodate learners with linguistic barriers to teaching and learning, it is suggested that speech-language therapists, teachers, and caregivers collaborate in assessment, intervention planning, and language development in ELoLT learners. The aim of the chapter was to provide insight into the supporting role speech-language therapists can play in a collaborative approach to inclusive education.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

The research methodology directs the whole endeavor (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:6).

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Research is the process by which information is analysed and interpreted to reach certain conclusions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:2). The situation-specific data and knowledge acquired in this process may be developed for implementation in practice (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:xxi; Delport & De Vos, 2002:50).

In South Africa, many research projects on multilingualism are currently being undertaken (Harmse, 2005; Moodley, Chetty & Pahl, 2005; Naudé, 2005). However, as research on macrolevel holds little relevance for the educational team, contextual research is necessary to explain the local context (Mafisa, 2001:36, Harber, 1999:7).

Multilingualism is an exceedingly complex phenomenon. Hence, the decision to choose English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT) in a multilingual country like South Africa needs to be taken cautiously. Acquiring ELoLT should be a positive experience at no cost to the learners' mother tongue (L1). Speech-language therapists know how to facilitate additional language acquisition, and could expand their role by consulting and collaborating with preschool teachers (Jordaan, 1993:1), but research has to indicate whether a need for such services exists in the South African urban preschool context (Wiener, Bergen & Bernstein, 1983:22).

This study was undertaken to answer the following research question:

What are the needs of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners regarding the acquisition of ELoLT in the context of urban preschools in the Pretoria Central Business District (CBD) and Sunnyside area?

The aim of this chapter is to describe the methodology of the research. The research aims, design, participants, materials and apparatus, as well as procedures are described to explain the manner in which this study proposes to answer the research question.

5.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Conceptual frameworks serve as guides to researchers in determining acceptable theories and methods to solve identified problems. The conceptual framework is dynamic and can be adjusted as the researcher accumulates knowledge (Le Grange, 2000:194; De Vos, 2002b: 36).

The research paradigm can be defined as the basic belief system that guides the researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 1998: 195). In this research the positivist paradigm is adopted. The aim of positivist inquiry is to explain phenomena and to add to a particular domain of knowledge, which ultimately may be used for prediction and control of phenomena (De Vos & Schulze, 2002:6; Guba & Lincoln, 1998: 211; 212). The researcher is also an objective observer who employs experiments or surveys as strategies of inquiry to collect data, with predefined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell, 3002:18). Criteria such as internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity are applied in the presentation and interpretation of findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:21).

This study aimed to describe the educational context of multilingual preschools in a demarcated geographical area, based on the needs expressed by preschool teachers, as well as the assessment of multilingual preschool learners. The research focused on a small social unit (preschools

and preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area) of which a close-up view of an identifiable ability (proficiency in ELoLT) was obtained. As the research was conducted in a demarcated geographical area, and because of the small scale of the research, the findings were not generalised to the larger population. The researcher observed learner participants from a different culture to describe and explain the communication behaviours of multilingual preschool learners learning a new language (Johnson, 1992:134), but, as the study merely aimed to describe language and not the entire culture, the culture itself was not analysed. However, as language reflects cultural values, beliefs, and needs, language needs to be understood as a cultural issue (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:10). The current study, therefore, was not only interested in the linguistic competence of preschool learners, but also in their communicative competence that may be influenced by cultural aspects of communication.

As both quantitative and qualitative researchers may apply triangulation (De Vos, 2002c: 341), the researcher employed *data triangulation*, where a variety of sample strategies was used (De Vos, 2002a: 365; Hornberger, 1994:689) to increase the reliability of the observations. The data were obtained from two different types of sources in an attempt to cross-validate the results, for example the questionnaire was completed by the preschool teachers and the multilingual preschool learners were assessed. To provide a detailed description of the learners' communicative abilities, *interdisciplinary triangulation* was employed (Janesick, 1998:47) where valuable assessment information was obtained from multiple perspectives (the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapist), broadening the explanation of the context.

Information was elicited from the teacher participants in a systematic way, as described by Spindler and Spindler (as cited by Johnson, 1992:142). The teacher participants' constant contact with the multilingual preschool learners in the natural setting of the classroom context offered many opportunities for interaction and observation, enabling them to engage in the research and communicate information by completing the questionnaires. In addition, the

researcher assessed the learner participants systematically in a standardised manner (as described by Schurink, 2000:243) to obtain a contextually bound view of their linguistic abilities in ELoLT.

5.3 MAIN AIM OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study was to describe the specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area, in order to explain the local context, describe the language needs of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT, and explore the role of speech-language therapists in support of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners in the acquisition of ELoLT.

While the main aim reflects the broader concept of the result toward which the research is directed, the objectives indicate the steps taken in order to attain this aim (Fouché, 2002a:108; De Vos, Schurink & Strydom, 2000:7). The following sub-aims and objectives were formulated to realise the main aim.

5.3.1 First sub-aim

To determine the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area in the acquisition of ELoLT by learners.

OBJECTIVE ONE

To determine the needs and strengths of preschool teachers regarding their role in facilitating communication development in multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

OBJECTIVE TWO

To determine the perceptions and opinions of preschool teachers regarding the language needs and strengths in English of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

5.3.2 Second sub-aim

To determine the language and communication proficiency in ELoLT of multilingual preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area (in order to determine the needs of these preschoolers in learning English by assessing their expressive and receptive language, as well as pragmatic skills, and establishing patterns in language errors).

OBJECTIVE ONE

To describe the language characteristics of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT in a given context relating to expressive and receptive language, as well as pragmatic abilities.

OBJECTIVE TWO

To compare the preschool teachers' perceptions and opinions regarding the language needs and strengths in English with the language characteristics of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

5.3.3 Third sub-aim

To explore the role of the speech-language therapist in the acquisition of ELoLT by urban, multilingual preschool learners.

OBJECTIVE

To explore the role of speech-language therapists in the multilingual preschool learners' acquisition of ELoLT, based on the opinions and needs expressed by the teacher participants in Phase One, as well as language abilities displayed by learner participants in Phase Two.

5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

An exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design, implementing the quantitative research method, was selected to best achieve the research aims and objectives of this study.

The research design describes adaptable guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry and research methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:22). According to Fetterman (1998:8), the *research design* links theory to method and enables the researcher to conceptualise the steps towards knowledge and understanding. The aim of the research design is to guide the researcher by setting the limits of the research. The research design of this study was determined by the research aims as stated in Section 5.3, which required a research design that provided a detailed description of the needs and strengths of the multilingual preschool learners when acquiring ELoLT and learning about its form, content, and use. In addition, a description was needed of the perceptions of preschool teachers involved with multilingual preschool learners.

The selection of the *research method* was secondary to the choice of paradigm as both quantitative and qualitative research methods may be suitable within any research paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1998:195). However, the nature of the data to be collected needs to be considered before choosing the research method, as data and methodology are inextricably interdependent. In fact, the data dictate the research method (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:94). The research design, research method, and data collection methods selected for this study will be described forthwith.

5.4.1 Research design

This study utilised an exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design.

- **Exploratory:**

The objective of exploratory research is the exploration of relatively unknown research areas (Mouton & Marais, 1990:43). Exploratory research is therefore utilised to gain information in new areas of interest. In the South African context, multilingual classrooms can be viewed as relatively unheard of as such classrooms only recently became the norm (Smalle-Moodie, 1997:17).

This study aimed to explore and explain the perceptions and opinions of preschool teachers with practical experience of the problems that may arise when acquiring ELoLT. The subjective perceptions and opinions of preschool teachers enabled the researcher to explore the existing situation and to develop insight and comprehension of the local context. The researcher further identified communication patterns in multilingual preschool learners, which were compared and contrasted to develop insight and understanding from these patterns of language behaviour (Fetterman, 1998:96; Johnson, 1992:148). In addition, the study aimed to utilise new insights and understandings as underpinning to explore the role of speech-language therapists in support of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

- **Descriptive:**

The descriptive paradigm is used to describe that which exists as accurately as possible (Mouton & Marais, 1990:44). Descriptive research is therefore employed to provide an accurate impression of a situation as it is. In this study, the objective of descriptive research was to describe and explain how the preschool teachers perceived their own needs and strengths and those of the multilingual preschool learners, enabling the researcher to understand and describe these needs and strengths. The use of a descriptive survey allowed the researcher to collect accurate information on the domain phenomena which were under investigation and to describe a variety of concepts that were of importance in this research (Dane, 1990:137).

- **Contextual:**

According to Mouton and Marais (1993:49), a phenomenon needs to be studied in terms of the immediate context. Contextual research is therefore employed to obtain context specific information. This contextual study was conducted in the specific context of preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area, where English is the Language of Learning and Teaching

(ELoLT) although not necessarily the mother tongue (L1) of the learners. In this unexplored multilingual context, a need was identified for speech-language therapists to make their expertise available to the multilingual learners, as well as the preschool teachers. The current research was initiated in response to the needs of this specific community and was conducted in the natural setting in which the participants normally spend their days, and, thus, did not seek generalisation.

5.4.2 Research method

This study implemented the quantitative research method. Quantitative research methods are employed to answer questions about relationships between variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controlling phenomena (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:94). Quantitative researchers identify, develop, and standardise methods of measuring, while attending to the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:95). Quantitative variables are usually obtained by measuring or counting, and take on numerical values (De Vos, Fouché & Venter, 2002:225). Data analyses are conducted with predetermined statistical procedures (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:96).

When employing the quantitative method, the causal relationships among variables are identified by extracting these variables from their natural setting to neutralise extraneous variables; research questions are formulated as hypotheses in advance of the data collection phase; and results are generalised from samples to populations (Nunan, 1993:69). With the qualitative method, on the other hand, the context in which the variables occur is of central importance; there is an interaction between the questions and the data and the questions can be modified and redefined for subsequent studies; and statistical generalisation is not possible (Nunan, 1993:69; Johnson, 1992:140).

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2004:97), quantitative and qualitative research is not mutually exclusive, and it is not unusual for quantitative

researchers to also report on qualitative aspects of research. Creswell (2003:17) reports that in some forms of data collection both quantitative and qualitative data are collected. This study implemented the quantitative method. However, the data obtained with the questionnaire as measuring instrument were augmented through limited open-ended observations by the participants, as described by Creswell (2003: 17; 18). This combination best achieved the research aims and objectives.

5.4.3 Data collection methods

A descriptive survey was conducted to allow the researcher to examine and describe the specific phenomenon with great accuracy as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:198). Survey research obtains information directly from a group of individuals, generally about facts, opinions, and behaviours (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:183; Dane, 1990:120; 121). The purpose of a survey is usually to acquire a snapshot of conditions, attitudes, and events at a single point in time (Nunan, 1993:140).

Researchers often employ survey methods to study bilingualism, bilingual and multilingual education, as well as foreign languages (Johnson, 1992:105). In this study, the researcher employed a questionnaire as first survey technique (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:185; Dane, 1990:120) to obtain data. The items in the questionnaire were designed to collect information, and to investigate perceptions of preschool teachers in a demarcated geographical area (Dane, 1990:143). Items in the questionnaire were both closed-ended and open-ended in format, which provided mostly quantitative information but also limited qualitative data respectively (Johnson, 1992:114). The needs and strengths of preschool teachers were determined in a structured and systematic manner, building on theory and previous research to improve the validity of the information (Johnson, 1992:113).

As the study further required data to be collected on the language and communication proficiency of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT, a test battery in checklist format was employed as a second survey technique

(Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:185). The survey examined a subset (sample) of a group of multilingual preschool learners in a demarcated geographical area to study their language and communication characteristics (language proficiency) in the specific context (Johnson, 1992:104). The collection of language data is a basic procedure in quantitative survey research (Johnson, 1992:115), and the use of standardised measuring instruments to assess the multilingual preschoolers created a favourable situation in which responses by the learners could be elicited.

Although surveys are widely used to collect data (Nunan, 1993:140), special care should be taken to protect the data of descriptive surveys from distortion through bias. The researcher acknowledged that data gathering are highly sensitive to distortion and attempted to remain impartial in the selection of participants, as any influence that may disturb sample selection is a potential source of bias. Non-probability sampling was employed, utilising convenience sampling in the selection of teacher participants and quota sampling in the selection of learner participants. Care was taken to avoid response bias and/or incomplete responses to sensitive topics by ensuring the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of information (Dane, 1990:143). As it is also important in survey research to assess the degree to which non-respondents introduce bias into the sample data (Johnson, 1992:119), the researcher provided information on non-respondents, allowing readers to assess if acceptable response rates were achieved. Furthermore, the researcher stated the percentages of unreturned questionnaires, and if consent from parents and learner participants was withheld (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:208-210).

To assist the researcher in formulating correct and valid conclusions, data were organised into categories relevant to the research problem and presented systematically before being analysed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:245). The focus of the data analysis was descriptive and quantitative measures were mostly employed to analyse the results. The ultimate aim of survey research is to solve problems through the interpretation of data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:212).

5.5 ETHICAL ISSUES

When research deals with people, the following four ethical considerations must be emphasised, as most of the ethical issues in research fall into these categories (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:101).

5.5.1 Protection from harm

None of the participants in this study suffered any negative, physical or psychological consequences (Punch, 1998:176). The learner participants in Phase Two (the multilingual preschool learners) were fetched individually from their classrooms, assessed in a safe therapy room on the school premises and returned to their classrooms by the researcher. Learner participants experienced no discomfort, unusual stress, or embarrassment during the assessment. The learner participants were under no pressure to respond and lack of response was only noted.

5.5.2 Informed consent

The teacher participants in Phase One were informed about the nature of the study, possible future publications of the results, and contact details of the researcher, and were assured of confidentiality as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:101). Participation was voluntary and teacher participants who were unwilling to take part in the research study, did not have to return their questionnaires.

The parents or caregivers of learner participants in Phase Two were asked to complete an informed consent form (Appendix D) on which permission could be granted or refused. The researcher acknowledged the rights of parents or caregivers and learners to transparent assessment and ensured their understanding of and right to access all the assessment results, as recommended by the National Commission of Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) (RSA, 1997:84). The parents or caregivers were informed

about the identity of the researcher and the organisation conducting the research, the purpose of the research, the extent to which their children were protected with respect to confidentiality, and assured that cooperation was voluntary, as suggested by Fowler (1993:132). Communication with the parents or caregivers of learner participants was in English, as English was the Medium of Instruction (Mol) in the preschool and also the language of communication between the preschool staff and parents or caregivers. If parents or caregivers did not understand the informed consent form, the content thereof could be clarified with their class teachers. All parents and caregivers gave their consent for the assessment. Upon fetching the learner participants from their classrooms, the researcher asked them individually if they were willing to participate. All learner participants assented and were very eager to take part in the research.

5.5.3 Right to privacy

All participants were assured of confidentiality as recommended by Punch (1998:175). The names of the teacher participants in Phase One did not appear on any of the questionnaires. The researcher allocated a number to each teacher participant to ensure their privacy, and only the allocated numbers were used in any analysis or reference. The same will apply to future publications. The names of learner participants in Phase Two appeared on the record forms only to aid the researcher in compiling the correct individual profiles, and to provide parents or caregivers with appropriate feedback on their children. For statistical analysis and publication only the allocated numbers were used.

5.5.4 Honesty with professional colleagues

The researcher attempted to present the results of the study truthfully and honestly. The researcher's own perspectives and bias did not influence the findings. No data were misrepresented (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:102), credit was given to other authors whose suggestions were used to compile the

questionnaire and test battery (checklist), and ideas from other printed material were acknowledged, as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:102).

5.6 RESEARCH PHASES

To reach the aims and objectives of the current study, the research consisted of three research phases - which are schematically presented in Figure 5.1 - to form the framework for the following description.

5.6.1 Phase One: Needs and strengths of preschool teachers and preschool learners

Phase One of the study was conducted to achieve the first sub-aim of the research.

5.6.1.1 Research aim

The aim of Phase One was to determine the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area in the acquisition of ELoLT by learners. The following objectives were formulated:

- To determine the needs and strengths of preschool teachers regarding their role in facilitating communication development in multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.
- To determine the perceptions and opinions of preschool teachers regarding the language needs and strengths in English of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

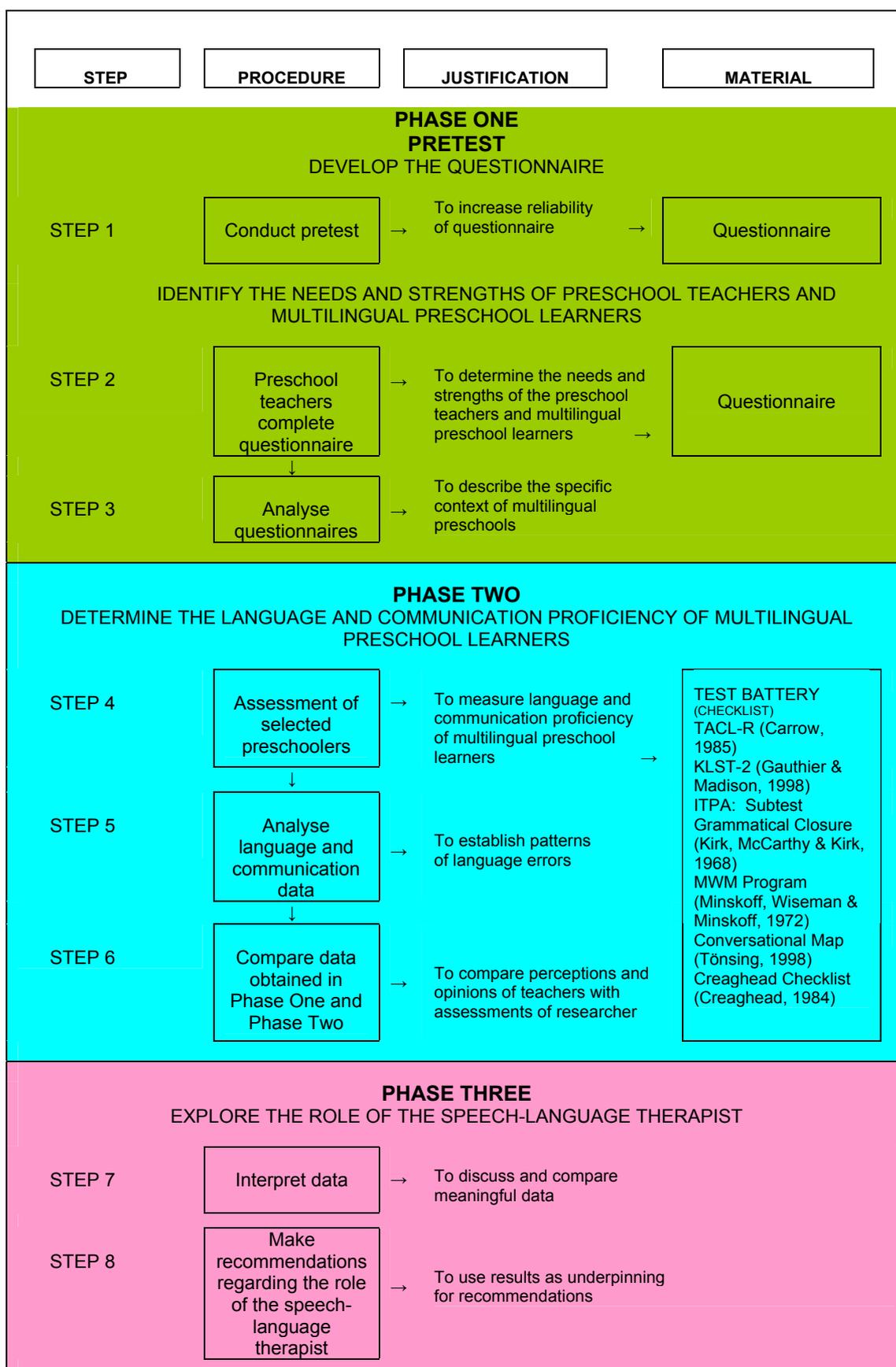


FIGURE 5.1: RESEARCH PHASES

5.6.1.2 Context

Preschools were targeted as the context in Phase One of the research and will be discussed in the following section.

- **Geographical area**

The geographical area identified for the study was the Pretoria CBD and adjacent Sunnyside suburb. As the research aimed to target a specific context, all participating preschools had to fall in the specified physical area.

Entwisle & Astone (1994:1523) state that it is important for the researcher, when investigating people, to take into account the geographical area in which the participants live, including the metropolitan area, the size of the place, and the size of the neighbourhood. The geographical area identified for the study is depicted in Figure 5.2.



FIGURE 5.2: THE GEOGRAPHICAL AREA SELECTED FOR THE RESEARCH IN RELATION TO ITS IMMEDIATE SURROUNDINGS

- **Socio-economic status**

When research involves children it is important that the adults responsible for the youths' resources be identified (Entwisle & Astone, 1994:1525). According to Hauser (1994:1542), the occupational status of the child's parents or caregivers will characterise the likely flow of economic resources. The income level is also a prediction of learners' academic achievement, as economic stress may have a negative impact on learners' performance at school (Patterson, Kupersmidt & Vaden, 1990:491).

The South African census indicates that the income of the population in the demarcated areas falls into the middle to lower income groups. A large number of the population is unemployed and not economically active (Statistics South Africa, 1996). A substantial informal economic sector is also present (Wolhuter, 2000:155).

The dwellings in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area are mostly rented flats. According to Hauser (1994:1544), rented housing as opposed to owned housing is also indicative of income status, with renting having a negative connotation.

- **Population group**

As the research targeted Black multilingual learners, all the participating preschools had to have Black learners enrolled. To gain insight into human and individual development it is important to understand the given context (Entwisle & Astone, 1994:1522). The Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area underwent a radical change in population composition because of the political changes in South Africa since 1994. The former exclusively White population changed to a racially integrated population when many people from the previously disadvantaged communities moved into these areas. Since this trend towards urbanisation is continuing (Wolhuter, 2000:155) and more Black

families are moving into the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area, most of the preschool learners in these areas are Black (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003:124).

- **Type of schools**

Independent preschools, as well as preschools subsidised by the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE), were included in the research. Convenience sampling was conducted and all identified preschools were included, as recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:206). As the number of preschools was limited, all the data available from the small population in the specified geographical area were collected. Schools were identified by consulting the GDE, the *Suid-Afrikaanse Vrouefederasie*, a research list compiled by Kommunika, the telephone directory, and preschool principals.

- **Age range in schools**

Preschools enrolling preschoolers between the ages of three and six years were selected to participate in the research. The preschools were organised into three age groups, namely Junior, Middle, and Senior groups, to cover the complete developmental spectrum in the preschool, as discussed by Nelson (1998:289). Learner participants in Phase Two of the research were selected from each of the three groups.

- **Language of instruction**

In accordance with the aims of the study, English had to be the language of instruction in the participating preschools.

5.6.1.3 Teacher participants

Thirty-six preschool teachers were selected as teacher participants in Phase One, according to specific criteria.

- **Criteria for selection**

The following criteria were applied for the selection of teacher participants.

- > **Language**

The preschool teachers had to be proficient in English since they were teaching learners acquiring ELoLT. Proficiency in English was also essential for them to be able to complete the questionnaire that was compiled in English. The questions being fully comprehended by the teacher participants increased the validity of the research and provided better quality results, as indicated by Johnson (1992:114).

- > **Employed as preschool teachers**

To satisfy the requirements of the study and to depict a valid representation of facts in the context, the researcher wanted to collect all the applicable information in the demarcated area, as recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:206). Therefore, irrespective of training and experience, all the preschool teachers teaching at the identified preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area were selected as teacher participants, thus maximising the size of the sample. A description of the characteristics of the teacher participants is presented in Chapter Six, as such a description is an integral part of the results.

- **Selection procedures**

As all preschool teachers at the qualifying preschools were selected as teacher participants, convenience sampling (a type of non-probability sampling) was done. Participants are then selected because of their accessibility (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:206; Johnson, 1992:110). Permission was obtained telephonically from the principals of the identified preschools, as described previously. The principals accepted only after consulting with their

staff. Preschool teachers unwilling to take part in the research were under no obligation to return the questionnaires.

- **Response rate**

Thirty-six teachers were selected to participate in Phase One, and thirty-two returned the questionnaires (a response rate of 88%). By returning the completed questionnaire the teacher participants indicated their willingness to participate in the research.

The excellent response rate of the teacher participants in Phase One may be attributed to two important factors. First, the researcher used the *drop-off* method to distribute the questionnaires, which assured personal contact with the preschools' principals, and, second, the researcher utilised telephonic follow-up procedures, as discussed by Delpont (2002:177) and Fowler (1993:59; 67).

5.6.1.4 **Material and apparatus**

The material and apparatus used during Phase One of the research will be described in the following section.

- **Pretest**

A pretest was conducted to develop the survey instrument (questionnaire) for Phase One, as recommended by Fowler (1995:135).

- > **Aim**

The objective of the pretest was to identify potential problems in the questionnaire prior to finalising the content and to increase the validity and reliability, as suggested by Fowler (1995:104).

> Pretest participants

The pretest participants had to be similar to the participants who were to take part in the main study to enable the researcher to detect potential problems that may be experienced by a similar group of people. Convenience sampling was done, and four preschool teachers from four different preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area were randomly selected from a list of identified preschools to form a trial group of pretest participants, as stated by Nunan (1993:142) and Johnson (1992:111-114). Table 5.1 contains a description of the pretest participants.

As shown in Table 5.1, all the pretest participants had been trained as teachers. Their ages varied from the 18 to 25 years age range to 55 years or older. The mother tongue (L1) of 75% of the pretest participants was Afrikaans. The pretest participants were therefore a set of participants representative of the range of teacher participants who took part in Phase One of the main study.

TABLE 5.1: PRETEST PARTICIPANTS

PARTICIPANT	HOME LANGUAGES	ADDITIONAL LANGUAGES	HIGHEST QUALIFICATION	AGE	TEACHING EXPERIENCE
1	Afrikaans	English	BA Primary	55 + Years	10 + Years
2	Afrikaans English	None	Teacher's Diploma	55 + Years	10 + Years
3	Afrikaans	English	HED	18 - 25 Years	1 - 3 Years
4	Afrikaans	English	THED Preprimary	26 - 35 Years	10 + Years

> Procedure

The procedure as set out below was followed during the pretest:

- The questionnaire was developed after an in-depth literature review.
- The questionnaire was presented to the staff of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria, as well as the Kommunika project leader, for comments and approval.

- Permission was obtained from principals and preschool teachers (pretest participants) to conduct the pretest. The purpose of the pretest was explained to the pretest participants.
- During a structured interview the researcher completed the questionnaire with each pretest participant individually.
- The researcher discussed the questions and response tasks with each pretest participant, and noted the recommendations.
- After the recommendations of the pretest participants were studied, changes were made to the questionnaire.

> **Results**

The results of the pretest are summarised in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2: A SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS OF THE PRETEST

AIMS OF PRETEST	PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED	CHANGES MADE TO QUESTIONNAIRE
To identify any typographical errors in the questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire appeared too lengthy • Too much writing needed in the demographic information section • Inadequate arrangement of questions in demographic section • Participants were not interested in the different headings of sections in questionnaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire was changed to a more compact format • Answers were changed to fixed response alternatives • The order of questions in the demographic information section was changed to separate the participant and school information requested • Headings of sections in questionnaire were removed
To determine if the response tasks were clear	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An "x" should be added to the instruction to read: "Tick the appropriate block with an x" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No change was made as any form of indication of choice was acceptable
To determine if all the participants understood the questions correctly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Section 3 (Variable 67 and 68) was unclear and posed a problem to participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explanatory examples were added to Section 3 (Variable 67 and 68)
To determine if the wording was clear	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The word "echo" in Section 7 (Variable 153) was not clear and caused uncertainties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The word "echo" was changed to "repeat"
To identify if the rating scales had enough options	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Too many questions had "yes/no" answers and were found to be too restrictive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The rating scales were changed and more options were given
To identify any inadequacies in questions as posed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants wanted to share information in narrative answers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open questions were included to allow participants to add information not covered by the questionnaire

The pretest assisted the researcher in minimalising the possibility that technical problems with the wording or layout may affect the results obtained by the questionnaire as survey instrument. On completion of the pretest the questionnaire was finalised.

- **Questionnaire**

To realise the first sub-aim of the study, a questionnaire (Appendix A) was compiled as survey instrument in order to collect information, and to investigate the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners.

The questionnaire enabled the researcher to gain insight into the firsthand experience of preschool teachers who, in their current teaching position, were involved with multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT, as suggested by Fowler (1995:78) and Johnson (1992:108), and thus to determine the needs, strengths, perceptions, and opinions of these teacher participants.

- > **Questionnaire development**

The questionnaire was designed to address the specific research objectives of Phase One of the research. The development of the questionnaire was based on theory and earlier relevant studies (Johnson, 1992:113). Building on theory and previous research helped to improve the quality of the questionnaire and to increase *content validity*. In the questionnaire, teacher participants were questioned about their firsthand experiences, as the strength of survey research is to collect information on the current situation and the participants' feelings and perceptions, as suggested by Fowler (1995:78). The *construct validity* of the questionnaire may only result from continued use to measure the underlying construct over a period of years (Litwin, 1995:44). The validity and reliability of the questionnaire will be further discussed in Section 5.7.

The following principles provided guidelines during the development of the questionnaire (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:190-192; Fowler, 1995:78-103; Johnson, 1992:114; Dane, 1990:125).

- Each section started with either the instruction or the question written in capital letters to provide a consistent convention and to make the task of reading questions and following instructions as easy as possible.
- Attention was given to the format of the questionnaire allowing enough space between items to contribute to neatness and easy completion of the instrument.
- The wording of instructions and questions in the questionnaire was clear, using non-technical language that was easy to comprehend by all participants.
- Items of the questionnaire did not contain negative phrasing that is often difficult to process.
- Only one idea to be considered was given per item to prevent confusion.
- Examples of words and phrases were given at certain questionnaire items to clarify specific language features listed in the item.
- Items in the questionnaire were open-ended, allowing teacher participants to respond in their own words, or closed, requiring the participants to select from a limited number of responses. Open-ended questions were useful in gathering qualitative information, whereas closed question formats allowed for quantitative information.
- The discourse structure of the questionnaire was structured in a logical way to avoid confusion among teacher participants. The questionnaire moved from general questions regarding demographic information, to more specific questions regarding the teacher participants' needs.
- The questionnaire was designed to make the task of recording answers by teacher participants as easy as possible, by adhering to a consistent convention for such recording throughout the questionnaire. Most of the questions were closed-ended and answers could be ticked off, which shortened the time needed for the completion of the questionnaire.

> **Questionnaire limitations**

Although a pretest was done to assess the need for adaptations in the procedures or wording of the questionnaire, the researcher acknowledges that all the limitations of the questionnaire may not have been identified during pretesting. The following limitations of the questionnaire have since been recognised.

- In Section Eight of the questionnaire the teacher participants' opinions on general issues of additional language (L2) acquisition were requested. The questions were of a general nature, covering issues that are currently fervently debated in the printed and visual media, as well as in academic journals. Although the researcher paid attention to the wording of questions in order not to reveal existing knowledge, the questions in Section Eight of the questionnaire may be regarded as leading questions. This will be recognised when the results are discussed in Chapter Six.
- The pretest participants comprehended the questions and recommended options in the rating scales that they perceived appropriate. It is recognised that in Section Four (Part One) and in Section Five the rating scales selected by the participants may not have been appropriate for the type of question asked.
- As a substantial amount of information was requested, the questionnaire contained mainly close-ended questions to shorten the duration for completion (Delport, 2002:179). However, it is recognised that the inclusion of more open-ended questions may have enabled the researcher to explore multilingual classrooms in the research context in more detail.
- Counter-test items in questionnaires increase the validity of participant responses. It is recognised that the rephrasing of selected items in the questionnaire may have ensured reliable and consistent responses by the participants.

Despite these limitations, it is postulated that the questions were clearly understood as such was indicated by the participants during structured interviews. The answers also corresponded to what they intended to measure. The participants' answers to the questions in the questionnaire therefore met the objectives of the questions.

> **Sections of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was divided into ten sections, and teacher participants were asked to respond according to the Lickert Scale, that is an ordinal attitude scale. The number of response categories was developed by the researcher and tested in the pretest. The number of response categories was respectively two, three and four and was alternated in the questionnaire to prevent bias (Delpont, 2002:182). Open questions were included to allow teacher participants to comment freely, and to afford the researcher the opportunity to collect information that might have been omitted from the questionnaire (Department of Statistics, University of Pretoria, 1996:4; 7).

The subsections of the questionnaire are presented in Figure 5.3.

SECTION	INFORMATION
Section One	→ Demographic information
Section Two	→ Exposure to multilingualism
Section Three	→ General observations
Section Four	→ Vocabulary development
Section Five	→ Syntactic abilities
Section Six	→ Pragmatic skills
Section Seven	→ Strategies
Section Eight	→ Beliefs
Section Nine	→ Need for training
Section Ten	→ Open question

FIGURE 5.3: SECTIONS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

- **Section One: Demographic information**

In *Section One* of the questionnaire demographic information was requested. These questions were important for the classification of information. Personal information included the age, qualification, and teaching experience of the teacher participants. The L1 and an indication of additional languages spoken by teacher participants were requested. This section also covered the language groups represented in the various preschools; the proportional representation of each language; the language of instruction in the various schools and in the individual classes. Section One was included based on discussions in the literature by Brits (1996:62) and Johnson (1992:105).

- **Section Two: Exposure to multilingualism**

Section Two investigated the exposure of teacher participants to multilingualism. This information was required to gain insight into the teacher participants' preparations to accommodate learners acquiring ELoLT in their classes. Information was requested on the nature of formal teacher training (including specific training in teaching ELoLT learners), self-studies, workshops attended, collaboration with speech-language therapists, as well as the teacher participants' perceptions of their own competency in teaching ELoLT learners. Six open questions and one response choice question were formulated. The open questions gave teacher participants the opportunity to report and describe individual experiences. Section Two was included based on discussions in the literature by Calderon (1997:74) and Woodbridge (1994:68).

- **Section Three: General observations**

Data on teacher participants' general observations regarding ELoLT learners were collected in the *third section* of the questionnaire. The aim of this section was to investigate coping strategies, specific emotional and social characteristics displayed by learners, as well as general ELoLT comprehension. Not only the behaviour, but also the frequency of occurrence had to be indicated. Sixteen questions were posed and had to be answered by using a rating scale with the options *often*, *seldom*, or *never*. Section Three was included based on discussions in the literature by Johnson (1992:108).

- **Section Four: Vocabulary development**

Section Four consisted of two parts and covered the teacher participants' perception of the development of vocabulary in learners. The information provided insight into both the receptive and expressive vocabulary of learners during the acquisition of ELoLT. The first part contained five questions on English vocabulary proficiency and was of a positive nature. Questions had to

be evaluated on a rating scale with the options *all, some, and none*. The second part of Section Four collected information on the comprehension of specific words and concepts. The fifteen questions could be answered with the options *always, often, seldom, never*. Section Four was included based on discussions in the literature by Jordaan (1993:74, 216); Johnson (1992:108) and Morris (1992).

- **Section Five: Syntactic abilities**

Specific syntactic abilities of preschool learners, as perceived by the teacher participants, were investigated in *Section Five*. The aim of this section was to evaluate the teacher participants' ability to first, differentiate between specific expressive skills, and second, evaluate the complexity of the expressive language used by learners. Twenty questions were formulated and a rating scale was employed for the responses, with the options *always, often, seldom, never*. Section Five was included based on discussions in the literature by Jordaan (1993:90); Preston (1992); and Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1977).

- **Section Six: Pragmatic skills**

The *sixth section* requested teacher participants to record their observations regarding the pragmatic skills of ELoLT learners. This section was included in the questionnaire to allow teacher participants to record informal observations of problems that might be detected in the learners' functional communication. The section consisted of twenty-one statements and teacher participants had to respond by choosing *all, some, or none* on the rating scale. Section Six was included based on discussions in the literature by Crutchley, Botting and Conti-Ramsden (1997:271), and Mattes and Omark (1984:79).

- **Section Seven: Strategies**

Section Seven investigated the strategies employed by teacher participants to facilitate comprehension and participation by learners in their classrooms. A

list of twelve feasible techniques was supplied and teacher participants had to indicate whether these techniques were used *often, seldom, or never*. Any additional techniques used by the teacher participants could be described in the open question included in this section, thereby preventing bias resulting from limited possibilities. The aim was to collect valuable information on the management of language problems in the preschool classroom. Section Seven was included based on discussions in the literature by Calderon (1997:4) and Diedricks (1997:41-43).

- **Section Eight: Beliefs**

Section Eight was included to collect data on the teacher participants' beliefs on additional language acquisition. The section had ten questions and participants had to choose from the options *agree, disagree, or unsure*. Section Eight was included based on discussions in the literature by Barkhuizen (1993:82).

- **Section Nine: Need for training**

In the *ninth section* of the questionnaire the support need of teacher participants was assessed. This section further suggested topics for workshops and requested the teacher participants to indicate interest by choosing *yes, no, or unsure* as option. An open question inviting participants to make suggestions for workshop topics was also included. This allowed teacher participants to contribute to the workshop topics and limit any possible bias that could result from a restricted number of possible answers to closed-set questions. The information generated from this section may be of great value when planning training courses in future. Section Nine was included based on discussions in the literature by Fante (2000:38) and Nieman (1997:111).

- **Section Ten: Open question**

Section Ten was a final open question. In this section additional information not covered by the questionnaire was requested. Although coding of open questions may be difficult, this question was included to gain insight into the teacher participants' perception of major problems in teaching learners acquiring ELoLT. Section Ten was included based on discussions in the literature by Brits (1996:62); Fowler (1995:134); and Johnson (1992:114).

A covering letter (Appendix B) accompanied each questionnaire explaining the aim of the research, as well as the procedure for completion of the questionnaire. The teacher participants were assured of confidentiality. After the completion of the field-work, an additional letter (Appendix C) was sent to the teacher participants providing them with updated information on the research.

5.6.1.5 Data collection

The procedures for data collection in Phase One are set out below:

- The questionnaires were delivered to the principal of each preschool with a covering letter (Appendix B) explaining the purpose of the research and giving guidelines for the completion of the questionnaire. The principals were assured of confidentiality and thanked for their participation. The researcher did not make any personal contact with the teacher participants.
- Teacher participants had two weeks in which to complete the questionnaire. The researcher personally collected the completed questionnaires from the principals when the two weeks had elapsed.
- Any late completion of questionnaires was followed up to make sure that all willing teacher participants did, in fact, hand in their questionnaires.

5.6.1.6 Response distribution

The tabulated response distribution on the questionnaire provides a summary of teacher participants' responses, and yielded important information which was utilised in the interpretation of the results in Chapter Six. The response distribution on questionnaires completed by teacher participants is presented in Table 5.3.

The response distribution in Table 5.3 indicates the responses of teacher participants to Sections Three to Nine of the questionnaire, which were response choice questions, on an ordinal scale. The responses to Section One (demographic information), Section Two (six open questions), and Section Ten (one open question) which were narrative in nature, will be discussed in Chapter Six. The response distribution in Table 5.3 reveals that responses were distributed across the continuum of subjective scales. This adds to the information value of the questions, as Fowler (1995:133) stated that a cluster of responses in one or two categories may not provide useful survey information.

Table 5.3 further provides important information on the acceptability of response rate frequencies. The non-response rate of teacher participants was overall low. In Section Four (Part Two), where an extra response option (always) was added and choice options were *always, often, seldom, never*, non-responses were lower than in Section Three, where only three response options, *often, seldom, never*, were offered. This may indicate that teacher participants found the distinction between *always* and *often* valuable in their responses. Section Five, on the other hand, offered the same options (always, often, seldom, never) but showed the highest rate of non-responses, which may indicate that some teacher participants experienced difficulty in performing the response tasks in this particular section. The non-responses will be discussed further in Chapter Six as this information was important in the analyses of the results.

TABLE 5.3: RESPONSE DISTRIBUTION ON QUESTIONNAIRE (N=32)

SECTION ONE					SECTION TWO						
Demographic information					Open questions						
SECTION THREE					SECTION FOUR (Part One)						
VARIABLE	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE	VARIABLE	ALL	SOME	NONE	NO RESPONSE		
65	27	4	1	0	81	3	23	1	5		
66	19	7	3	3	82	11	16	1	4		
67	17	11	3	1	83	0	20	6	6		
68	24	5	2	1	84	2	18	7	5		
69	21	8	1	2	85	0	16	12	4		
70	21	7	2	2							
71	16	13	1	2							
72	19	8	1	4							
73	18	11	1	2							
74	22	6	2	2							
75	20	8	2	2							
76	18	7	5	2							
77	18	9	3	2							
78	22	7	1	2							
79	20	9	0	3							
80	13	13	3	3							
SECTION FIVE					SECTION FOUR (Part Two)						
VARIABLE	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE	VARIABLE	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
103	1	8	13	3	7	86	3	19	9	0	1
104	1	3	16	7	5	87	4	13	13	2	0
105	1	9	11	5	6	88	9	14	7	2	0
106	1	9	10	7	5	89	10	18	2	2	0
107	0	13	13	1	5	90	7	16	6	2	1
108	0	3	15	9	5	91	4	10	15	2	1
109	4	3	15	4	6	92	3	11	15	2	1
110	1	9	12	5	5	93	9	13	5	3	2
111	2	12	10	3	5	94	12	12	5	2	1
112	0	5	15	7	5	95	7	17	6	1	1
113	2	9	13	3	5	96	4	15	11	1	1
114	2	10	12	3	5	97	5	16	9	0	2
115	1	11	8	6	6	98	8	15	4	2	3
116	0	4	10	13	5	99	7	17	5	2	1
117	0	11	12	3	6	100	5	13	12	1	1
118	0	4	15	8	5						
119	1	8	7	10	6						
120	2	7	11	7	5						
121	0	1	11	13	7						
122	0	2	10	14	6						
SECTION SEVEN					SECTION SIX						
VARIABLE	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE	VARIABLE	ALL	SOME	NONE	NO RESPONSE		
144	29	3	0	0	123	9	20	2	1		
145	25	6	1	0	124	2	24	5	1		
146	30	2	0	0	125	8	22	1	1		
147	28	4	0	0	126	2	26	4	0		
148	30	2	0	0	127	0	25	7	0		
149	27	4	1	0	128	0	26	6	0		
150	24	6	2	0	129	4	25	2	1		
151	25	5	2	0	130	0	26	5	1		
152	28	4	0	0	131	0	20	11	1		
153	20	8	4	0	132	2	29	0	1		
154	22	9	1	0	133	10	22	0	0		
155	19	9	3	0	134	1	24	6	1		
					135	8	22	1	1		
					136	1	21	9	1		
					137	10	21	1	0		
					138	5	21	6	0		
					139	0	18	12	2		
					140	0	14	16	2		
					141	0	18	14	0		
					142	1	20	9	2		
					143	6	22	3	1		
SECTION NINE (Part One)					SECTION EIGHT						
VARIABLE	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	VARIABLE	AGREE	DISAGREE	UNSURE	NO RESPONSE			
172	25	5	2	160	27	4	1	0			
173	28	2	2	161	14	11	7	0			
174	20	10	2	162	3	22	6	1			
175	25	5	2	163	23	2	6	1			
176	26	4	2	164	25	3	4	0			
177	28	2	2	165	25	3	4	0			
				166	2	27	2	1			
				167	29	0	3	0			
				168	22	3	7	0			
				169	18	4	10	0			
SECTION NINE (Part Two)					SECTION TEN						
VARIABLE	YES	NO	UNSURE	NO RESPONSE	Open question						
178	19	4	5	4							
179	24	3	2	3							
180	14	7	8	3							
181	10	3	14	5							
182	14	2	11	5							
183	18	1	9	4							
184	24	1	2	5							
185	18	5	4	5							
186	25	2	2	3							
187	25	1	3	3							

5.6.1.7 Data recording

The thirty-two questionnaires were randomly numbered from one to thirty-two to ensure the anonymity of the teacher participants, and scanned for completeness.

As directed by a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria, the questionnaires were coded to prepare the contents for descriptive analysis. Unanswered questions were not coded. The open question in *Section ten* was not coded because the narrative responses were so diverse, and valuable information could be lost through categorised coding. The narrative responses to the open question in *Section ten* will be discussed in Chapter Six.

The coded questionnaires were handed to a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria for computerisation. The coded data were entered into a computer programme (SAS) to allow for statistical analysis of the data. The researcher ensured the correctness of the data by verifying the codes allocated on the questionnaire with the computerised data.

5.6.1.8 Data analysis

The nature of the data governs the statistical technique (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:260). Since the nature of the research was exploratory, descriptive, and contextual, *descriptive statistics* (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:257) were mostly utilised in Phase One to describe the data and to illustrate trends within the research context. Statistical computations such as *frequency distribution* were employed to provide an indication of the perceptions of the teacher participants, and to gain a better understanding of the meaning of the research (Janesick, 1998:48). The descriptive analyses of the results of the survey were reported in frequencies (the actual number of teacher participants responding in a certain way), percentages, and cross-tabulations. The responses to open questions were categorised into main ideas to identify categories, and described qualitatively. As categories of meaning emerged,

they were described and explained.(De Vos, 2002c:344). Table 5.4 summarises the data analysis of Phase One of the research.

TABLE 5.4: SUMMARY OF DATA ANALYSIS: PHASE ONE

DATA FROM PHASE ONE	STATISTICAL PROCEDURES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Description of participating preschools - Characteristics of teacher participants - Languages of preschool learners - Perception of problems - Perception of own competencies - Training - Perception of own support needs - Opinions on L2 acquisition - Strategies to facilitate comprehension - General perceptions on learners - Perception of receptive skills - Perception of expressive skills - Perception of pragmatic skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequency tables were used to determine the composition of characteristics of the sample. • Descriptive statistics, namely frequency distribution, were used to determine the frequencies and percentages and to describe selected characteristics of the participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:257).

5.6.2 Phase Two: Language and communication proficiency of multilingual preschool learners

Phase Two of the research was conducted to achieve the second sub-aim of the research study.

5.6.2.1 Research aim

The second sub-aim was to determine the language and communication proficiency in ELoLT of multilingual preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area (in order to determine the needs of these preschoolers in learning English by assessing their expressive and receptive language skills, as well as pragmatic skills, and by establishing patterns in language errors). The following objectives were formulated:

- To describe the language characteristics of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT in a given context relating to expressive and receptive language, as well as pragmatic abilities.

- To compare the preschool teachers' perceptions and opinions regarding the language needs and strengths in English with the language characteristics of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

5.6.2.2 Context

A preschool, situated in the Pretoria CBD, was selected as the context for Phase Two of the research. A geographical, socio-economical, and population description of the Pretoria CBD area was given in Section 5.5.1.2. This preschool was selected after quota sampling was done to select a preschool which is representative of the ratio of preschool learners as found in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area. As described by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:206), quota sampling is a type of non-probability sampling where participants are selected in the same proportions as found in the general population. Information to assist in quota sampling was provided in the questionnaire (Section One, Variable 26 to 39), which was completed by teacher participants during Phase One of the research. The researcher was assisted in the procedure of quota sampling by a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria.

5.6.2.3 Learner participants

Thirty preschool learners were selected as learner participants in Phase Two of the research.

- **Criteria for selection**

The following criteria were applied for the selection of learner participants.

- > **Age group**

Ten preschool learners were selected as learner participants from each of the three age groups in the preschools, namely the Junior Group (three to four

years), Middle Group (four to five years), and Senior Group (five to six years), to cover the various stages of preschoolers' cognitive, emotional, social, and language development and to provide research information across the developmental spectrum in the preschool, as described by Nelson (1998:289) and Dunn (1993:8).

> **ELoLT**

The learner participants were required to have an African Language as L1 and to be in the process of acquiring ELoLT, in accordance with the second sub-aim of the study.

● **Selection procedures**

Permission for the research was obtained from the principal of the selected preschool in the Pretoria CBD. The principal provided official class lists of the school from which every third preschool learner was selected as a learner participant, as directed by a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria. Ten preschool learners were selected from each age category. Informed consent was obtained from all the parents or caregivers of the selected learner participants who were initially approached. (The informed consent form is attached as Appendix D.)

● **Description**

The most important characteristics of the learner participants in Phase Two of the research are summarised in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 indicates that more female than male learners were learner participants in both the Junior and Senior groups – 57% female learner participants and 43% male learner participants. As there is no research evidence to suggest gender differences in the acquisition of additional languages according to Jordaan (1993:67), the uneven distribution of learner participants in this regard did not influence the results.

**TABLE 5.5: SUMMARISED DESCRIPTION OF PRESCHOOL LEARNERS:
PHASE TWO (N=30)**

PRESCHOOL GROUPING	GENDER	PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE
Junior group - Three to four years	Female	6	60%
	Male	4	40%
Middle group - Four to five years	Female	5	50%
	Male	5	50%
Senior group - Five to six years	Female	6	60%
	Male	4	40%

5.6.2.4 Material and apparatus

The material and apparatus used in Phase Two of the research are described in the following section.

- **Test battery**

To realise the second main aim of the study, a test battery in checklist format was compiled as survey instrument to collect information on the language and communication proficiency in English of participants. According to Leedy & Ormrod (2004:185), a checklist is used to verify whether items on a list are *observed* or *not observed*. For this study, a test battery (checklist) was compiled to aid the researcher in determining the proficiency of learners' ELoLT, expressive and receptive language skills, as well as pragmatic skills.

As the assessment of multilingual preschool learners in a meaningful and appropriate manner is currently an area of concern and controversy in the education community worldwide, the following information is deemed necessary. Vaughn-Cooke (1983:29, 33) stated in 1983 already that a crisis existed in the domain of the assessment of learners whose L1 is not English. The general absence of tools for assessment was problematic for professionals. Standardised tests in English were and still are generally biased against learners acquiring ELoLT and cannot provide a complete and valid assessment (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:7; Cole, 1983:26). More than twenty years have passed since serious challenges first addressed the validity of inferences drawn from administering standardised assessment

instruments to learners acquiring ELoLT. Yet, alternatives in the form of culturally fair, non-biased items are still not available (Vaughn-Cooke, as cited by Nelson, 1998:29). However, to place a moratorium on all assessment of learners acquiring ELoLT is not the solution, as indications of learners' linguistic abilities are needed for programme development. Researchers have since intensified their efforts to develop new tests, as the need for alternative strategies for the assessment of these learners must be met as soon as possible (Vaughn-Cooke, 1983:31). While research data are eagerly awaited, and in the absence of appropriate assessment tools, the challenge lies in assessing ELoLT learners while reducing the effects of test bias (Wyatt, 1998:393; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:156).

For this study, criterion-referenced measures were used. The responses of learner participants were therefore not compared with the performance of other learners, that is normative data were not employed (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:46; Wyatt, 1998:395; Vaughn-Cooke, 1983:31). Mattes and Omark (1984:93) are of the opinion that the use of test norms is not absolutely necessary in assessment, and a test can still serve its diagnostic function without them. The analyses of the performance of the learner on individual test items will still provide an indication of his or her ability. The study further used alternative scoring procedures (observed vs. not observed) to report on the behavioural responses of learner participants without calculating scores (Cole, 1983:26). To reduce the effects of test bias in the current research, the wording of some test items had to be modified as these words were inappropriate and did not reflect the dialect of the local community. According to Mattes and Omark (1984:92), such modification can improve the validity of the instrument. Another modification allowed in the research to minimise test bias, was the technique to test learner participants beyond the ceiling or recommended starting points of tests, as recommended by Wyatt (1998:397). As an assessment should include the evaluation of both language structure and competence in the functional use of language (Mattes & Omark, 1984:11), structured tests were combined with the analysis of an elicited language sample (August & Hakuta, 1998:19; Vaughn-Cooke, 1983:31). According to Nelson (1998:300), language samples afford ample opportunity

to observe communication abilities. In addition, elicited language sampling provided the opportunity to examine language-use patterns and code-switching behaviour in multilingual learners (Wyatt, 1998:395).

The assessment materials used in the test battery (checklist) were selected for the following reasons:

- The test battery (checklist) was based on assessment material employed by Jordaan (1993) in a study comparing language form, content, and use in Black South African preschool children during pre-intervention and post-intervention stages.
- Stockman (1996:363) recommends the assessment of the basic common core of language form, content, and use in multilingual preschoolers to identify language proficiency.
- The assessment materials included have been developed specifically for assessing young children, and are considered appropriate for the age groups.
- These assessment materials are readily available to speech-language therapists and teachers, and are representative of the types of measures employed for assessing language and communication skills.
- Preschoolers are familiar with the type of equipment required, namely simple line drawings. The learner participants are, therefore, not likely to be so interested in the equipment that it proves to be an obstacle in eliciting verbal communication.
- Although the assessment materials have not been developed in the South African context, the people, objects, and actions depicted are familiar to urban preschoolers.

- The assessment materials allowed the researcher to obtain samples of elicited conversation, connected discourse, specific pragmatic skills, and elicited samples of specific syntactic and morphological structures.
- Measures for observing both expressive and receptive skills were included.
- According to Jordaan (1993:75), the Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (*TACL-R*) (Carrow, 1985) contains more culture-free items than any of the other tests.
- The assessment materials were specifically chosen to compare assessment results with data obtained from other measures (Mattes & Omark, 1984:69).

> **Measuring instruments**

The following measuring instruments were selected for Phase Two of the research. These measuring instruments were used for criterion referencing and normative data were not employed.

- *Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (TACL-R)* (Carrow, 1985). This measuring instrument can be used to assess the auditory (receptive) comprehension of language of learners aged 3 years 0 months to 9 years 11 months. The reliability and validity are based on 1003 normal language learners, 60 normal adults, 234 learners with speech and language disorders, 16 severely hearing-impaired learners, 11 mentally retarded learners, and 7 adult aphasics in the United States of America (USA) (Carrow, 1985:1).
- *Kindergarten Language Screening Test (KLST-2)* (Gauthier & Madison, 1998). This measuring instrument can be used to assess expressive and receptive language, as well as elicited language (sequence story), of learners aged 4 years 0 months to 6 years 0 months.

Standardisation is based on the assessment of 579 learners between the specified ages. The sample selection procedure resulted in a normative sample that was representative of the USA nation as a whole with regard to geographic region, gender, and race (Gauthier & Madison, 1998:9).

- *Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA): Subtest Grammatic Closure* (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968). This subtest of the measuring instrument can be used to assess the morphological development of learners aged two to ten years. The normative group consisted of 1010 learners in the USA within the average ability group, divided into 50% males and 50% females, and 42 African American learners (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968:51-65).
- *MWM Program for Developing Language Abilities* (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972). This measuring instrument consists of large, colourful pictures depicting scenes familiar to learners, and can be used to elicit language samples. The *Birthday Party Picture* was selected from this programme and was considered to be appropriate as it is generally accepted that all learners are familiar with birthdays.
- *Personal experience narrative* (Tönsing, 1998). This measuring instrument consists of conversation maps and is utilised to elicit language, based on the assumption that in order to elicit a story, a story must be told (Tönsing, 1998:17). The conversational maps of *Doctor* and *Pets* were chosen as these concepts were considered to be familiar to learners.
- *Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors – Format 2* (Creaghead, 1984). This measuring instrument is a checklist that consists of strategies that may be utilised to assess pragmatic behaviour in young learners. More than 350 normal, language-impaired, hearing-impaired, and mentally retarded learners between the ages of three years and

five years in the USA have been tested to assess the reliability and validity (Creaghead, 1984:246).

> **Modifications**

Modifications were made to the assessment materials for the following reasons:

- To put the learner participants at ease and create the impression of experiencing success, the following three items were added at the start of *KLST-2* (Gauthier & Madison, 1998), item 5:
 - *show me your eyes*
 - *show me your nose*
 - *show me your ears.*

Wiig and Semel (as cited by Gauthier & Madison, 1998:14) placed the identification of the body parts *eyes, nose, ears* in L1 at 15 to 26 months of age. It is generally accepted that learners will also understand these words in an additional language fairly early, and therefore the learner participants were expected to be familiar with these words. These items were added as criteria to the test, and did not influence the data collection because normative data were not used in the research.

- Some items in the *TACL-R* (Carrow, 1985) had to be modified, because they did not reflect the dialect of the local community. The following test items were modified:

Section I: Word classes and relations

Item 23: “*alike*” changed to “*same*”.

Section II: Grammatical morphemes

Item 5: “The boy is *beside* the car” changed to “The boy is *next to* the car”.

Item 36: “The *deer* eats apples” changed to “The *buck* eats apples”.

Item 37: “The *deer* is drinking” changed to “The *buck* is drinking”.

Section III: Elaborate sentences

Item 18: “After he cut her hair the *hair stylist* took a coffee break” changed to “After he cut her hair the *hairdresser* took a coffee break”.

Item 24: “Beside the baseball glove, she bought a *record*” changed to “Beside the baseball glove, she bought a *CD*”. The word *baseball* was not modified as the picture provided visual support to facilitate comprehension.

Item 31: “Having put her coat in the *closet*, she took off her shoes” changed to “Having put her coat in the *wardrobe*, she took off her shoes”.

As discussed previously, such modifications reduced the effects of test bias created by inappropriate words (Mattes & Omark, 1984:92). These modifications therefore improved the validity of the measuring instrument.

The measuring instruments selected for the test battery (checklist) are presented in Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.6: COMPILED TEST BATTERY FOR EVALUATION OF PRESCHOOL LEARNERS

AIMS OF THE ASSESSMENT	MEASURING INSTRUMENTS	ASSESSMENT MATERIALS	ADDITIONAL REFERENCES
To assess auditory (receptive) comprehension of word classes and relations, grammatical morphemes, elaborated sentence construction	Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (TACL-R) (Carrow, 1985)	Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (TACL-R) (Carrow, 1985)	Nelson (1998:336) Jordaan (1993:74) Deal & Yan (1985:47) Mattes & Omark (1984:124)
To assess expressive and receptive language comprehension, knowledge of name, age, body parts, and number concept, ability to follow commands, repeat sentences, and produce spontaneous speech	Kindergarten Language Screening Test (KLST-2) (Gauthier & Madison, 1998)	Kindergarten Language Screening Test (KLST-2) (Gauthier & Madison, 1998)	Nelson (1998:333) Deal & Yan (1985:46)
To assess morphological development, specifically the following: prepositions, regular plurals, irregular plurals, and degrees of comparison	Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA): Subtest Grammatical Closure (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968)	Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA): Subtest Grammatical Closure (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968)	Nelson (1998:333) Crutchley, Botting & Conti-Ramsden (1997:269) Vaughn-Cooke (1983:30)
To assess expressive language abilities a) To elicit language by using visual stimuli with a picture considered appropriate for this age group - Birthday party b) To elicit language from a set of three scene sequence cards considered appropriate for this age group to evaluate temporal order and cause-effect c) To elicit language by using a conversational map to invite a personal experience narrative – Doctor or, alternatively, Pets	Elicited Language Sample a) Picture description (MWM Program for Developing Language Abilities) (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972) b) Sequence Story (KLST-2) (Gauthier & Madison, 1998) c) Personal experience narrative (Tönsing, 1998)	b) The Birthday Party Picture from the MWM Program for Developing Language Abilities (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972) c) The three picture set sequence story from the KLST-2 (Gauthier & Madison, 1998) d) Doctor and Pets conversation map (Tönsing, 1998)	a) Jordaan (1993:94) Tönsing (1998:18) August & Hakuta (1998:42) b) Nelson (1998:333) Jordaan (1993:94) Tönsing (1998:19) Deal & Yan (1985:48) c) Jordaan (1993:93) August & Hakuta (1998:42)
To assess pragmatic behaviour	Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors – Format 2 (Creaghead, 1984)	Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors – Format 2 (Creaghead, 1984) - paper - red and blue crayons - pair of spectacles - pictures of person and dog - telephones - remote control car - cloth	Mattes & Omark (1984:80)

- **Audio tape recorder**

To facilitate the assessment of productive use of language, audio tape recordings were made of elicited language samples of the preschool learners.

The following apparatus were used for the recordings:

- National RX – CS 700 2-way 4-speaker system with build-in microphone (audio tape recorder)
- TDK D60 audio tapes.

The data were analysed with the aid of a National RX – CS 700 2-way 4-speaker system with built-in microphone (audio tape recorder).

5.6.2.5 Data collection

In Phase Two of the research the procedures for data collection were as follows:

- The participants were evaluated individually by the researcher using the measuring instruments as set out in Table 5.6. The duration of each individual evaluation was approximately 45 minutes.
- The official record forms of the measuring instruments were used to record responses, as *observed* or *not observed*.
- A therapy room on the preschool premises was prepared for the evaluation. Two child-sized tables and two child-sized chairs were placed in the middle of the room. The audio tape recorder was placed on one table with the built-in microphone directly facing the participants. The placement of the participants and the researcher during the evaluation is depicted in Figure 5.4.
- The researcher fetched individual learner participants from the classrooms and explained the sequence of the evaluation.

- For the first three learner participants the sequence of activities started with the *Birthday Party Picture* of the MWM Program (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972). As birthdays are an experience familiar to learners, the researcher expected to elicit a good language sample. The learner participants were, however, shy and withdrawn. The researcher then changed the sequence of activities to start with a response task where learner participants had to respond by indicating a picture (from a selection of three).

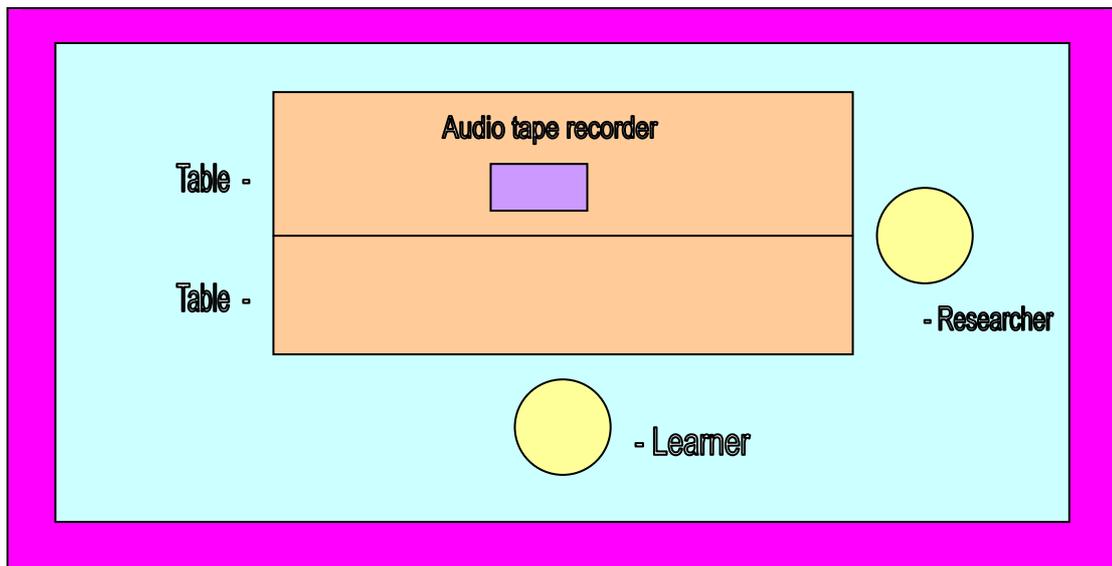


FIGURE 5.4: VISUAL PRESENTATION OF THERAPY ROOM DURING EVALUATION

- After establishing rapport with individual learner participants, the sequence of activities from the fourth learner participant onward was as follows:
 - *TACL-R* (Carrow; 1985)
The researcher administered the *TACL-R* by providing the appropriate stimulus; the learner participants responded by pointing; the researcher recorded the response.

- *KLST-2*, including the sequence story (Gauthier & Madison, 1998)
The researcher administered the *KLST-2* by providing the appropriate test items; the learner participants responded by pointing or answering; the researcher recorded the response. Learner participants were asked to tell a story from the three picture set sequence story. Responses were tape-recorded.
- *MWM Program* (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972)
The researcher presented the participants with the Birthday Party stimulus scene; learner participants were asked to describe the picture; responses were tape-recorded.
- *Personal experience narrative* (Tönsing, 1998)
The researcher introduced conversational maps Doctor or, alternatively, Pets to elicit language from the learner participants. The procedure was kept constant and the researcher acted as a conversational partner; responses were tape-recorded.
- *ITPA* (Kirk, McCarthy & Kirk, 1968)
The researcher administered the Subtest Grammatic Closure by providing the appropriate stimulus; the learner participants responded by pointing; the researcher recorded the responses.
- *Pragmatic behaviours* (Creaghead, 1984)
The researcher administered the appropriate stimulus as directed in Format 2 of the checklist; the learner participants responded either by answering, pointing, or an action; the researcher recorded the responses.
- The researcher rewarded learner participants with a star and accompanied them back to their classrooms.

- The researcher furnished the parents or caregivers of each learner participant with a summary of their child's results.
- The researcher sent a letter of gratitude to the participating preschool and provided preliminary findings, to be followed up at the end of the study with more formal results.

5.6.2.6 Data recording

Data were obtained from thirty preschool learners. The audio-taped elicited language samples were transcribed verbatim, including meaningful sounds, false starts, incomplete sentences, fillers, and repetition of words, phrases and sentences. Unanswered questions, as well as non-verbal responses, were noted (Appendix F).

To facilitate the recording of data, an error analysis form (Appendix E) was compiled. An error analysis was done to examine the types of errors and consistency of errors in the learner participants' performances, as suggested by Mattes & Omark (1984:69). The error analysis form was based on the formal assessment record forms, as well as on the following categories of errors, as suggested by Nxumalo (1997:16-30):

- **Noun errors:** Use of noun-pronoun; idiosyncratic use of pronouns; regular and irregular plural and possessive inflection errors; gender confusions.
- **Preposition errors:** Incorrect use of prepositions; omission of prepositions.
- **Errors of article/determiner:** Omission of articles; overuse of articles; incorrect use of a/an.
- **Verb errors:** Use of compound tense with "did"; extension of the progressive aspect to stative verbs; extension of progressive to

habitual/repeated actions; omission and inconsistent marking of third person agreement; incorrect sequence of tenses in discourse and complex sentences; omission of copula; inconsistent agreement between subject and “be” verbs; overuse of regular past tenses; overuse/omission of auxiliary verb.

- **Complex sentence errors:** Overuse of “and” and “and then” as a conjunction in narratives.
- **Individual variations:** Innovations; indiscriminate use of dialectal terms.

The following categories of errors suggested by Nxumalo (1997:16-30) were not included as no evidence of these errors could be found in the elicited language sample:

- **Errors in question formation:** No verb-phrase inversion or only wh-fronting; direct question form extended to indirect.
- **Complex sentence errors:** Double conjunction marking; past tense in first sentence and present tense in subsequent sentences (postulated to be included in verb error category *incorrect sequence of tenses in discourse and complex sentences*).

The researcher added categories to the error analysis form to accommodate language characteristics that emerged during the data recording. The new categories were approved by an expert in the field of language development in children. The following categories were added:

- **Noun errors:** Omission of pronoun/noun in subject position; omission of noun in predicate positions; use of generic terms (this one/that one/other/another/that thing); referring to inanimate object as he/she.
- **Preposition errors:** Overuse of preposition.

- **Verb errors:** Present instead of past tense; incorrect choice of verb/generic verb to describe action (e.g. did); omission of verb; omission of –ing/“going to”.
- **Complex sentence errors:** Comparison without comparative “er” or comparative word; problems with sequencing utterances in personal experience narratives; omission of connectivity.
- **Individual variations:** Use “gonna” instead of “going to”.
- **Interaction patterns:** This included no responses; non-verbal responses; answers restricted to yes/no; answers in single words; gestures; false starts; incomplete sentences; code-switching; inappropriate answers; many prompts necessary; meaningful sounds; repetition of words; repetition of phrases; repetition of sentences; “I don’t know” answers; problems with word order.

The data on the error analysis form were coded as directed by a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria. The data were then computerised by the same department and verified for correctness by the researcher.

5.6.2.7 Data analysis

The statistical analysis of the data provided a broader, quantitative view of the data. *Descriptive statistics* were mostly used in Phase Two to provide a description of the data and to illustrate trends within the research context. The statistical computation, *frequency distribution* was used to determine the frequencies and percentages and to describe trends, as recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:257). Data triangulation was done to compare data collected from the questionnaires (completed by the teacher participants in Phase One) with data collected from the language and communication assessment of learner participants in Phase Two of the research. The objective of such comparison was to compare the preschool teachers’

perceptions regarding the language skills in English with the language assessment data of multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT.

Nonparametric statistics were employed to compare data collected in Phase One with data collected in Phase Two. Paired differences were determined with the Wilcoxon matched-pair signed rank test, which is a non-parametric test, as described by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:274). The sets of data obtained from the respective teacher participants teaching to the Junior Group (two teacher participants), Middle Group (three teacher participants), and Senior Group (two teacher participants) from the preschool selected for Phase Two were averaged and paired to the assessment data of each learner participant in the different groups selected for Phase Two.

The two sets of data obtained from the questionnaires and the language and communication assessments respectively were prepared for comparison, as one of the research objectives was to compare the findings of the researcher with the perceptions of the teachers. Twenty-seven language skills from the two data sets could be compared. The following list was compiled for comparison and handed to a statistician of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria.

(The data in the questionnaire were marked with a "V" to distinguish it from the data in the language and communication assessment, which were marked with a "K"):

- V124 and V125 compared to K9 (comment on action)
- V126 compared to K10 (describe an event)
- V128 compared to K19 (attend to speaker)
- V129 compared to K18 (volunteer to communicate)
- V131 compared to K24 (topic maintenance)
- V132 compared to K17 (answer question)
- V134 compared to K7 (request for information)
- V136 compared to K27 (request for clarification)
- V137 compared to K5 and K6 (request for action/object)
- V139 compared to K12 (hypothesise)

- V140 compared to K15 (giving reasons)
- V143 compared to K4 (greet)
- V66 compared to K253 (code-switch)
- V67 compared to K175 and K176 (follow 1 and 2 step commands)
- V68 compared to K77 (preposition – through)
- V78 compared to K250 (gestures)
- V86 compared to K29 to K37 (name common objects)
- V87 compared to K38 to K44 (use common verbs)
- V88 compared to K50 (comparison)
- V92 compared to K159 to K162 (name colours)
- V97 compared to K113 to K117 (interrogative)
- V103 compared to K261 (correct word order)
- V109 compared to K215 (gender confusion)
- V110 compared to K238 (correct determiners)
- V111 compared to K233 (correct prepositions)
- V118 compared to K218 to K230 (verb errors)
- V120 compared to K203 to K208 (degrees of comparison)

Table 5.7 summarises the data analysis of Phase Two of the research.

TABLE 5.7: SUMMARY OF DATA ANALYSIS

DATA FROM PHASE TWO	STATISTICAL PROCEDURES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Receptive ELoLT abilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary comprehension • Grammatical morphemes • Elaborated sentences - Expressive ELoLT abilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Noun errors • Preposition errors • Errors of article/determiner • Verb errors • Complex sentence errors • Individual variations • Communication observations - Pragmatic behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequency tables were used to determine composition of characteristics of the sample. • Descriptive statistics, namely frequency distribution, was used to determine the means, frequencies, and percentages, and to describe trends (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:257).
Comparison of data from the questionnaire with data from the language and communication assessment.	Nonparametric statistics were used to compare data. Paired differences were determined with non-parametric Wilcoxon matched-pair signed rank test (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:254).

5.6.3 Phase Three: The role of the speech-language therapist

Phase Three of the research was conducted to achieve the third sub-aim of the research.

5.6.3.1 Research aim

The aim of Phase Three was to explore the role of speech-language therapists in the acquisition of ELoLT by urban multilingual preschool learners. The following objective was formulated:

- To explore the role of speech-language therapists in the multilingual preschool learners' acquisition of ELoLT, based on the opinions and needs expressed by the teacher participants in Phase One, as well as language abilities displayed by learner participants in Phase Two.

5.6.3.2 Data collection

No new data were collected in Phase Three of the research. To explore the role of the speech-language therapist, the data collected during Phase One and Phase Two of the research were interpreted during Phase Three.

5.6.3.3 Data analysis

No statistical procedures were employed to analyse the data in Phase Three of the research. The conclusions of the previous phases were used as underpinning in the exploration of the role of speech-language therapists.

5.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

When applying quantitative research methods, the merit of the research is acknowledged through the evaluation of the validity and reliability of the work (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:97; Poggenpoel, 2000:348).

5.7.1 Validity

The validity reflects the truthfulness of the data or the extent to which a measure actually measures the concept in question and whether the concept

is measured accurately (Delpont, 2002:166). Validity has to be documented when assessing new survey measures or when applying established survey measures to new populations. It is an important measure of a survey instrument's accuracy (Litwin, 1995:34).

Different forms of validity are important in different situations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:92). Although absolute validity can never be achieved, the following validity measures pertain to the questionnaire and test battery (checklist) and were considered important for acceptable levels of validity in this study, as described by Delpont (2002:166).

The *face validity* indicates to which extent an instrument represents a particular concept (Dane, 1990:257). Face validity relies on subjective judgement of experts who are in the position to decide whether an instrument measures what the researcher wants to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:92). In this study, the questionnaire was submitted for review to an advisory panel, and the test battery (checklist) to an expert in the field of language development in children, as suggested by Johnson (1992:123).

The content validity indicates to which extent an instrument is perceived to represent accurately the relevant areas that are central to the content domain (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:92). The questionnaire and test battery (checklist) were developed based on sound language developmental theory, including the basic common core of language content, form, and use, as recommended by Stockman (1996:363). In addition, the test battery (checklist) was based on assessment material employed in a study by Jordaan (1993), which not only increased the content validity, but also allowed the researcher to compare the research findings of the two studies to determine consistency of findings. Prior to the research, both the questionnaire and test battery (checklist) were judged and found to be appropriate by an expert on language development in children, as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2004:93). The questionnaire was also pretested (see Section 5.6.1.4) with participants who were similar to the teacher participants in the main study. The use of a pretest increased the validity of the results as technical problems with wording

or lay-out that could effect the results obtained from the questionnaire, were identified and changes were made to the questionnaire prior to the research.

The *construct validity* involves determining the degree to which an instrument successfully measures a theoretical construct (Delpont, 2002:167). This form of validity is often not calculated as a quantifiable statistic, but is a rather lengthy process over a number of years, and is an attempt to validate the theory behind the measure and how well the measure performs in a multitude of settings and populations (Delpont, 2002:168; Litwin, 1995:43). In this study the researcher asked questions in the questionnaire to assess an underlying construct of the questionnaire – the needs and strengths of the teacher participants when teaching multilingual preschool learners.

The *external validity* of the data indicates to which extent the research outcomes can be extended to other groups (Poggenpoel, 2000:348; Nunan, 1993:62). This was not possible in the current study as the nature of the research design was contextual and generalisation beyond the research context could not be done.

5.7.2 Reliability

Reliability reflects the accuracy of a measure and the extent to which two independently derived sets of scores will yield the same results under comparable conditions (Delpont, 2002:168). Although no measure is completely reliable, a high degree of reliability is necessary to ensure that the final results can be trusted (Litwin, 1995:7).

The *internal reliability* of the data indicates whether independent researchers will come to the same conclusions when analysing the primary data. The researcher transcribed and syntactically analysed the elicited language sample, as described by Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1977). Upon the analysis of the language sample of this study by an independent rater, an agreement of 98.1% was established, which improved the interrater reliability of the study (see Section 6.3.1.2). The data analyses were repeated at six

months intervals to improve intrarater reliability, as described by Litwin, 1995:30). In addition, the scoring of the test battery (assessment data) was done without the norm bias associated with cross-cultural testing, which also improved the reliability of the testing.

The *external reliability* of the data indicates whether replication of the research will yield the same results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:93; Nunan, 1993:60). External reliability therefore refers to the extent to which independent administration of the same measures will consistently yield the same results, with comparable participants under comparable conditions (Schneider, 2004:147; Delpont, 2002:168). In the research a detailed description of the research design and method was provided, as well as a detailed account of the data collection procedures and analyses, to allow replication of the research under similar conditions to multiple cases, or to replicate the design to cases that are sufficiently different to justify the generalisation of results and theories as described by Schneider (2004:1473).

5.8 CONCLUSION

The empirical study was conducted in the context of pressing agendas of multicultural education and curriculum transform in South Africa. Although multicultural education is currently being researched extensively (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121), the size of the research field presents researchers with a daunting challenge (Peirce & Ridge, 1997:170). In this study, attention was focused on a specific context in which the needs of preschool teachers, and learners acquiring ELoLT, were investigated to describe the context and to make recommendations regarding the role of the speech-language therapist. Language plays a pervasive role in learning and teaching at school (Prelock, 2000:214), and a recommendable curriculum should include measures to accelerate the development of ELoLT and prevent further failure. The research introduced dialogue between preschool teachers and speech-language therapists and could lead to a much needed increase in cross-disciplinary research projects.

5.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter a step towards solving the research problem was taken with the description of the research methodology of the empirical investigation. The research methodology was described in detail and included the research aims and objectives, the research design and method, ethical issues, participants, materials and apparatus, as well as research procedure. Finally, issues related to validity and reliability were addressed. This information forms the background to the presentation and discussion of the results in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Because bilingualism and multilingualism are worldwide phenomena, bilingual education is a worldwide enterprise. However, the particular form of bilingual education, its goals, and its reason for being vary from locale to locale (Hoff, 2004:363).

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Empirically grounded knowledge broadens the information needed in practice by providing situation-specific data which may be used as basis for informed decision-making and change (Delport & De Vos, 2002:50). Educational research in South Africa has been largely conducted at macrolevel, and may be of little relevance if teachers are unable to transfer the knowledge to their own school environments (Mafisa, 2001:36). This study attempted to address the context-specific educational needs of nine multilingual preschools in the Pretoria Central Business District (CBD) and Sunnyside area. Over the past decade, a challenging environment has been created in these areas by the enrolment of Black learners in preschools with English as the only Medium of Instruction (Mol). The research explored the existing situation and analysed the current opinions and perceptions relating to language diversity in multilingual preschools, as well as the possible barriers to learning and development created by learning in English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT).

The main aim of the empirical research was to describe the specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area. First, the researcher had to determine the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and preschool learners in the specific research context, and once they were identified, the researcher could explore

the role of speech-language therapists in support of the preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners.

The aim of this chapter is to present the results graphically in figures or tables, and to interpret and discuss the findings. The results are described and presented according to the three research phases described in Chapter Five, Section 5.6, as schematically illustrated in Figure 6.1.

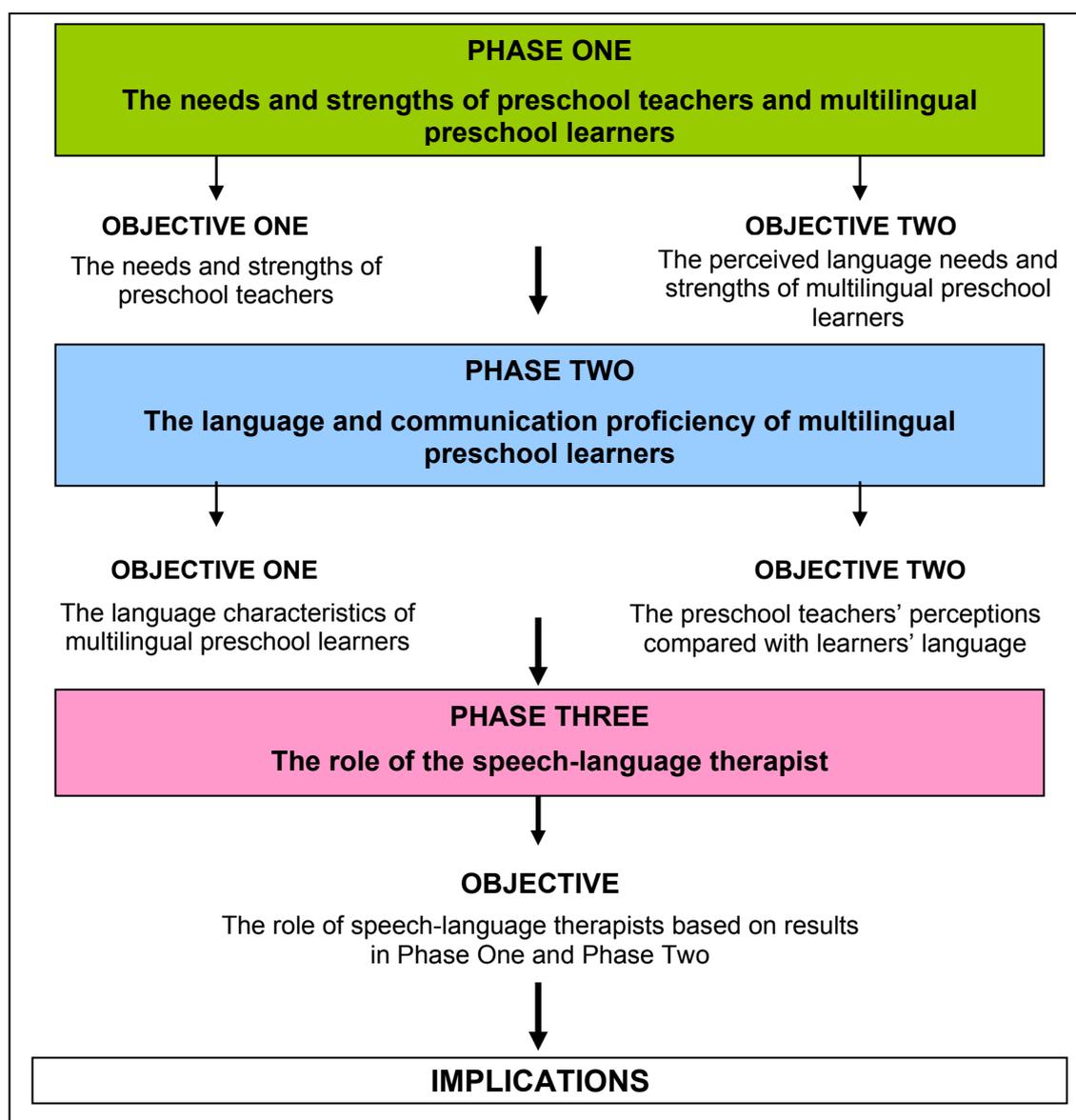


FIGURE 6.1: SCHEMATIC PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.2 NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF THE PRESCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRESCHOOL LEARNERS

The overall objective of Phase One was *to describe the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area from the preschools teachers' perspectives*. The results are based on the responses obtained from the questionnaires completed by the teacher participants and will be presented according to the objectives presented in Figure 6.1.

6.2.1 Context-specific information

Important *context-specific demographic information* was gathered regarding the participating preschools, the teacher participants, and the preschool learners.

6.2.1.1 Description of participating preschools

Section One (Variable 19, 23, 24, 26) of the questionnaire requested information on selected characteristics of the nine participating preschools in the research context. Table 6.1 provides a summary of the relevant characteristics.

Table 6.1 reveals that most of the participating preschools (66%) were independent and received no financial support from the government. Independent preschools are usually funded with parents' or caregivers' fees and community fundraising, and educational material is sometimes donated. Early Childhood Education (ECE) in the research context was mainly fee-based and concurred with the findings reported in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:11) that approximately 75% of ECE in South Africa is fee-based and therefore restricted in terms of access and equity. Learners from urban areas and higher income groups generally have more access to ECE services than learners from poor or rural areas (RSA, 2001a:11). In terms of the research

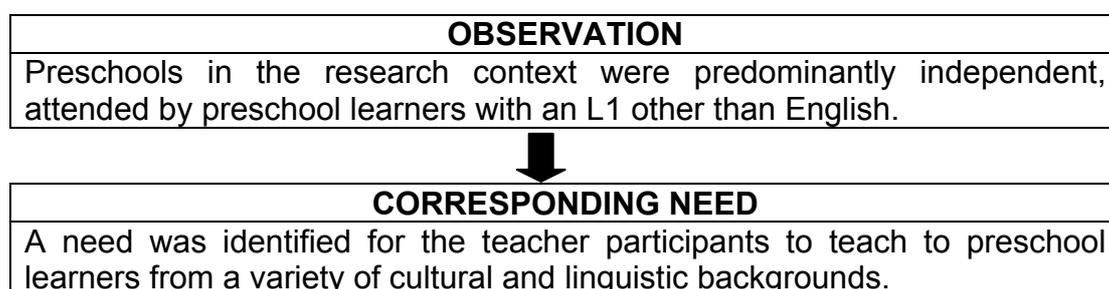
TABLE 6.1: DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPATING PRESCHOOLS (N=9)				
NUMBER ALLOCATED TO SCHOOLS	TYPE OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER ALLOCATED TO CLASSES	NUMBER OF LEARNERS IN CLASSES	NUMBER OF ELoLT LEARNERS IN CLASSES
1	Independent preschool	25	11	11
		26	21	21
		27	20	14
2	Independent preschool	19	24	24
		20	24	20
		28	20	20
3	Government-subsidised preschool	11	24	24
		12	28	28
		13	24	24
		14	28	26
		15	27	26
4	Independent Preschool	29	25	22
		30	23	20
		31	32	29
5	Government-subsidised preschool	17	20	19
		18	20	20
6	Government-subsidised preschool	1	27	20
		2	26	24
		3	32	31
		4	33	20
		32	34	19
7	Independent preschool	22	19	16
		23	22	18
		24	21	21
8	Independent preschool	21	Not provided	Not provided
9	Independent preschool	5	26	26
		6	22	22
		7	26	26
		8	20	19
		9	30	28
		10	30	29
		16	21	21
TOTAL 9 schools		32 classes	760 learners	688 learners

setting learners with parents or caregivers from the medium income group were likely to be accommodated in the independent participating preschools, as this group could afford the school fees.

As seen in Table 6.1 three of the participating preschools were government-subsidised preschools and were funded by the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE). In these schools fees played a relatively smaller role compared to the financial burden of independent preschools. The quality of education in the government-subsidised preschools was controlled by employing only teachers registered with the South African Council of Educators and by using preschool programmes approved by the local Department of Education. The ECE in the research setting varied in terms of type, but the South African government expressed concern in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:14) about the variable quality of ECE services in independent preschools.

In all of the 32 participating classes, most of the learners (90.5%) were ELoLT learners, with only 9.5% learners with English as mother tongue (L1). The preschool teachers in the research setting therefore had to cope with English L1 and ELoLT learners in the same classroom and had to teach at different language levels to individual learners in the class. This trend is typical to the South African educational context and has also been pointed out by Dawber and Jordaan (1999:2), as well as by Barkhuizen (1993:77).

From the above findings, the following observation is made and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.1.2 Characteristics of teacher participants

Section One (Variable 4 - 18, 20 - 22, 40) of the questionnaire determined relevant characteristics of the 32 teacher participants. The results illustrate

how the teacher participants' characteristics contributed to the complexity of the teaching situation in the research context. Table 6.2 provides details of these characteristics.

TABLE 6.2: DESCRIPTION OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' CHARACTERISTICS (N=32)			
CHARACTERISTIC	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE OF PARTICIPANTS
HOME LANGUAGE	Afrikaans	27	84%
	English	3	10%
	SeSotho	1	3%
	IsiZulu	1	3%
ADDITIONAL LANGUAGES SPOKEN*	English	28	87%
	Afrikaans	5	15%
	SeSotho	3	10%
	German	2	6%
	IsiZulu	1	3%
	IsiXhosa	1	3%
	SePedi	1	3%
	SiSwati	1	3%
	XiTsonga	1	3%
	Dutch	1	3%
Sign language	1	3%	
LANGUAGE PREFERENCE	Not provided	1	3%
	Afrikaans	26	81%
	English	3	10%
	Afrikaans and English	2	6%
AGE	Not provided	2	6%
	18 - 25 years	6	19%
	26 - 35 years	6	19%
	36 - 45 years	9	28%
	46 - 55 years	5	15%
	55 + years	4	13%
HIGHEST QUALIFICATION	Not provided	1	3%
	Lower than matric	2	6%
	Matric	1	3%
	Diploma	25	79%
	Degree	2	6%
	Post-graduate qualification	1	3%
TEACHING EXPERIENCE	Not provided	2	6%
	Less than 1 year	0	0%
	1 - 3 years	7	22%
	4 - 5 years	2	6%
	6 - 9 years	3	10%
	10 + years	18	56%
TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS	Not provided	1	3%
	1 year	5	15%
	2 years	3	10%
	3 years	4	12%
	4 years	6	18%
	5 years	3	10%
	6 years	3	10%
	7 years	3	10%
	10 years	2	6%
	17 years	1	3%
	21 years	1	3%

* Some teacher participants listed more than one additional language.

According to Table 6.2, most of the teacher participants (84%) were White and Afrikaans-speaking, but they were teaching mostly in English and not their mother tongue (L1). The large number of Afrikaans-speaking teacher participants may be attributed to the fact that the majority of White people in the Gauteng Province has Afrikaans as L1 (Census in Brief, 1998), and Afrikaans-speaking teachers are therefore more readily available than teachers with English as L1. Another explanation for such a high percentage of Afrikaans-speaking teachers may be that they retained their teaching positions at the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside preschools, while the population in these areas became culturally integrated (Wolhuter, 2000:155). The urbanisation of Black families, as well as more opportunities for tertiary education for Black students since 1994, may account for the two teacher participants who had African languages (SeSotho and IsiZulu) as L1, but they also taught in English in the research context.

As seen in Table 6.2 only 10% of the teacher participants had English as L1. When considering that all participating preschools had English as Mol, it is clear that 90% of the teacher participants were not teaching in their L1. As numerous authors, including Cele (2001:188), Cunningham (2001:212), Barkhuizen (1993:80), and Macdonald (1991:19), have voiced their concerns about the English proficiency of South African teachers, a question arises about the English skills of the teacher participants in this study. The *language preference* as displayed in Table 6.2 may provide an indication of the teacher participants' proficiency in English, as language preference is defined in the literature as *self-assessment of the more proficient language* (Dodson, as cited by Baker, 1993:17). The 10% of teacher participants who had English as L1 preferred English as language for communication. Six percent of the teacher participants indicated Afrikaans as well as English as preferred languages and it is postulated that these teachers were fully multilingual. However, 81% of the teacher participants preferred to communicate in Afrikaans, which may imply that *some* of these teacher participants were not fully multilingual, but had better proficiency in Afrikaans than English. Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:71) explained that perfect multilingualism is extremely rare and that with multilingual speakers one language is more often

dominant and the other subordinate. The teacher participants did, however, still meet the selection criterion which specified that they had to be *proficient* in English, not necessarily *fully proficient* in English.

The difficulties that *some* of the teacher participants experienced with English were evident from the manner in which they provided explanations in narrative questionnaire answers. Observation and personal interviews with preschool principals in the research context, also revealed that *some* teacher participants were indeed not *fully proficient* in English. This could complicate the teaching situation, as limited English language skills may inhibit conversational exchanges in the classroom (Lemmer, 1995:88; Barkhuizen, 1993:80). As it is commonly held that the quality of exposure to English is important for improving the learners' proficiency, the teachers' command of English also strongly influences the learners' use of ELoLT (Cele, 2001:189). If learners are exposed to a less than ideal model of English, it may influence their acquisition of English negatively (De Klerk, 2002b:21).

Table 6.2 further reflects that the teacher participants' additional languages (L2) covered nearly the whole spectrum of official South African languages, *excluding* IsiNdebele, SeTswana and TshiVenda, and *included* German, Dutch and Sign language. IsiNdebele and TshiVenda are among the three languages with the lowest percentage of speakers in the Gauteng Province (Census in Brief, 1998), which may explain why no teacher participant spoke these two languages. Another interesting fact that became evident was that some of the Afrikaans-speaking (White) preschool teachers were able to speak African languages as additional languages, enabling them to provide additional support to multilingual preschool learners by code-switching as explained in the literature (Lemmer, 1995:88).

It is evident from Table 6.2 that 88% of the teacher participants received tertiary education and were therefore academically well qualified. However, personal interviews with preschool principals revealed that their training was not necessarily in ECE. Twelve percent of the teacher participants employed as preschool teachers by independent preschools, did not have any teacher

training. It seems reasonable to suggest that inappropriate qualifications may impact significantly on the teacher participants' competence and theoretical knowledge of preschoolers' cognitive, emotional, social, and language development. The value of increased knowledge of the preschool learners' development lies in a better understanding of the needs of preschool learners. The inequities in the qualifications of ECE educators were also pointed out in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:14), and the possible impact thereof on the quality of ECE was recognised in this document. In the South African context, however, there is currently no mechanism that requires independent preschools to employ preschool teachers with appropriate qualifications or registration with the South African Council of Educators (RSA, 2001a:14). Individuals with inappropriate qualifications may therefore teach at independent preschools.

According to Table 6.2 the ages of the teacher participants indicated a broad age spectrum. The importance of the teacher participants' ages pertains to the fact that their age can be directly linked to their teaching experience. The teacher participants younger than 36 years had markedly less teaching experience than the teacher participants older than 36, all of whom had more than 10 years experience. The teaching experience with multilingual learners, however, differed from the teacher participants' general teaching experience and only 9% of the teacher participants had 10 or more years experience with multilingual learners. Although many of the teacher participants (56%) had more than 10 years general teaching experience, 56% of the teacher participants had *less than five years* experience in teaching multilingual classes. These findings indicate that although many preschool teachers in the research context were already at an advanced stage in their careers, they were only starting to gain experience with multilingual learners. Young (1995:107;111) explained that the reality of multilingualism in South Africa are challenging teachers to adapt to the diversity of communicative needs and language proficiencies of multilingually composed classes. Political and demographic changes in South Africa are actually forcing all teachers to adapt to new situations in which they are faced with the challenge to become

knowledgeable about and learn to relate to learners from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

The results demonstrated in Table 6.2 emphasise that the selected characteristics of teacher participants did indeed add to the complexity of the teaching situation in the research context. The analysis of these characteristics provided an indication of some of the personal challenges encountered by preschool teachers.

From the above findings, the following observations are made and a corresponding need and strength are recognised.

OBSERVATIONS
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Most teacher participants were not teaching in their L1, but in their L2.• Some teacher participants were not trained in ECE.• Many teacher participants were inexperienced in teaching multilingual classes.



CORRESPONDING NEED AND STRENGTH
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• A perceived strength was identified in that many teacher participants had some experience with multilingual learners.• A need was identified to understand how the teacher participants' personal challenges impacted on their teaching in the research context.

6.2.1.3 Languages of preschool learners

Section One (Variable 27 – 39) of the questionnaire gathered information on the representation of the various mother tongues of preschool learners in the study, as recorded by the 32 teacher participants. The results are displayed in Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3: LANGUAGE DATA FOR 760 PRESCHOOLERS AS RECORDED BY 32 TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

HOME LANGUAGE	FREQUENCY OF LEARNERS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS
Unknown to teacher	281	36,9%
Afrikaans	198	26%
SeSotho	76	10%
English	72	9,5%
SeTswana	50	6,6%
IsiXhosa	20	2,6%
SePedi	19	2,5%
IsiZulu	17	2,2%
Other specified African languages	9	1,2%
TshiVenda	4	0,5%
Other unspecified African languages	3	0,4%
French	3	0,4%
SeSwati	2	0,3%
XiTsonga	2	0,3%
IsiNdebele	2	0,3%
Portuguese	2	0,3%
TOTAL	760	100%

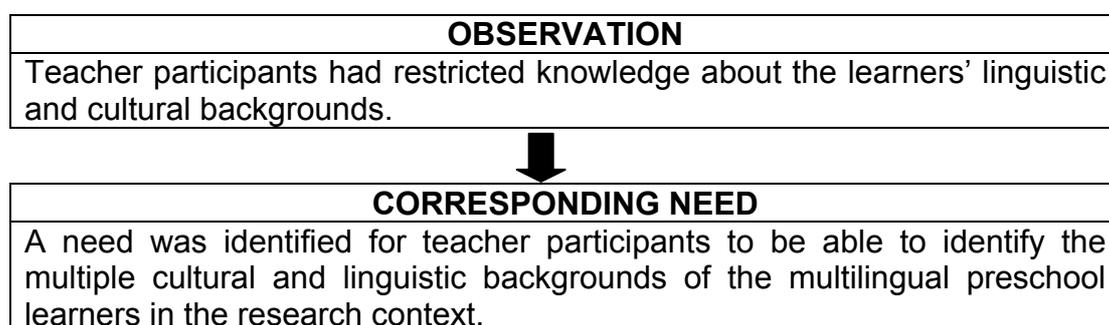
An alarming fact revealed in Table 6.3 is that the L1 of a large number of preschool learners (36,9%) was unknown to the teacher participants. The researcher observed that these preschool learners spoke African languages. The fact that the teacher participants could not recognise the L1 of such a large number of learners illustrated the complex situation in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area. Identifying the learners' L1 was a difficult task for the teacher participants and might pertain to their limited contact with some parents or caregivers, or to their restricted experience with multilingual learners. Not only were multiple languages represented in the classrooms, but because some learners spoke more than one language at home, the principal L1 was often difficult to identify (Sadiki, 2002:10; Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:71).

Table 6.3 further indicates that the largest language group known to the teacher participants, was the Afrikaans-speaking preschoolers who constituted 26% of the total number of preschool learners in the research context. The teacher participants' ability to recognise the Afrikaans is not surprising since their own L1 was Afrikaans (84%). Most of the teacher

participants could therefore code-switch to Afrikaans in support of the Afrikaans-speaking preschool learners, whereas the same support could not be provided by all teacher participants to preschool learners speaking African languages. English, on the other hand, was correctly and easily identified as a learner's L1, as English is the most often used official language in education in South Africa, and most of the Afrikaans teacher participants had English as L2.

The importance of being aware of the cultural background of learners is frequently emphasised in the literature (Tabors, 1997:91; Venter, 1996:86; Makin, Campbell & Diaz, 1995:42), and is recognised as part of cultural competence. The first step towards cultural competence would be to learn the name of the culture as assigned by its members (Battle, 1998:xiii) and then to refer to it in class (Robb, 1995:17). Preschool teachers' sensitivity towards linguistic diversity in multilingual classes will communicate to preschool learners the worth of their L1 (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:125 Combrink, 1996:9). Such cultural support builds the self-esteem preschool learners need to function successfully in a multilingual, multicultural learning environment (Driscoll & Nagel, 2002:513; NAEYC, 1996:4).

From the above findings, the following observation is made and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.2 The needs and strengths of preschool teachers in teaching multilingual preschool learners

To describe the needs and strengths of preschool teachers, the teacher participants' *perception of problems, perception of own competencies, training, perception of own needs for support and knowledge, beliefs on L2 acquisition, and strategies to facilitate ELoLT comprehension* were determined.

6.2.2.1 Perception of problems

The teacher participants' concerns regarding the teaching of ELoLT preschool learners were identified from responses obtained from Section Ten of the questionnaire, which was an open question to allow narrative answers. The response rate to this Open question was 84% and regarded as representative of the selected teacher participants' opinions. It is surmised that non-respondents had no comments to add, as Section Ten was the last section of the questionnaire and many problems regarding ELoLT learners had been addressed in previous sections. Alternatively, teacher participants may have experienced response fatigue as the open question was the last question in a lengthy questionnaire. Responses to the Open question ranged from a single problem to multiple listing of problems. The responses were systematically analysed into main ideas, using indexing in order to identify categories. Units (words, phrases, sentences) relevant to the research aims were identified and responses were categorised and numbered. Three categories emerged from the teacher participants' responses, namely perceptions regarding *parents or primary caregivers, perceptions of the difficulties that teachers experience, and concerns regarding ELoLT learners*. The results are presented in Tables 6.4 and 6.5. As the Open question allowed teacher participants to comment freely, the number of categories identified in each narrative answer varied. The frequency of teacher participants who expressed the same idea is noted in Tables 6.4 and 6.5, as this provides important information on whether it was an individual opinion or group consensus.

TABLE 6.4: GROUP'S PERCEPTIONS OF PROBLEMS IN TEACHING ELoLT PRESCHOOL LEARNERS (N=27)		
CATEGORIES	PROBLEM AREAS	EXAMPLES OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' STATEMENTS
Perceptions regarding parents or primary caregivers	Caregivers act irresponsibly in sending learners to English schools although they have no comprehension of English (n=5)	<i>Parents cannot expect the child to be ready for an English school next year when we only have one year left</i>
	Caregivers do not speak English at home and are therefore not supporting ELoLT development (n=3)	<i>Another problem is parents who continue to speak Sotho/Zulu and do not speak English at home</i>
Difficulties teachers experience	Learners do not stay on the task because they do not understand the instructions and often distract other learners (n=6)	<i>Distract others during theme discussions as they do not understand me</i>
	Teachers fail to understand the pronunciation of ELoLT learners (n=5)	<i>Pronunciation</i>
	Teachers find they cannot complete their programme for the day as too much extra time is required for explanations (n=5)	<i>Vocabulary is limited. Much time is wasted. Repetition and demonstration needed</i>
	Teachers fail to understand the messages ELoLT learners attempt to convey (n=3)	<i>They speak to me in their mother tongue and do not understand if you do not react</i>
Concerns regarding ELoLT learners	Learners' comprehension of English is insufficient for learning, most notably vocabulary (n=13)	<i>No communication possible</i>
	Learners have limited verbal expression in general terms, as well as in specific aspects, e.g. pronouns (n=13)	<i>They cannot express themselves easily/adequately and are often misunderstood</i>
	Learners rely on gestures and mix languages to convey messages as a result of their limited English vocabulary (n=9)	<i>In the beginning we battle to understand each other. They use lots of gestures</i>
	Learners' behaviours such as distractibility and inadequate task completion are related to inadequate comprehension (n=6)	<i>They show boredom during story time as they do not understand</i>
	Teachers are especially concerned that learners cannot express their emotions (n=2)	<i>When they are hurt they cannot explain to the teacher what happened</i>

The three categories that were identified from the Open question involved the major role-players in the acquisition of ELoLT as described in Chapter Three, namely learners, teachers, and parents or primary caregivers. Each of these categories will be discussed forthwith.

The first category identified in Table 6.4 was *perceptions regarding parents or primary caregivers*. As reflected in the literature (Lemmer, 1995:85), the teacher participants recognised the authority of parents or primary caregivers as decision-makers regarding L1 and the Mol for their children. In addition, teacher participants perceived that they need the support of parents or caregivers in the development of ELoLT. Parents or caregivers may not be aware of this perception, because of a misconception about roles or poor communication between the two groups. Since parents or caregivers may require help and guidance from the school to be able to support learners, teachers may have to explain their expectations of language use. Parental or caregiver support cannot be left for chance encounters and occasional conversations, instead their involvement needs to be planned and managed in a professional manner and should be part of the schools' activities (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:102). Although various barriers to parental or caregiver involvement were identified in Chapter Three (Section 3.5.2), Lemmer and Squelch (1993:96) are of the opinion that through support, parents or caregivers could become the teachers' partners in learners' education.

The second category identified was *difficulties that teachers experience*. Table 6.4 indicates that the teacher participants were concerned about the multilingual learners' communication barriers leading to, among others, problems with the effective management of their classrooms. The teacher participants recognised the negative impact that the learners' poor proficiency in English had on the flow of activities in their classrooms. This finding corresponds with previous research findings (Diedricks, 1997; Barkhuizen, 1993) that poor ELoLT proficiency hindered classroom activities, which led to teachers feeling frustrated because they were unable to cope with these situations. Currently teachers are challenged to include a diverse population of learners in their classrooms while continuing to fulfil their traditional role of educators – to provide each learner with a responsive learning environment and maintain educational standards (Harris, 2003a:80). Classroom management is a skill valued in teachers (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994:259), and one of the primary management functions in the multicultural class is to ensure an atmosphere that promotes learning (Le Roux, 1997:94).

The third category identified was *concerns regarding ELoLT learners*. Table 6.4 shows that teacher participants were concerned about factors which may impact on the overall development of multilingual learners, such as their receptive and expressive abilities in English and their emotional well-being. From these results it appears that language problems and social behaviour are intertwined in complex ways, and that behavioural problems may be indicative of maladjustment to the learning environment. The specific needs and strengths of preschool learners as perceived by teacher participants, were included as closed-ended questions in the questionnaire. These will be discussed in greater detail in Section 6.2.3 to provide a more in depth-view of the teacher participants' perceptions of multilingual preschool learners and their ELoLT proficiency.

Table 6.4 indicated group consensus on teacher participants' perceived problems, but individual teacher participants provided responses that could be categorised into emotional difficulties that learners experience and will therefore be presented separately. Table 6.5 displays the responses of individual teacher participants to Section Ten: Open question of the questionnaire. Even though these problems were mentioned only by individual teacher participants, the information is still important to the researcher as it may reflect important needs within the research context.

TABLE 6.5: INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTIONS OF EMOTIONAL DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY ELoLT PRESCHOOL LEARNERS

Learners do not develop self-confidence if they are not understood (n=1)
Black learners who speak African languages reject other Black learners who speak only English (n=1)
Learners are apt to withdraw if they do not understand (n=1)
Discipline becomes a problem when learners do not understand verbal instructions (n=1)
Socialisation is inadequate if learners cannot understand each other (n=1)
Cultural diversity leads to conflict among learners (n=1)
Teachers observe frustration and aggression when learners are not understood (n=1)

Table 6.5 reveals that individual teacher participants perceived the ELoLT learners' social adaptation to the preschool classroom to be a problem. Preschool teachers are used to social interaction being facilitated by the preschool environment where learners socialise and interact (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:206). It is documented (Beilinson & Olswang, 2003:154) that preschool learners with limited language skills may exhibit deficits in the area of social communication, including initiating play and entering peer groups, which further limit opportunities for social interaction. The literature suggests that teachers should provide the linguistic support that could initiate interaction to integrate learners into the peer group (Beilinson & Olswang, 2003:154;155). Learners may benefit from adults structuring activities to guide learners through play and games in such a way that they can be fully included in playground activities with peers (Fujiki, Brinton, Isaacson & Summers, 2001:109). The observation of a teacher participant of categorisation and the formation of groups in which the learners speak the same L1 has also been described in the literature. De Klerk (2002b:21), and August and Hakuta (1998:36) found that learners from similar cultural backgrounds have a tendency to group together and revert to their L1. In the research context, a teacher participant perceived that such cultural grouping could lead to conflict among learners, as indicated in Table 6.5. This perception of one of the teacher participants needs to be viewed in the light of the fact that many of the teacher participants were not always aware of the learners' L1, as revealed in Table 6.3.

Table 6.5 further reflects a perception of one of the teacher participants that Black learners with English as L1 might be rejected by Black learners speaking African languages. It appears that Black learners in this teacher participant's perception may have accepted that White learners do not speak African languages, but find it unacceptable in Black peers. The negative consequences of English replacing the traditional L1 may manifest in the preschool learners as a loss of confidence, social isolation, and the potential loss of identity and the feeling of belonging to a community, as discussed by Makin et al., (1995:51).

From the above findings, the following conclusion is reached and corresponding needs as well as strengths are identified.

CONCLUSION
Teacher participants may feel ill-prepared to handle the dynamics that are associated with multilingual classrooms and are concerned about the impact on the learners' emotional, social and intellectual development.



CORRESPONDING NEEDS AND STRENGTHS
Perceived needs were identified to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Establish partnerships with the parents or caregivers• Design a multilingual classroom environment that support the needs of the multilingual preschool learners in the research context• Develop insight into the relationship between language and social behaviour• Address the social issues that influence the learners' well-being. Perceived strengths were identified: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Teacher participants seemed to have a clear and sophisticated understanding of the multilingual learners' language needs.• Teacher participants appreciated the importance of social-emotional development to academic learning.

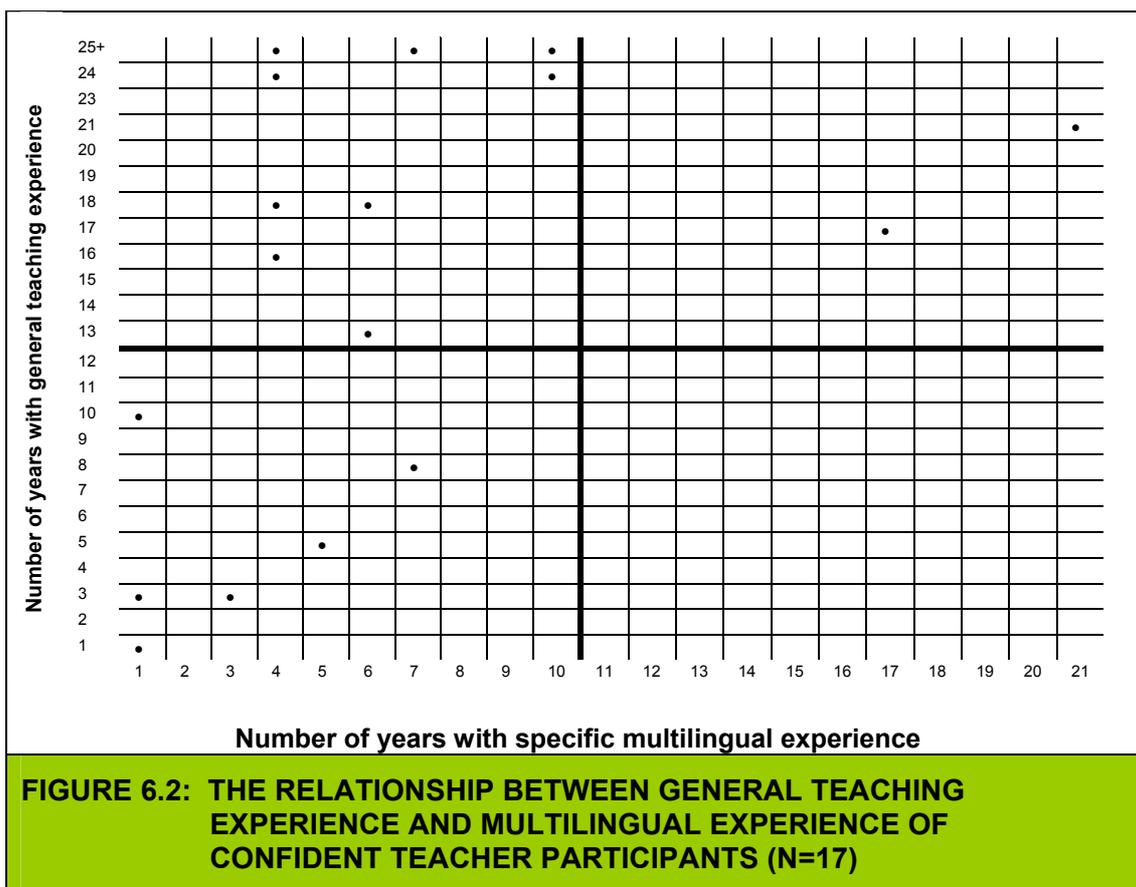
6.2.2.2 Perception of own competencies

Section Two (Variable 64) of the questionnaire ascertained whether teacher participants felt competent in teaching preschool learners acquiring ELoLT . The results are displayed in Table 6.6. The two teacher participants who did not provide their years of teaching experience (as shown in Table 6.2) were not included in Table 6.6 as cross-tabulation was done. The results were still considered to be representative of the teacher participants' perceptions as the response rate to this question was high at 93.75%.

TABLE 6.6: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THEIR OWN COMPETENCE (N=30)				
Perception of competence in teaching multilingual learners	Experienced teachers (5+ years general experience)	Inexperienced teachers (1 – 5 years general experience)	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
In all circumstances	6	2	8	27%
In most circumstances	7	2	9	30%
In some circumstances	7	6	13	43%
Total	20	10	30	100%

Table 6.6 indicates that 57% of teacher participants (27% in *all* circumstances and 30% in *most* circumstances) were confident of their own competencies to teach multilingual learners, whereas 43% did not have total confidence in their own competencies to teach multilingual preschool learners. Similar findings in a study by Diedricks (1997:46) indicated that feelings of incompetence and insecurity in multilingual classes often created stress, both on emotional and physical levels.

It is interesting to note that findings related to general experience versus confidence revealed that the length of teaching experience did not always affect confidence positively. Experienced *and* inexperienced teacher participants experienced confidence regularly, whereas teacher participants from *both groups* perceived incompetence at times. On account of this analysis, the question arises whether the teacher participants' specific teaching experience with multilingual learners improved their confidence. In Figure 6.2, the relation between general teaching experience and multilingual experience of the 17 confident teacher participants (in *all* and *most* circumstances) is illustrated.



When the results in Figure 6.2 are considered and compared with those in Table 6.2, it is clear that *all* the teacher participants who had 10 years or more experience in multilingualism were confident in teaching multilingual learners. Sixty-six percent of the teacher participants with six to seven years experience were confident, while less than 50% of the teacher participants with less than six years experience were confident. These results give a clear indication that specific experience with multilingualism affected the teacher participants experience of confidence positively.

As mentioned earlier and shown in Table 6.6, a large percentage (57%) of teacher participants perceived themselves to be relatively confident (in all and most circumstances) in teaching multilingual learners, despite English proficiency and personal challenges which may be experienced as indicated previously. These teacher participants, confident of their own competence, may act as resources to aid colleagues in gaining mastery or control over the teaching situation. By working together teachers themselves could become valuable resources and may help to build capabilities through productive staff

development. Such collaboration or working together to develop strategies and programmes is advocated in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:18) and White Paper 6 (RSA, 2001b:47). Swart and Pettipher (2001:41) referred to this process where educators work together to develop new skills as *peer coaching*.

If collaboration, as implied above and recommended in the literature (Nieman, 1994:16; Barkhuizen, 1993:273), can build confidence, it becomes necessary to explore whether collaboration in the research context also improved confidence. In Section One (Variable 59-63) of the questionnaire teacher participants were requested to indicate in which manner they collaborated with other teachers and speech-language therapists. Cross-tabulation was done with results obtained in Section Two (Variable 64) which ascertained the teacher participants' confidence in all, some, and most circumstances. The results are presented in Table 6.7. It was established in the pretest that preschool teachers without formal qualifications were also referred to as caregivers. The teachers/caregivers referred to in Section One (Variable 59 – 60) are therefore indicative of teachers as per definition in Section 1.7.

TABLE 6.7: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF COMPETENCE IN RELATION TO COLLABORATION (N=30)

Perception of own competence in teaching multilingual learners	Collaborate only with other teachers	Collaborate only with speech-language therapists	Collaborate with both teachers and speech-language therapists	No collaboration	Frequency of participants	Percentage of participants
In all circumstances	1	0	6	1	8	27%
In most circumstances	1	1	3	4	9	30%
In some circumstances	1	2	2	8	13	43%
Total	3	3	11	13	30	100%

An analysis of Table 6.7 reveals that most of the teacher participants who perceived confidence in *all* circumstances were those who collaborated with other teachers, as well as speech-language therapists, whereas most of the

teacher participants who perceived only confidence in *some* circumstances did not collaborate with others at all. The fact that collaboration improves teachers' perception of their competence and contributes to the expansion of knowledge of team members has been documented in the literature (Engelbrecht, 2004:254; Du Plessis, 1998b:63). However, these results may also indicate that teacher participants who have developed the greatest confidence and, therefore, are least defensive, may also be those who are most open to and most likely to seek out the experience of other professionals.

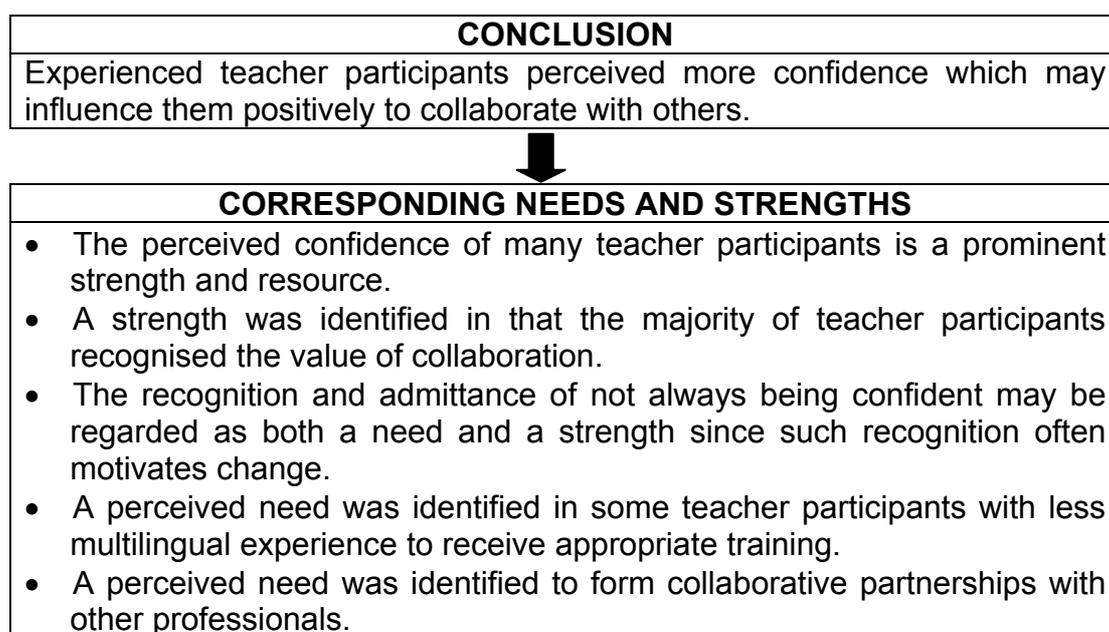
Section One (Variable 59 – 63) of the questionnaire also explored the manner in which the teacher participants collaborated with other teachers and speech-language therapists. The results are presented in Table 6.8. As the data were collected by means of an open-ended question, teacher participants could provide more than one response.

Table 6.8 reveals that some teacher participants collaborated with colleagues in what appears to be the sharing of ideas and resources while planning and working together. Other teacher participants informally discussed problems with colleagues, as they have in their profession constant contact during the day. Both these groups of teacher participants were therefore not working in isolation, but collaborating in different ways with teaching colleagues.

TABLE 6.8: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' MANNER OF COLLABORATION IN THE RESEARCH CONTEXT (N=32)	
COLLABORATIVE PARTNERS	MANNER OF COLLABORATION
Teachers	Informal discussions with colleagues (n=7)
	Formal lesson planning with colleagues (n=7)
Speech-language therapists	Refer individual learners to speech-language therapists (n=8)
	Refer individual learners to speech-language therapists. Speech-language therapists present information sessions during staff meetings (n=5)
	Refer individual learners to speech-language therapists. Speech-language therapists periodically present lessons to classes (n=5)
General assistants	Consistently translate learners' utterances during the day (n=5)

Results concerning collaboration with speech-language therapists indicate some contact and collaboration, although possibly not on a regular basis. Individual intervention, utilising the traditional *pull-out* service delivery, appears to be the model of choice. Local research by Venter (1998:114) showed that 73% of speech-language therapists provided individual intervention without any form of collaboration with teachers in the acquisition of ELoLT. In both studies no clear evidence could therefore be found of collaborative assessment, planning, or intervention.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and corresponding needs and strengths are identified.



6.2.2.3 Teacher participants' training

Section Two (Variable 46-58) of the questionnaire addressed the issue of the teacher participants' training to teach ELoLT learners. The results are presented in Table 6.9. *Courses* and *workshops* were combined as they are indicative of training over a shorter period of time than *formal training*.

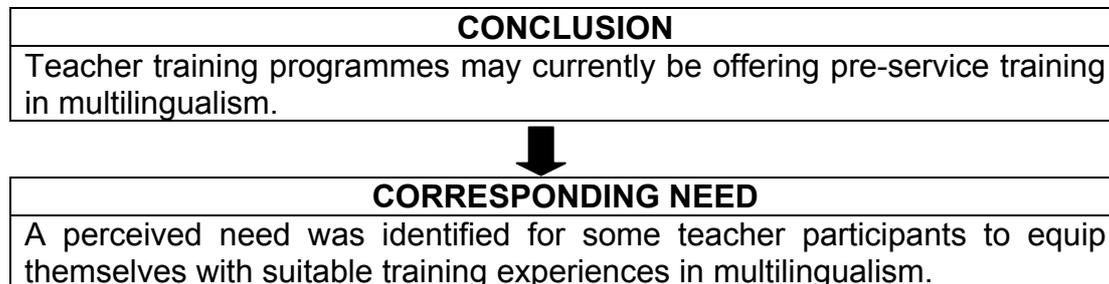
TABLE 6.9: TRAINING OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS IN MULTILINGUALISM (N=30)							
SPECIFIC TRAINING REGARDING MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS AND MULTILINGUALISM	AGE OF TEACHERS					Frequency	Percentage
	18-25 YEARS	26-35 YEARS	36-45 YEARS	46-55 YEARS	55+ YEARS		
Formal training	2	0	0	0	0	2	7%
Courses and workshops	2	0	3	0	0	5	17%
Self-study	0	0	0	1	0	1	3%
No training	2	6	6	4	4	22	73%
TOTAAL	6	6	9	5	4	30	100%

Table 6.9 indicates that the majority of teacher participants (73%), most of them older than 26 years, did not receive pre-service training in multilingualism. Literature (Lemmer, 1995:4) substantiates this and revealed that teachers acquired their training and experience in mono-culture institutions during the apartheid period and were not trained to teach linguistically diverse learners. It is alarming to note that only a small number of these teacher participants, with no baseline multicultural training, have attended workshops and courses. Although not all the teacher participants felt confident to deal with aspects of multicultural education, as discussed previously, Table 6.9 shows that not many have equipped themselves with the suitable training experiences. Even self-study (interpreted as the reading of academic journals by the only responding teacher participant), was not favoured by them. Such low incidents of reading (3%) on multilingualism may be further explained by the research findings of Elksnin and Capilouto (1994:264) that reading journals to obtain information was a least preferred activity. This may also point to a passive approach to learning, where teacher participants expect others to tell them what they need to know.

According to the results, teacher participants younger than 25 years completed modules on multilingualism as part of their teacher training, whereas older teacher participants did not receive any training on multilingualism. The fact that the younger teacher participants received pre-

service training may indicate that teacher training in South Africa is currently undergoing transformation. However, four teacher participants in the younger age group did not receive pre-service training, which imply that current teacher training practices vary. The two teacher participants with formal training on multilingualism were the two participants who perceived themselves to be confident in *all* circumstances, as shown in Figure 6.2. Their training may have contributed to knowledge and insight regarding the issues surrounding multilingualism and equipped them with skills that empowered them in the teaching context. However, multicultural education is currently offered to teacher trainees by many institutions as only a single module within other educational courses, which may not be sufficient and continue to leave some teachers not fully trained and prepared to teach in multicultural contexts (Gumbo, 2001:240).

From the above findings, the following conclusion is reached and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.2.4 Perception of support needs

To establish the support required, the teacher participants' perception of their own support needs was explored.

- **The manner of support**

The first part of Section Nine (Variable 172-177) of the questionnaire determined the manner of support teacher participants perceived to be important. Table 6.10 provides a summary of their responses.

TABLE 6.10: VARIABLES RELATING TO PERCEIVED SUPPORT NEEDS BY TEACHER PARTICIPANTS (N=32)

Variable	Frequency		
	yes	no	No response
Advice on how to handle the multilingual learner	25	5	2
Workshops on multilingualism	28	2	2
Formal training on multilingualism	18	12	2
Assistance by speech-language therapists in planning language lessons	24	6	2
Material to use in language lessons	26	4	2
Professionals to help evaluate the language needs of multilingual learners	28	2	2

From Table 6.7 it is clear that the general trend of the teacher participants' responses was extremely positive towards support regarding multilingual learners in their classrooms. The teacher participants were also in agreement regarding their perception of the manner in which they required support. It is of interest to note that the teacher participants were more in favour of workshops (28), as opposed to formal training (18), which may give an indication of the amount of time and money the teacher participants were prepared to spend on training, as well as their preference for the interactive nature of instruction often prevailing at workshops. Elksnin and Capilouto (1994:264) substantiate these findings that teachers preferred to obtain information by attending in-service training rather than formal courses. These results may assist school principals when planning staff development and training activities, as part of the whole school developmental programmes.

Upon further analysis of Table 6.10, it becomes clear that teacher participants' responses to three variables pointed to the sharing of responsibilities with other knowledgeable professionals. This sharing includes two components of teamwork, namely *consultation* (*advice* on how to handle the multilingual learner), and *collaboration* (*assistance* by speech-language therapists in planning language lessons and *to help* evaluate the language needs of multilingual learners). These results confirm research results by Brits (1996:57) which indicated that teachers requested support in language acquisition planning in multilingual learners, and findings by Diedricks

(1997:vi) and Nieman (1994:16), in which teachers expressed the need for support and advice on the accommodation of multilingual learners in their classrooms. However, it appears that the manner of support preferred by teacher participants to some extent indicates inactivity on their side, as also seen in Table 6.9 and Table 6.10. This may imply that educational support professionals will have to take the lead to initiate consultation and collaboration.

It is of interest to note that some of the teacher participants who perceived themselves to be competent in *all* circumstances (as displayed in Table 6.6) indicated that they did not require consultation and collaboration as discussed above, but were only interested in workshops and formal training. It is postulated that their perceived confidence either included confidence about their own knowledge, or, alternatively, that they experienced domain conflicts when other professionals attempted to cross disciplinary borders, making them hesitant to collaborate.

- **The need for knowledge**

The second part of Section Nine (Variable 178-187) of the questionnaire presented the teacher participants with different topics to determine their topic preferences for workshops. The workshop topics presented in Section Nine were recommended in the literature for pre-service and in-service training of preschool teachers (NAEYC, 1996:10). The results are presented in Table 6.11.

TABLE 6.11: TOPIC PREFERENCES FOR WORKSHOPS (N=32)		
TOPICS	FREQUENCY OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS
Habits and customs of different cultures	25	78%
Acquiring basic vocabulary in new languages	25	78%
Language and culture	24	75%
Second-language learning	24	75%
Language acquisition	19	59%
Community involvement	18	56%
Cross-cultural communication	18	56%
Sociolinguistics	14	44%
Use of translators / interpreters	14	44%
Working with diverse families	10	31%

Table 6.11 reveals that the four most frequently preferred topics for workshops were *acquiring basic vocabulary in new languages* (78%), *habits and customs of different cultures* (78%), *language and culture* (75%), and *second-language learning* (75%). All these topics preferred by the majority of teacher participants for workshops include cultural issues. The acknowledgement of the need to acquire cultural sensitivity and knowledge concurs with the findings displayed in Table 6.3, which identified a weakness in the ability to recognise African languages. The need for cross-cultural knowledge is well documented and often referred to in the literature (Gumbo, 2001:233-236; Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:125; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:78; Macdonald, 1993:26), and although no teacher is expected to become knowledgeable about all cultures, a show of interest in learners' cultures will communicate feelings of value to learners.

Most of the teacher participants (78%) were willing to attend workshops on *habits and customs of different cultures*, whereas only 31% were interested in the topic of *working with diverse families*. Knowledge of the different cultures will be of great benefit to teacher participants, but they also need to learn about learners' families and communities to create an environment where respect for one another can grow and flourish. It is emphasised in the literature (NAEYC, 1996:10) that misunderstandings may occur if preschool teachers are unsure of how to relate to and work with parents or caregivers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Misunderstandings may be one of the reasons why teacher participants perceived a lack of support from

parents or caregivers, as shown in Table 6.4. Literature (Cheng, 1996:350) has indicated that different discourse patterns from both groups could create uncertainty about expectations.

An interesting finding reflected in Table 6.11 is that only 44% of teacher participants showed interest in *working with translators/interpreters* as workshop topic. Similar results by Roseberry-McKibbin and Eicholtz (1994:159) indicated that less than a third of the participants in their study were interested in the use of translators/interpreters. As the teacher participants themselves could not code-switch to African languages, as indicated in Table 6.2, it appears that they were not aware of the value of this strategy and, therefore, less interested to gain information on the subject. Translators/interpreters were already available at the preschools in the research context in the persons of general assistants and multilingual learners themselves. Table 6.3 indicated that 9.5% of the learners in the research setting had English as L1 and could therefore be used as peer-tutors. If managed correctly, they could become resources in the multilingual classrooms. Peer-tutoring, where learners are utilised as translators/interpreters to convey the teachers' instructions or summaries of lessons to fellow learners in a structured manner, is a creative way to experiment with language in multilingual classrooms (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:83), and involves no cost to preschool teachers. In addition, peer-tutoring may be utilised optimally in view of the collective consciousness of people from African cultures and their feeling of responsibility towards each other (Smalle-Moodie, 1997:70).

The final variables (Variable 188-192) of Section Nine of the questionnaire was an open question to determine which other topics participants would like to be included in workshops. Only one teacher participant listed an additional topic, namely *how to teach learners specific language structures, e.g. pronouns*. The fact that teacher participants did not include more topics may imply that all their preferred topics were listed in the questionnaire.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is reached and corresponding needs as well as a strength are identified.

CONCLUSION
Teacher participants were willing to attend workshops with cross-cultural topics, and to collaborate with other professionals, including speech-language therapists.



CORRESPONDING NEEDS AND STRENGTH
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• A perceived need was identified for the support of teacher participants through workshops, as well as consultation and collaboration with other professionals.• The perceived need for workshops on cultural issues should be viewed as both a strength and a need, as this perception may be a motivation for change.

6.2.2.5 Beliefs regarding L2 acquisition

Section Eight (Variable 160-169) of the questionnaire explored the teacher participants' beliefs on general issues of L2 acquisition. The limitations of the questions in this section have been discussed in Section 5.6.1.4 and it is acknowledged that the questions may be regarded as leading questions. Owing to this limitation in the questionnaire, no conclusion will be drawn or any needs or strengths be identified from the results that are presented. The one teacher participant who did not provide information on teaching experience with multilingual learners was not included in the results, as cross-tabulation was done. The results are presented in Table 6.12.

Prominent findings from Table 6.12 are that the majority of teacher participants agreed with the body of existing knowledge on L2 acquisition, as stated in the questionnaire. The teacher participants with six to ten years multilingual experience answered *unsure* less often than the other two groups, thus indicating strong agreement or disagreement with the questions. The teacher participants with one to five years experience were more *unsure* than the other two groups about the answers.

TABLE 6.12: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' BELIEFS ON L2 ACQUISITION (N=31)

CATEGORIES	TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS									
	10+ YEARS (N=2)			6-10 YEARS (N=8)			1 - 5 YEARS (N=21)			NO RESPONSE
	AGREE	DISAGREE	UNSURE	AGREE	DISAGREE	UNSURE	AGREE	DISAGREE	UNSURE	
Sequential acquisition preferable	1		1	8			17	4		
L2 acquisition follows same steps as L1		1	1	4	4		9	6	6	
Change L1 to English	1		1	1	7		1	14	5	1
First comprehension, then use	2			6	1	1	15	1	4	1
Personality affects L2 acquisition	1		1	7		1	17	2	2	
Know learners' ability in L1	1		1	6	2		17	1	3	
L2 has a negative impact on L1		1	1		6	1	2	19		1
Multilingualism is an asset	1		1	7		1	20		1	
Learners benefit from code-switching	1		1	6	2		14	1	6	
Culturally appropriate curriculum needed		1	1	3	1	4	15	1	5	

It is interesting to note that 9 teacher participants (agree 3 + unsure 6) did not believe that the learners' L1 had to be maintained. Teachers are important decision-makers and often play the role of adviser to parents or caregivers when consulted during decision-making. The consequences of incorrect perceptions and advice, such as changing the family's L1 to English, may have a negative impact on the learners' future academic achievements and may restrict spontaneous interactions at home. Such a choice about language usage may, therefore, have repercussions beyond the classroom and the immediate community (Andreoni, 1998:9).

Table 6.12 further indicates that teacher participants in all three groups may have incorrect beliefs regarding L2 acquisition. The first prominent category of concern is *steps of L2 acquisition*. A number of teacher participants (11) did not agree that L1 and L2 are acquired in similar ways. However, Owens (2001:430) pointed out that the rate and manner of L1 and L2 acquisition appear to be essentially the same. These teacher participants either did not have the correct beliefs on L2 development, or were not aware of the

individual variability in L2 acquisition, influenced by both the characteristics of learners and the socio-cultural environment in which they are exposed to a L2 (Hoff, 2004:350). Nieman (1995:297) pointed out that preschool teachers, in general, may have a lack of knowledge on L2 acquisition as a result of their specific training, and highlighted that preschool teachers are not generally trained in educational strategies to enhance and support L2 acquisition. Nieman (1995:297) further explains that preschool teachers are not language teachers and their language goal in class is not to teach learners L2, but to communicate with them and develop social interaction.

The second category of concern is *L2 has a negative impact on L1*. A small number of the teacher participants (4) may, unfortunately, have an incorrect perception of the importance of L1 in cognitive development and the acquisition of L2. It appears as if a lack of experience with multilingual learners may have influenced the teacher participants' answers, as three of them were in the group with the least experience, while the remaining teacher participant was in the group with advanced experience. It is generally accepted that proficiency in L1 will be transferred to L2 because of a common underlying proficiency (CUP). Garcia and Stein (1997:147) viewed L1 as a resource and encouraged preschool teachers to move away from the needs assessment and L1-as-problem approach, to an asset inventory and L1-as-resource approach. In such an approach L1 development will be encouraged while fostering the acquisition of L2. It is recognised that learners will acquire the use of L2 even when their L1 is used and respected.

The third prominent category of concern identified from Table 6.12, is the use of a *culturally appropriate curriculum*. Thirteen teacher participants did not agree with or were unsure about this opinion stated in the questionnaire. Their perceptions may reflect personal attributes preventing them from making effective use of multicultural approaches. However, what may appear to be a lack of cultural sensitivity could be a need for multicultural knowledge, as stated earlier and implied in Table 6.11. Lemmer and Squelch (1993:81) stated unequivocally that the curriculum and teaching material have to be assessed to determine whether they meet the criteria for multicultural

education. One more challenge to multicultural education in post-apartheid South Africa, is, therefore, to strive towards a balance between the school and home cultures. Cultivating and developing a multicultural approach to teaching require a change of attitude and a commitment from teachers to adapt curriculum content to be culturally relevant and appropriate (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:78).

6.2.2.6 Strategies to facilitate ELoLT comprehension

In Section Seven (Variable 144-159) of the questionnaire, the teacher participants were requested to indicate which strategies they employed to facilitate comprehension and participation for multilingual preschool learners. An open question was included in this section of the questionnaire to allow teacher participants to include techniques not listed, thereby preventing bias from limited possibilities. The results are presented in Table 6.13. The one teacher participant who did not provide information on multilingual teaching experience was not included in Table 6.13, as cross-tabulation was done.

Table 6.13 indicates that, apart from planning their lessons, teacher participants had to plan techniques to convey meaning. By employing their creative skills, multilingual learners were provided with opportunities to learn and participate in programme activities. Most of the strategies were verbal, but non-verbal strategies were also employed. Communication was supported with non-verbal reinforcements, such as gestures and bodily movements as cues to facilitate comprehension. Preschool classrooms usually provide multiple opportunities for such non-verbal support. This trend was also noted by Diedricks (1997:46) who observed how South African teachers displayed creative problem-solving skills and learned to relate to learners with linguistically and culturally different backgrounds.

According to Table 6.13, the majority of teacher participants used the verbal strategies as listed in the questionnaire *often*. It is postulated that these strategies delivered results, or, alternatively, the teacher participants were comfortable with these strategies and they were therefore utilised continually.

TABLE 6.13: STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY TEACHER PARTICIPANTS IN RELATION TO THEIR TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS (N=31)

STRATEGIES	TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS							
	1-5 YEARS (N=21)			6-10 YEARS (N=8)			10+ YEARS (N=2)	
	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	OFTEN	SELDOM	NEVER	OFTEN	SELDOM
Simplify/rephrase	19	2	0	7	1	0	2	0
Repeat instructions	21	0	0	7	1	0	2	0
Accentuate keywords	21	0	0	7	1	0	2	0
Repeat new vocabulary	20	1	0	7	1	0	2	0
Additional visuals	20	1	0	6	2	0	2	0
Speak slower	16	4	1	7	0	1	2	0
Repeat learners' utterances	6	7	8	5	1	2	1	0
Expand learners' utterances	8	6	7	7	1	0	1	0
Use gestures	14	4	3	7	0	1	2	0
Mime	15	5	1	7	0	1	2	0
Involve parents/ caregivers	4	6	11	4	3	1	1	1
Adapt lesson plan	3	3	15	7	0	1	1	1
*Intentional misrepresentation	0			1			0	
*Stories, songs, rhymes	21			7			2	
*Translate to learners' L1	2			0			0	
*Dramatising	0			0			2	
*Learners as translators	0			2			0	
*Assistants as translators	2			2			1	
*Individual sessions	2			0			0	

* Responses to open question

An interesting trend revealed in Table 6.13 is that overall only a small number of the teacher participants *repeated* and *expanded* the learners' utterances. Whereas the majority of teacher participants with more than six years multilingual experience used these two verbal strategies *often*, the teacher participants with less than six years experience did not employ these strategies as a rule. The teacher participants with less multilingual experience may therefore be unaware of the value of such strategies. This finding questions their effective use of verbal strategies, as there is strong indication in the literature (Owens, 2001:233; NAEYC, 1996:11; Tiegerman-Farber,

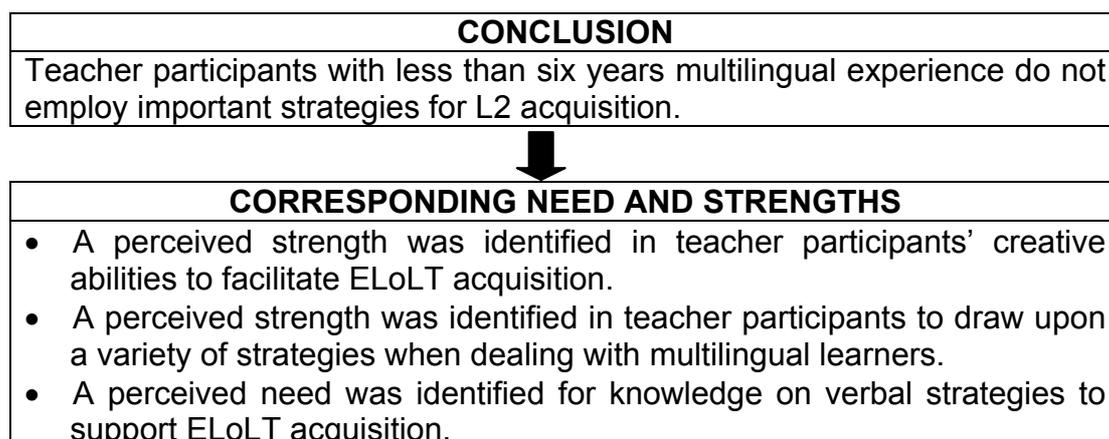
1995:194; Dunn, 1993:49; Manolson, 1992: 40; 48; 61) that *imitation*, *repetition*, and *expansion* of words and phrases are central to the language learning process and facilitate general language growth (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:228). Adult responses, therefore, facilitate linguistic development by maintaining or adding to the semantic content of what the learner says, while also highlighting structural aspects of language.

Upon further analysis of the results the same pattern emerged with the strategy *adapt lesson plan*. The majority of teacher participants (15) with less than six years multilingual experience *never* adapted lesson plans, as apposed to the teacher participants with more multilingual experience who *often* adapted lesson plans. It appears that the latter group of teacher participants may be more flexible in their approach, viewing learner-directed activities as educational opportunities, even in an organised framework. Adaptability is also advocated by Manolson (1992:3) who pointed out that adults need to be responsive partners and allow learners to lead in language acquisition activities.

Table 6.13 also reveals that only 9 of the teacher participants involved parents or caregivers on a frequent basis (often). Once again, this strategy was *seldom* or *never* employed by the majority of teacher participants (17) with less than six years multilingual experience. As parental or caregiver involvement and alliance are regarded as critical to the successful generalisation of L2 skills (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:198), a question arises about possible barriers to parental or caregiver participation in the research context. The results in Table 6.4 indicated that teacher participants perceived a lack of parental or caregiver support, which may indicate that teacher participants need to adjust their perceptions of the role of parents or caregivers and develop partnerships in L2 acquisition. Relationships between teacher participants and parents or caregivers need to be established in order to share knowledge and information regarding the multilingual preschool learners.

Table 6.13 indicates that 9 teacher participants employed some form of code-switching (2 translate to learners' L1 themselves + 2 use peer-tutors + 5 use assistants as translators). Only a small number of the teacher participants were therefore using code-switching as a resource. The use of code-switching and peer-tutoring has been prominently reported in this study and in the literature and holds great potential as technique and strategy to facilitate comprehension in ELoLT learners (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124; Kamwangamalu & Virasamy, 1999:64; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:83). Adendorff (1993, as cited by Peirce and Ridge, 1997:174) argued that teachers need to be guided to explore and appreciate the functions of this strategy, drawing on sources already available to them.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding need and strengths are identified.



6.2.3 Summary of perceived needs and strengths of teacher participants

The perceived needs and strengths of teacher participants identified during Phase One of the research are summarised in Table 6.14.

TABLE 6.14: PERCEIVED NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS IN SUPPORT OF ELoLT LEARNERS IDENTIFIED IN PHASE ONE

PERCEIVED NEEDS	PERCEIVED NEEDS AND STRENGTHS	PERCEIVED STRENGTHS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accommodate different cultures and languages • To understand the impact of personal challenges • Identification of multiple cultural and linguistic backgrounds • Parent/caregiver partnerships • Design an appropriate classroom environment • Develop insight into relationship between language and behaviour • Address learners' social issues • Collaborative partnerships • Training if less experienced in multilingual teaching • Pre-service and in-service training • Workshops, consultation, collaboration • Knowledge of verbal strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived need to build competence • Perceived need for cultural knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experience with multilingualism • Understand language needs • Understand the importance of social-emotional development • Recognise the value of collaboration • Confident teachers • Innovative use of techniques and development of own strategies • Variety of strategies

Preschool teachers, who are used to create exciting and enriching environments for young learners, may feel challenged when attempting to meet the needs of multilingual learners. From Table 6.14 the greatest challenges appear to be *first*, the need for knowledge, *and second*, the need for support. As each of these challenges requires sensitive, specific responses, there are no quick and easy solutions for many of these complex challenges. However, challenges provide opportunities, one of which is to form partnerships in problem solving. Educational support professionals would have to be sensitive to the unique needs of preschool teachers and strive to provide teachers with the information and support they need and desire.

6.2.4 The needs and strengths of multilingual preschool learners

To gain insight into the needs and strengths of multilingual preschool learners as understood by preschool teachers, information was gathered on the teacher participants' perceptions of *coping strategies to facilitate comprehension, socio-emotional behaviour, receptive ELoLT proficiency, expressive ELoLT proficiency, and pragmatic skills* in multilingual preschool learners.

6.2.4.1 Multilingual preschool learners' coping strategies to facilitate comprehension

The variables (Variable 65 – 80) in Section Three of the questionnaire were grouped for analyses into three categories according to the aim of the section. Variable 65, 66, 78 provided data on coping strategies, Variable 75 – 77, 80 provided data on socio-emotional behaviour, and Variable 67 – 74, 79, provided data on general comprehension of ELoLT. The category on socio-emotional behaviour will be discussed in Section 6.2.4.2, and the category on general comprehension of ELoLT under Section 6.2.4.3. The category on coping strategies will be discussed forthwith.

In Section Three (Variable 65, 66, 78) of the questionnaire information was acquired on the teacher participants' perception of coping strategies employed by multilingual learners to facilitate comprehension. The results are shown in Table 6.15.

TABLE 6.15: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS' COPING STRATEGIES (N=32)

STRATEGIES	OFTEN MANIFESTED		SELDOM MANIFESTED		NOT MANIFESTED	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Switching from one language to another (code-switching)	27	84%	4	13%	1	3%
Substituting English words with words from first language (code-mixing)	19	66%	7	24%	3	10%
Using gestures to supplement speech	22	73%	7	23%	1	4%

According to Table 6.15, the majority of teacher participants indicated that code-switching and code-mixing were often used as coping strategies by multilingual learners. Therefore, in any of the preschools in the research context, 50% or more of the learners in any class found it difficult to express themselves in ELoLT and reverted to their L1 to facilitate comprehension. Zulu (1996:108) observed that code-switching often occurred in South African classrooms where many learners are from multilingual backgrounds. It appeared that learners drew on their language resources by code-switching, and used it as a communicative strategy (SASHLA, 2003:2). Makin, Campbell and Diaz (1995:94) argued that multilingual learners may be using their L1 to assist understanding and communicating in the context within which the language is used.

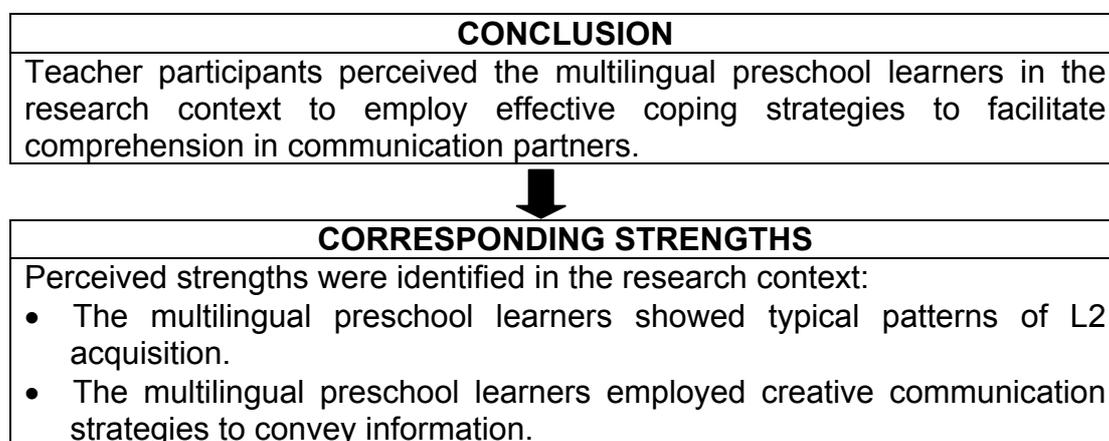
The current results concur with those displayed in Table 6.4, which indicated that teacher participants perceived the learners' limited English vocabulary as the reason for mixing languages to convey messages. Whereas teacher participants perceived code-switching as a concern, the literature increasingly reflects it as normal and widely used in the discourse of multilinguals. The code-switching by multilingual learners was therefore not a confusion of languages, but typical of L2 acquisition.

Table 6.15 also provides an indication of the teacher participants' perceptions on the use of gestures by multilingual learners. The relatively high percentage (73%) of perceived gestural use also indicates limitations in the learners' ELoLT proficiency. The use of gestures as coping strategy to

facilitate comprehension is a common phenomenon during the non-verbal phase of additional language acquisition (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2000:4), as the learner often listens and focuses on understanding the additional language. It is a phase of active observation and rehearsal or sound experimentation, usually done quietly (Tabors, 1997:51-54).

Similar findings were displayed in Table 6.4, which indicated that one of the concerns of teacher participants was that learners relied on gestures to convey information. It therefore appears that the teacher participants may not have sufficient knowledge about the non-verbal phase or *silent period* of L2 acquisition. Gestures should be viewed as normal behaviour and not as a cause for concern during the initial phases of the acquisition of ELoLT. Learners should also not be forced to produce language and all attempts to communicate should be accepted.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and corresponding strengths are identified.



6.2.4.2 Multilingual preschool learners' socio-emotional behaviours

Section Three (Variable 75 - 77, 80) of the questionnaire ascertained whether teacher participants observed any negative socio-emotional behaviours related to poor ELoLT skills in multilingual learners. The perceptions of the teacher participants provided important data as the teacher participants had the most constant contact with the preschool learners in the natural classroom

context, offering many opportunities for interaction and observation. The results are contained in Table 6.16.

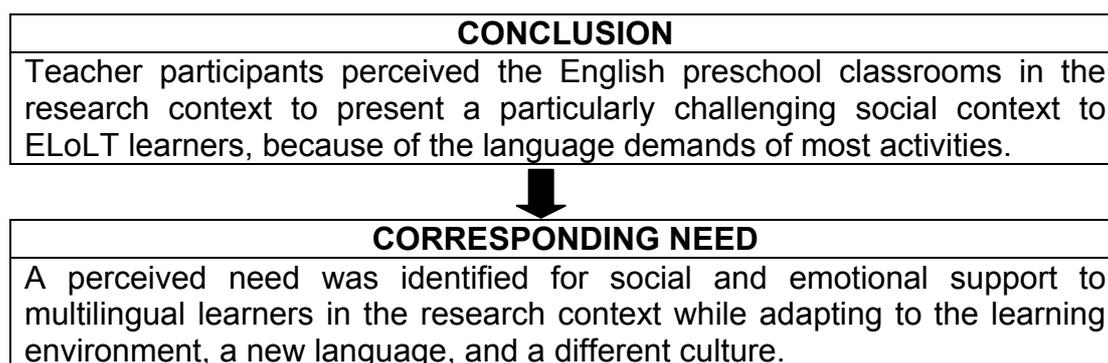
TABLE 6.16: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF RELATED SOCIO-EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOURS IN MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS (N=32)						
BEHAVIOURS	OFTEN MANIFESTED		SELDOM MANIFESTED		NOT MANIFESTED	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Social isolation/withdrawal because of inadequate language abilities	18	60%	7	23%	5	17%
Frustration because of inability to explain needs	18	60%	9	30%	3	10%
Presenting difficulties in discipline because of poor comprehension	13	45%	13	45%	3	10%
Cautious to answer – do not volunteer answers	20	67%	8	27%	2	6%

As shown in Table 6.16, only a small number of the teacher participants (withdrawal 17%, frustration 10%, discipline problems 10%, and not volunteering 6%) *did not* observe any negative social or emotional behaviours that could be associated with poor ELoLT skills. In most cases more than 45% of the teacher participants observed negative behaviour in each category. It is clear that teacher participants perceived language proficiency to influence school performance and social behaviour significantly.

Research has highlighted that multilingual learners are at risk to develop social problems in the classroom. Crutchley, Botting and Conti-Ramsden (1997:272) reported on monolingual and multilingual learners arriving at schools with no difference in emotional and behavioural measures, but over time, multilingual learners developed and exhibited more emotional and behavioural problems than monolingual learners. The same perceived negative kind of behaviours as illustrated in Table 6.16, were reported by Viljoen en Molefe (2001:126), who observed frustration and discipline problems in ELoLT learners. Fujiki, Briton, Isaacsen and Summers (2001:18)

found that ELoLT learners displayed more withdrawal and aggressive behaviours than other learners. The observations by Viljoen and Molefe (2001:123) that many of these negative behaviours were not present on the playground (where ELoLT learners interacted in their L1 with peers from their own culture), verify the findings that communication barriers in the classroom, caused by poor ELoLT proficiency, contributed to a large extent to these learners' emotional and behavioural problems. The results of Table 6.16 corroborate those displayed in Table 6.4, which revealed the teacher participants' perceived concerns about the ELoLT learners' self-confidence, withdrawal, and acceptance of discipline.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is reached and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.4.3 Multilingual preschool learners' receptive ELoLT skills

The researcher required information on the receptive language needs and strengths of multilingual preschool learners as perceived by the teacher participants. Information was gathered on *general comprehension* of ELoLT and *comprehension of specific words and concepts*.

- **General comprehension of ELoLT**

Section Three (Variable 67 – 74, 79) of the questionnaire explored the general comprehension of ELoLT by multilingual learners as perceived by the teacher participants. The results are presented in Table 6.17. The items listed first

and last in Table 6.17 were worded differently, but the underlying concept measured is the same. Although no statistical factor analysis was done, the consistent level of the teacher participants' responses to these two items may increase the reliability of the findings.

TABLE 6.17: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS' GENERAL COMPREHENSION OF ELoLT (N=32)						
BEHAVIOURS	OFTEN MANIFESTED		SELDOM MANIFESTED		NOT MANIFESTED	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Can answer questions in L1 but not in English	22	73%	6	20%	2	7%
Inability to follow simple instructions (1 - 2 instructions)	17	55%	11	35%	3	10%
Inability to follow difficult instructions (2 - 4 instructions)	24	77%	5	16%	2	7%
Inability to follow a conversation	21	70%	7	23%	2	7%
Inability to understand a story	16	53%	13	43%	1	4%
Imitation of words without comprehension	19	68%	8	29%	1	3%
Use of stereotype utterances without comprehension	18	60%	11	37%	1	3%
Slow down class activities because of poor comprehension	20	69%	9	31%	0	0%
Inability to answer questions in English	21	70%	8	27%	1	3%

In Table 6.17 the same pattern emerged as in Table 6.15 and Table 6.16. A large number of the teacher participants perceived the behaviours listed in the questionnaire to manifest *often* in multilingual preschool learners. The teacher participants' responses generally indicated perceptions of poor ELoLT comprehension skills in multilingual preschool learners. Similar South African research results were reported by Viljoen and Molefe (2001:121), who found that poor comprehension skills prevented ELoLT learners to follow instructions in school through the medium of English.

As the traditional perception of comprehension is *behaviour which indicates the association between a linguistic form and its meaning* (Carrow, 1985:3), it is apparent that the teacher participants perceived a limited English vocabulary to be barrier to the comprehension of classroom activities and instructions. Apart from interactions containing vocabulary that was not comprehended by the learners, it appears that more than one instruction given in ELoLT was perceived by teacher participants to be a difficult task for the learners. In addition, *the imitation of words without comprehension* may be viewed as automatic utterances by learners without full knowledge of their meaning (Carrow, 1985:4). These findings on limited understanding are in agreement with results reflected in research by Diedricks (1997), who reported that the flow of classroom activities in ELoLT classes was hindered by poor comprehension of English vocabulary.

In general, Table 6.17 shows perceptions of poor vocabulary comprehension, concurring with the results displayed in Table 6.4 which indicated that teacher participants perceived multilingual learners' comprehension of English vocabulary to be insufficient for learning. The results on the item: *slow down classroom activities because of poor comprehension* (perceived by 69% of the teacher participants to manifest *often*) are also in agreement with the results of Table 6.4. This revealed that teacher participants perceived that too much extra time was required for explanations to complete their day programme.

As teacher participants perceived the general comprehension of English to be a barrier to classroom activities, it becomes necessary to explore the perceived levels of vocabulary proficiency in multilingual learners in the research context. In the first part of Section Four (Variable 81 – 85) of the questionnaire, teacher participants were requested to indicate the levels of English vocabulary proficiency they perceived in multilingual learners. The limitation of the rating scale in relation to the question in this section has been discussed in Section 5.6.1.4, and will be acknowledged in the conclusion and needs identification. The results are presented in Table 6.18.

TABLE 6.18: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS' ENGLISH VOCABULARY PROFICIENCY (N=32)

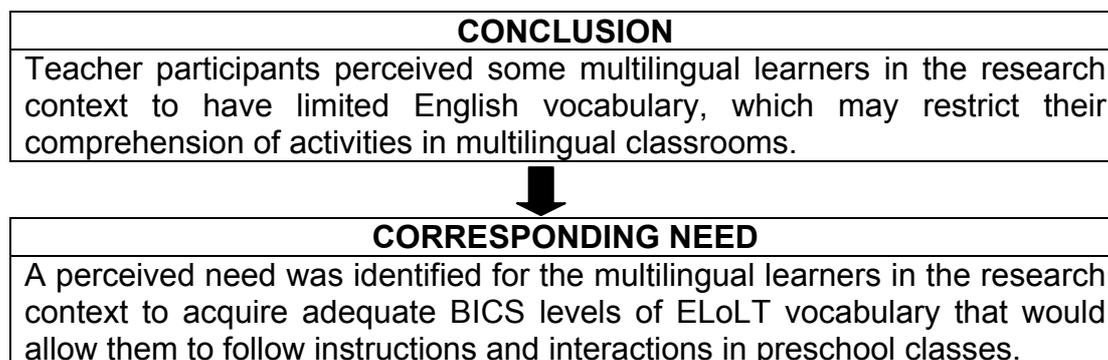
PROFICIENCY LEVELS	PERCEIVED IN ALL LEARNERS		PERCEIVED IN SOME LEARNERS		PERCEIVED IN NO LEARNERS	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Understand and use only a few English words	3	11%	23	85%	1	4%
Understand and use only English words used regularly at school	11	39%	16	57%	1	4%
Understand and use English words related to experiences outside the school environment	0	0%	20	77%	6	23%
Have a large vocabulary and understand most of what is said to them	2	7%	18	67%	7	26%
Vocabulary is like that of a natural speaker of English	0	0%	16	57%	12	43%

An analysis of the results presented in Table 6.18 indicates that the majority of teacher participants perceived *some* of the multilingual learners in their classes to have reached proficiency levels in each listed category. It is clear that the teacher participants perceived the learners to be on different proficiency levels, confirming the results of Table 6.1, which indicated the variation in language levels of learners in the same classroom. It can be assumed that learners who had more exposure to English may show greater vocabulary proficiency. Although many factors influence the acquisition of an additional language, as discussed in Chapter Two (Section 2.4), Jordaan (1993:137) presented research results indicating that learners who were exposed to English at home, were more proficient than those who were not. Learners' acquisition of ELoLT will therefore be positively influenced if adequate amounts of time are spent on exposing them to grammatically correct English.

From Table 6.18 it appears that 57% of the teacher participants perceived *some* learners to comprehend everyday conversations in the preschool environment with its highly contextualised situations. This type of language

used in relation to personal matters, real objects, and present events is generally known as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and takes approximately two years to develop in optimum circumstances (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:5). It is often suggested that the preschool environment offers the ideal background for BICS acquisition, because the language used is usually easy to follow (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:10). Learners could develop and practise BICS in preschools not only during specific classroom activities, but also on the playground.

It is recognised that the rating scale may have constrained the results of this section. Acknowledging this limitation, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding need identified.



- **Comprehension of specific words and concepts**

The items that specifically measured language comprehension were selected for analysis from the second part of Section Four of the questionnaire. Variable 88 - 91, 93 - 97 determined the teacher participants' perceptions on the comprehension of specific words and concepts. The results are displayed in Table 6.19.

TABLE 6.19: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS' COMPREHENSION OF SPECIFIC WORDS OR CONCEPTS (N=32)

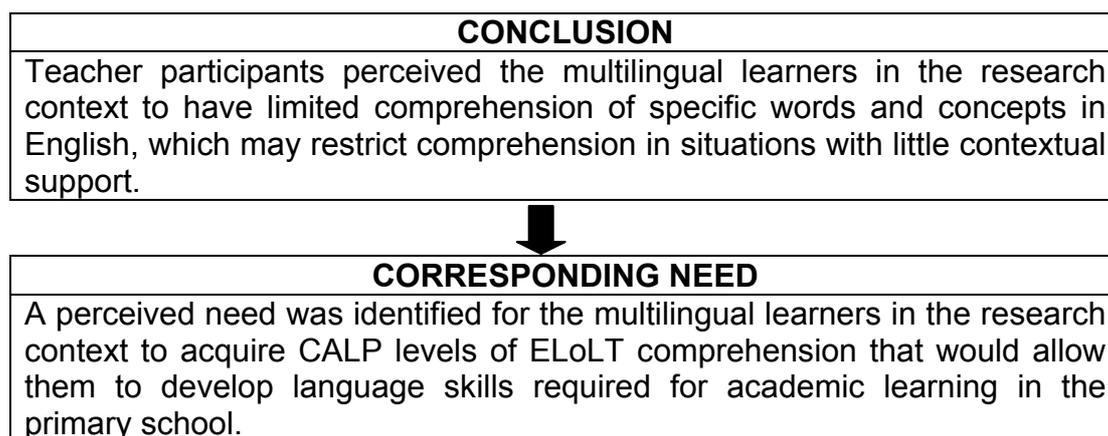
BEHAVIOURS	PROBLEMS MANIFEST ALWAYS		PROBLEMS MANIFEST OFTEN		PROBLEMS MANIFEST SELDOM		PROBLEMS MANIFEST NEVER	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Understand concepts <i>same/different</i>	9	28%	14	44%	7	22%	2	6%
Understand time concepts, e.g. <i>today, yesterday, tomorrow</i>	10	32%	18	56%	2	6%	2	6%
Understand comparisons, e.g. <i>bigger, smallest</i>	7	23%	16	52%	6	19%	2	6%
Know common shapes, e.g. circle, square, triangle	4	13%	10	32%	15	49%	2	6%
Understand abstract concepts, e.g. <i>jealousy</i>	9	30%	13	43%	5	17%	3	10%
Understand words with multiple meanings, e.g. <i>orange, ball</i>	12	39%	12	39%	5	16%	2	6%
Understand non-literal meanings as used in expressions, e.g. <i>"he's a real Tarzan"</i>	7	23%	17	55%	6	19%	1	3%
Understand humour	4	13%	15	49%	11	35%	1	3%
Understand specific questions: <i>who, what, where</i>	5	17%	16	53%	9	30%	0	0%

Although the learners' comprehension of specific words and concepts as displayed in Table 6.19 (perceived by the teacher participants) varied, a large number of the teacher participants indicated that they perceived learner participants to *often* experience problems understanding specific words and concepts in all categories. Many learners were perceived to lack the knowledge of crucial categories of words and concepts that may influence their comprehension of utterances where specific information needed to be conveyed. The perception was that a great deal of verbal interaction and instruction in the preschool classroom was not grasped by a large number of

the multilingual learners. In addition, it was perceived that the preschool learners did not have the depth of knowledge to understand humour, fixed expressions, and idioms which require metalinguistic skills.

The results displayed in Table 6.19 not only concur with the results in Table 6.4, but expand on the teachers participants' perceived concerns about the multilingual preschool learners' insufficient comprehension of ELoLT for learning. In preparation for formal schooling, preschool learners are expected to understand specific words and concepts as they will be required to comprehend the exact meaning of teachers' utterances, often without the opportunity to ask for clarification (Brice & Perkins, 1997:13). Learners, therefore, have to acquire Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to cope with the decontextualised information that will be presented to them in primary schools (Makin et al., 1995:85). Academic learning relies on the understanding of words without support from the non-linguistic context (Hoff, 2004:413). The grasping of complex aspects of language is therefore necessary to comprehend English on higher levels of abstraction.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.4.4 Multilingual preschool learners' expressive ELoLT skills

Section Five (Variable 103 - 122) of the questionnaire explored selected expressive language skills of multilingual learners as perceived by teacher

participants. The limitation of the rating scale in relation to the question in this section has been acknowledged in Section 5.6.1.4, and will be recognised in the conclusion and needs identification. The results are displayed in Table 6.20.

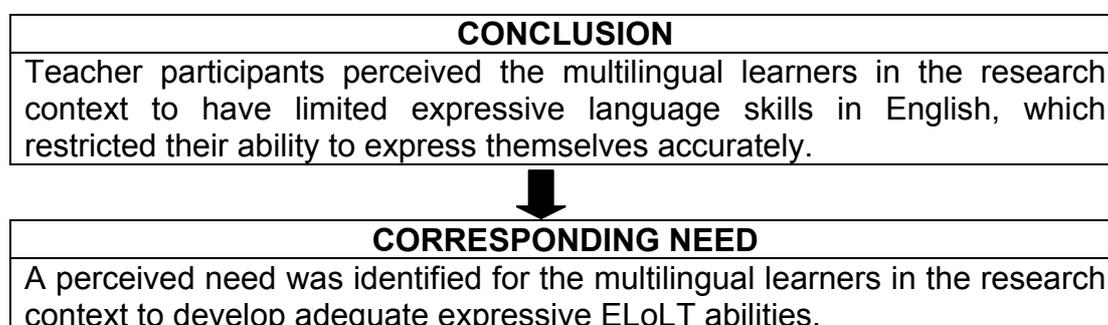
TABLE 6.20: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS' EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS (N=32)						
EXPRESSIVE SKILLS	ALWAYS AND OFTEN MANIFESTED		SELDOM MANIFESTED		NEVER MANIFESTED	
	FREQUENCY OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	FREQUENCY OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	FREQUENCY OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS
Correct word order in sentences	9	36%	13	52%	3	12%
Age-appropriate sentence length	4	15%	16	59%	7	26%
Combine sentences with <i>and</i>	10	39%	11	42%	5	19%
Combine sentences with <i>but, because</i>	10	37%	10	37%	7	26%
Correct use of plurals	13	48%	13	48%	1	4%
Correct use of pronouns	7	27%	15	58%	4	15%
Correct use of determiners	10	37%	12	44%	5	19%
Correct use of prepositions	14	52%	10	37%	3	11%
Correct use of diminutive	5	18%	15	56%	7	26%
Correct use of negatives	11	41%	13	48%	3	11%
Correct use of nouns	12	44%	12	44%	3	12%
Use of adjectives and/or adverbs	12	46%	8	31%	6	23%
Use more than one adjective	4	15%	10	37%	13	48%
Correct use of question words	11	42%	12	46%	3	12%
Correct use of regular past tense	4	15%	15	55%	4	30%
Use of contracted negatives	9	35%	7	27%	10	38%
Use comparisons	9	33%	11	41%	7	26%
Correct use of passive sentences	1	4%	11	44%	13	52%
Use emphatic stress	2	8%	10	38%	14	54%

In Table 6.20 the responses of the teacher participants on the options *always* and *often* were combined as both these options were of a positive nature and indicative of the presence of these skills. The results displayed in Table 6.20 indicate the teacher participants' perceptions of the multilingual preschool learners' strengths in expressive ELoLT skills on the one hand, and their weaknesses on the other hand. It is interesting to note that Section Five of the questionnaire was the section with the highest rate of non-responses by the teacher participants, possibly because they experienced difficulties assessing the multilingual preschool learners' expressive ELoLT abilities, or because of the constraints of the rating scale. This will be discussed in

greater detail in Section 6.3.3, where data from the questionnaires will be compared to data from the learner participants' language and communication assessments by the speech-language therapist.

According to Table 6.20, teacher participants indicated that in all categories of expressive skills except one (correct use of prepositions), less than 50% of the multilingual preschool learners could express themselves correctly in English. On the whole, the teacher participants' perceptions reflected negatively on the complexity of the expressive language used by multilingual preschool learners. These learners' command of English appeared to be restricted, and their expressive language skills limited their ability to express themselves adequately. The results shown in Table 6.20 not only concur with results in Table 6.4, but also expand on the teacher participants' concerns regarding inadequate expressive ELoLT skills for learning. A report by Hadley, Simmerman, Long and Luna (2000:281) confirms the above-mentioned findings, and indicated that preschool teachers teaching to non-English-speaking learners in the United States of America (USA) did not believe that the preschool learners' verbal English language abilities were sufficiently well developed to serve as a foundation for formal academic learning.

It is recognised that the rating scale may have constrained the results of this section. Acknowledging this limitation, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding need is identified.



6.2.4.5 Multilingual preschool learners' pragmatic skills

In Section Six (Variable 123 -143) of the questionnaire, teacher participants were requested to record their observations regarding the *pragmatic skills* of ELoLT learners. The results are presented in Table 6.21.

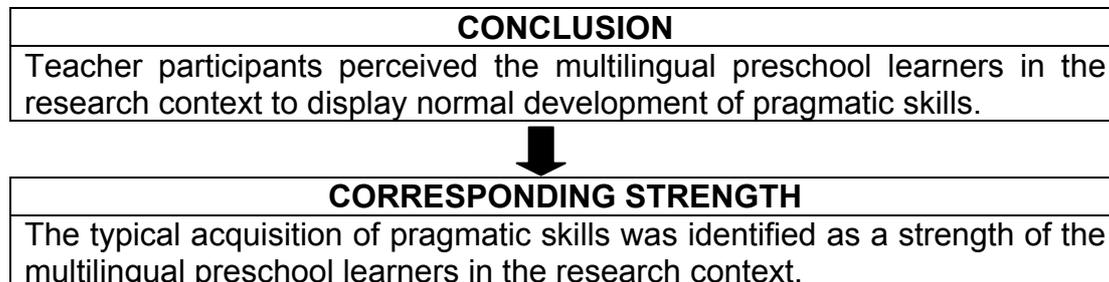
TABLE 6.21: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTION OF PRAGMATIC SKILLS OF MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS (N=32)						
PRAGMATIC SKILLS	MANIFESTED IN ALL LEARNERS		MANIFESTED IN SOME LEARNERS		MANIFESTED IN NO LEARNERS	
	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants	Frequency of teacher participants	Percentage of teacher participants
Make eye contact when talking	9	29%	20	65%	2	6%
Comment on personal actions while these are happening for example: "I am eating my sandwich"	2	7%	24	77%	5	16%
Comment on the action of others	8	26%	22	71%	1	3%
Are able to give an accurate description of their personal experience	2	6%	26	81%	4	13%
Describe a sequence of events in the order in which they occurred	-	-	25	78%	7	22%
Allow the person they are communicating with to speak and are able to listen without interrupting	-	-	26	81%	6	19%
Start conversations with adults and other learners	4	13%	25	81%	2	6%
Take turns during conversation	-	-	26	84%	3	16%
Are able to talk about a topic of discussion over several sentences during a conversation	-	-	20	65%	11	35%
Respond appropriately to simple questions	2	6%	29	94%	-	-
Use language to get the attention of others	10	31%	22	69%	-	-
Ask questions to obtain information about people, actions, and events	1	3%	24	78%	6	19%
Use language to tell others what to do	8	26%	22	71%	1	3%
Ask for clarification when they do not understand what others have said	1	3%	21	68%	9	29%
Can inform others of their personal needs, for example can tell what they want	10	31%	21	66%	1	3%
Can express feelings such as joy, fear, and anger, using language	5	16%	21	66%	6	18%
Describe plans for events that will take place in the future	-	-	18	60%	12	40%
Express personal opinions and can provide a logical reason for their opinion	-	-	14	47%	16	53%
Describe the solution to a problem	-	-	18	56%	14	44%
Express imagination	1	3%	20	67%	9	30%
Greet people appropriately when they come or go	6	19%	22	71%	3	10%

Table 6.21 reveals that the teacher participants perceived general development of pragmatic skills in the whole group of multilingual preschool learners. The pragmatic skills observed by teacher participants reflected the learners' sensitivity to the speaker's role, and included greeting, comments on objects and events, requesting objects and actions, as well as initiating conversation. The same skills were observed in multilingual preschool

learners by Stockman (1996:360). Tiegerman-Farber (1995:11) pointed out that as preschool learners become effective social communicators, they learn to express their needs across a range of contexts and people, and also attune themselves sensitively to the needs of others.

As indicated in Table 6.21, the following pragmatic skills were least perceived in multilingual learners: *describe plans for events that will take place in the future* (predicting), *express personal opinions and can provide a logical reason for their opinion* (reasoning), and *describe the solution to a problem* (hypothesising). According to Creaghead (1984:242) behaviours such as providing reasons, predicting, and hypothesising appear to be more dependent on language for their manifestation and develop later than the other listed skills.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding strength is identified.



6.2.5 Summary of the teacher participants' perceptions of the needs and strengths of the multilingual preschool learners

The perceived needs and strengths of multilingual preschool learners identified during Phase One of the research are summarised in Table 6.22.

TABLE 6.22: TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS IDENTIFIED IN PHASE ONE

NEEDS	STRENGTHS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To receive social and emotional support • To achieve BICS levels of ELoLT comprehension • To achieve CALP levels of ELoLT comprehension • To develop expressive ELoLT skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show typical patterns of L2 acquisition • Employ creative communication strategies to convey information • Display typical pragmatic skills development

Through their perceptions the teacher participants provided valuable information on the needs and strengths of multilingual learners, with strong pointers for the provision of a responsive learning environment. As the multilingual preschool learners' barriers to learning did not fall into neat categories, interdisciplinary partnerships may have to be established to bring together different perspectives and expertise for intervention. This presents a challenge to all teachers and educational support professionals to form partnerships, and to share knowledge and skills related to the multilingual learners' strengths and barriers, working collaboratively to enhance the learning process.

6.3 LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION PROFICIENCY OF THE MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS

The overall objective of Phase Two was *to describe the language needs of the multilingual preschool learners acquiring ELoLT from the speech-language therapists' perspective*. The results are based on the responses obtained from the test battery (checklist) which was used to determine the learner participants' language and communication proficiency and are presented according to the objectives presented in Figure 6.1.

6.3.1 Learner participants' language characteristics

The language characteristics of the learner participants acquiring ELoLT are presented according to their *receptive language* skills, *expressive language* skills, and *pragmatic* skills.

6.3.1.1 Learner participants' receptive ELoLT skills

The receptive language abilities of the learner participants were analysed in terms of their *comprehension of English vocabulary*, *grammatical morphemes*, and *elaborated sentences*.

- **Vocabulary comprehension**

The learner participants' comprehension of English vocabulary was assessed with Section I: *Word classes and relations* of the Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (TACL-R) (Carrow, 1985). The descriptive statistics for this test are presented in Table 6.23.

TABLE 6.23: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WORD CLASSES AND RELATIONS					
GROUPS	MEAN	SD	MIN/40	MAX/40	N
JUNIOR	18.3	4.80	10	26	10
MIDDLE	23.3	4.39	19	32	10
SENIOR	29.2	2.93	23	33	10

Table 6.23 provides an indication of the range of the learner participants' responses to *Word classes and relations* of TACL-R (Carrow, 1985).

The most important results that emerged during analysis and which are presented in Table 6.24, were that vocabulary comprehension did not necessarily increase across the three age groups, that the noun category was better understood than other word classes, that the Junior Group displayed insufficient comprehension of basic English vocabulary, and that all the

learner participants in the Senior Group did not have adequate receptive BICS in English.

Table 6.24 reflects that the learner participants' comprehension of English vocabulary varied across age groups and that the Senior Groups' comprehension was not necessarily better than the Junior and Middle Groups. The complete categories of *adjectives - quality*, *adjectives – quantity*, as well as *adverbs – direction*, revealed increased comprehension across age groups, in other words progress along a developmental age continuum were shown. However, two categories exhibited limited progression in reception with age, namely the *nouns category* (letters, collection, pair) and *verbs category* (going, giving, finishing). As language acquisition is related to age, progression in reception with age is in line with the developmental nature of language comprehension. The findings of Dawber and Jordaan (1999:2) and Calitz (1990:20) substantiate the variation in vocabulary comprehension across ages in multilingual learners. These authors explained that the multilingual learners were entering South African preschools at different ages, and often as late as Grade R, with the expectation to acquire sufficient levels of English before entering primary schools. The variation in comprehension implies that preschool teachers in the research context had to adjust their levels of language usage to the levels of the learners' comprehension, and had to teach at different language levels to individual learners. This challenge requires planning and preparation above their lesson preparation and may create stress if teachers are unsure how to handle the situation (Diedricks, 1997:46).

Further analysis of Table 6.24 indicates that learner participants comprehended the words in the *noun* category better than those in other word classes. Hadley, Simmerman, Long and Luna (2000:286) explain that learners' vocabulary skills are often built around the names of objects. These authors emphasised that the comprehension of a diversity of word classes had to be supported, such as *verbs* – which are central to grammatical development, and *prepositions* – which overlap with basic concepts and are important to the MoI, as well as *adjectives* – which increase learners' lexical

TABLE 6.24: LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' COMPREHENSION OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY (N=30)

WORD CLASSES	PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS IN SAMPLES		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)
NOUNS			
girl	0%	10%	0%
cat	10%	0%	0%
bird	10%	0%	0%
box	0%	0%	0%
half	30%	40%	0%
cross	30%	50%	10%
letters	80%	60%	60%
collection	100%	100%	60%
pair	100%	90%	90%
VERBS			
jumping	0%	0%	0%
cutting	10%	20%	0%
drawing	20%	30%	40%
going	40%	40%	30%
giving	70%	20%	10%
ascending	100%	100%	100%
finishing	100%	100%	80%
ADJECTIVES – QUALITY			
blue	20%	20%	0%
little	60%	30%	0%
together	30%	40%	10%
round	40%	10%	0%
fast	70%	50%	30%
same	80%	40%	0%
soft	90%	70%	60%
high	90%	60%	10%
elderly	100%	100%	70%
ADJECTIVES – QUANTITY			
four	60%	10%	0%
some	70%	50%	40%
many	50%	20%	10%
most	80%	70%	30%
equal	100%	80%	60%
ADVERBS – DIRECTION			
up	20%	20%	0%
second	100%	70%	40%
left	100%	100%	40%
WORD RELATIONS			
a bird and a cat	0%	0%	0%
no eyes	40%	0%	0%
a girl jumping	50%	20%	30%
a large blue ball	40%	60%	50%
riding a little bicycle	50%	10%	30%
eating the fish	50%	30%	10%
a little bird eating	100%	40%	50%

- Variables were arranged according to difficulty within Word classes and relations (TACL-R, Carrow, 1985).

diversity (Hadley et al., 2000:286). As local research by Du Plessis (1998b:139) revealed that language lessons in the preschool concentrated on the labelling of objects, it may be appropriate to plan learning environments that allow the acquisition of basic concepts from a variety of word classes and to target vocabulary for language lessons in word classes other than nouns in order to facilitate the acquisition of functional language skills in learner participants.

It is clear from Table 6.24 that a large number of learner participants in the Junior Group showed insufficient comprehension of basic English vocabulary. This may be attributed to the fact that these learners had recently entered preschool and may have had little exposure to English prior to entering the preschool in the research context. Jordaan (1993:69) pointed out that the period of time a learner had spent at an English preschool was considered an important predictor of proficiency, but suggested that once the attendance exceeded one year, the proficiency difference between learners would be less obvious (Jordaan, 1993:139). According to Carrow (1985:4), any learner acquiring an additional language may initially experience difficulty with comprehension and expression, comprehension being the easier of the two. Owens (2001:250) explained that the comprehension of vocabulary precedes production and, although the discrepancy between comprehension and production appears to be large at first, it seems to decrease later in language acquisition. It is postulated that the learner participants in the Junior Group have been at an early stage of ELoLT acquisition with limited comprehension of English vocabulary, and that they may need additional support, such as gestures or visual aids to facilitate comprehension.

As illustrated in Table 6.24, learner participants in the Senior Group have acquired some basic ELoLT vocabulary, but some learners did not display adequate knowledge of basic concepts or BICS in English. Some learner participants, who were in their final year at preschool, did not show adequate comprehension of the assessed concrete vocabulary required for the more complex language of formal schooling. It is generally accepted that the development of more complex language depends on the initial mastery of

simpler language elements (Carrow, 1985:51). Roseberry-McKibbin and Brice (2000:5), as well as Lemmer and Squelch (1993:42), warned that multilingual learners who have to acquire English BICS simultaneously with CALP in primary school, will face major challenges when they have to understand curriculum content. As basic concepts are often used in formal instruction, it is clear that some learner participants in the Senior Group may be at risk of academic failure in the primary school because of inadequate receptive vocabulary skills.

- **Grammatical morphemes**

The learner participants' comprehension of grammatical morphemes was determined with *Section II: Grammatical morphemes* of the TACL-R (Carrow, 1985). The descriptive statistics for this test are presented in Table 6.25.

TABLE 6.25: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES					
GROUPS	MEAN	SD	MIN/40	MAX/40	N
JUNIOR	7.2	5.49	0	18	10
MIDDLE	11.7	4.23	6	19	10
SENIOR	18.2	3.93	10	23	10

Table 6.25 presents a general indication of the learner participants' achievement on the test of *Grammatical morphemes* of the TACL-R (Carrow, 1985) in terms of means, standard deviation, as well as minimum and maximum scores within each group.

The most significant results which emerged during the analysis were that comprehension of grammatical morphemes developed across a diversity of morpheme categories, and that learner participants experienced problems understanding personal pronouns and the English verb tenses. These results are presented in Table 6.26.

According to Table 6.26, learner participants on the whole displayed different levels of comprehension of grammatical morphemes across a diversity of morpheme categories. They were therefore simultaneously developing understanding of the meaning of grammatical morphemes from different categories, although at different rates. This finding demonstrates development in accordance with the general premise of language comprehension that learners develop comprehension of a variety of language structures simultaneously (Carrow, 1985:51), not only in L1, but also in L2 acquisition.

TABLE 6.26: LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' COMPREHENSION OF GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES (N=30)			
CATEGORIES	PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS IN SAMPLES		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)
PREPOSITIONS			
The cat is in the box.	10%	0%	0%
The cap is on the toothpaste.	100%	80%	70%
The boy is next to the car.	40%	30%	10%
The dog is in front of the car.	60%	50%	40%
The cat is between the chairs.	90%	30%	50%
The ball is under the book.	80%	50%	60%
The rope is through the box.	60%	30%	10%
The circle is around the car.	70%	50%	10%
She is pointing at the pencil.	90%	100%	70%
PRONOUNS – PERSONAL			
She feeds her.	70%	70%	50%
She jumped rope.	80%	90%	80%
He rode the bicycle.	80%	70%	40%
He feeds himself.	100%	100%	80%
His dog is big.	90%	40%	70%
The girl said, "We're eating popcorn."	100%	70%	20%
The lady said, "This shoe is mine."	90%	80%	50%
They swam.	100%	70%	70%
Mother gave the ball to her.	90%	100%	100%
PRONOUNS – DEMONSTRATIVE			
Father said, "I have these."	70%	30%	10%
The boy said, "I want this."	90%	60%	60%
NOUN NUMBER – REGULAR			
She feeds the birds.	40%	30%	0%
The cat drank milk.	80%	50%	10%
NOUN NUMBER – IRREGULAR			
The man sees the children play.	20%	30%	20%
The men ran.	100%	80%	90%
NOUN CASE			
There is the baby elephant.	100%	70%	70%
There is the grandfather's clock.	100%	100%	40%
VERB TENSE			
The girl is jumping.	40%	20%	0%
The man painted the house.	100%	100%	100%
She sewed the dress.	100%	100%	80%
She is going to shop.	100%	100%	90%
She will hit the ball.	100%	100%	90%
The man has been cutting trees.	100%	100%	100%
She would have jumped.	100%	100%	100%
VERB NUMBER			
The fish are eating.	80%	60%	30%
The buck is drinking.	100%	100%	80%
NOUN VERB – AGREEMENT			
The fish swim away.	100%	90%	50%
The buck eats apples.	100%	100%	80%
DERIVATIONAL – SUFFIXES			
The farmer is big.	90%	90%	60%
Show me the shortest man.	100%	70%	40%
Here is the pianist.	100%	100%	80%

- Variables were arranged according to difficulty within each category.

Categories of significant interest are the comprehension of *personal pronouns* and *verb tense*. The results in Table 6.26 illustrate that the learner participants experienced varying degrees of difficulty in the comprehension of *personal pronouns*. The inconsistent understanding of personal pronouns correlates with local research results of Jordaan (1993:136), who identified the same difficulties and explained that the pronoun system as found in English does not exist in African languages. In African languages the morphological structures of words express pronominal contrasts (Suzman, as cited by Jordaan, 1993:136). The pronoun system of English is therefore particularly foreign to learners who have African languages as L1 and it is only natural that they will find it difficult to understand pronouns.

Nearly all the learner participants across all age groups experienced problems comprehending the English *verb tenses*. This category is important as specific time information is conveyed through the verb tenses. South African research results by Nxumalo (1997:27) also pointed out the incorrect use of verbs by multilingual preschool learners. Nxumalo (1997:27) stressed that the English tenses are cognitively complex notions. The Senior Group did not understand the verb tenses although they were considered mature enough to understand the cognitive concept of future and past tenses. As young ELoLT learners like the learner participants initially often limit their utterances to the present tense because of their engagement with their immediate surroundings, they often understand the present tense better than the other tenses.

The findings of the current research substantiate international research. Crutchley, Botting and Conti-Ramsden (1997:270) found that multilingual learners in their research project arrived at schools with complex receptive and expressive morphological difficulties, which seemed to persist over the learners' school years. It appears that multilingual learners, because of L1 interference, are very likely to exhibit morphological problems. Learners' comprehension of grammatical morphemes should therefore be developed and supported in class to enable them to interpret small variations in linguistic structure that often convey specific information.

- **Elaborated sentences**

Section III: Elaborated sentences of the TACL-RC (Carrow, 1985) determined the learner participants' comprehension of elaborated sentences. The descriptive statistics for the test are presented in Table 6.27.

TABLE 6.27: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ELABORATED SENTENCES					
GROUPS	MEAN	SD	MIN/40	MAX/40	N
JUNIOR	3.6	2.11	1	8	10
MIDDLE	6.7	3.43	2	14	10
SENIOR	12.8	3.08	8	17	10

Table 6.27 presents a general indication of the learner participants' achievements in the test of *Elaborated sentences* of the TACL-R (Carrow, 1985) in terms of means, standard deviation, as well as minimum and maximum scores within each group.

The most noteworthy result that emerged during the analysis was that the learner participants' comprehension of elaborated sentences was insufficient for learning, as shown in Table 6.28.

The learner participants in the Senior Group achieved 100% comprehension on only one elaborated sentence (Who is by the table?). Of the 40 elaborated sentences which were assessed, 15 sentences were comprehended by 50% or more, whereas 25 sentences were comprehended by less than 50% of the senior learner participants. The comprehension of the Senior Group of learner participants is of particular interest, as they were in Grade R and being prepared for formal schooling where receptive CALP, similar to the elaborated sentences assessed, will be required.

The difficulties the Senior Group displayed with the comprehension of elaborated sentences imply that they may be at a constant disadvantage and may experience formal classroom discourse difficult to understand.

TABLE 6.28: LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' COMPREHENSION OF ELABORATED SENTENCES (N=30)			
CATEGORIES	PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS IN SAMPLES		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)
INTERROGATIVES			
Who is by the table?	0%	10%	0%
When do you sleep?	100%	100%	50%
The man said, "Can you reach it?"	100%	100%	70%
With what do you eat?	100%	80%	90%
Mother said, "Is it raining?"	100%	100%	90%
NEGATIVES			
It's not round.	100%	70%	50%
The man isn't drinking.	90%	100%	80%
It's not a cup.	90%	90%	50%
She wouldn't ride on the clown's horse.	100%	80%	100%
VOICE – ACTIVE			
The mother kisses the baby.	40%	20%	20%
The boy pushes the girl.	100%	40%	50%
PASSIVE			
The boy is chased by the dog.	100%	80%	70%
DIRECT/INDIRECT OBJECT			
She takes the puppy to the boy.	100%	90%	60%
She shows the girl the boy.	100%	100%	80%
COORDINATION			
The girls are eating and watching TV.	10%	0%	10%
The man and the boy ate popcorn.	50%	60%	50%
The boy rode his bicycle home, and his sister went home in the car.	70%	60%	30%
The lady is eating a banana, and the man is drinking milk.	90%	50%	30%
Neither the girl nor the boy is swinging.	100%	100%	90%
She wanted a blouse, however, she got a skirt.	100%	100%	90%
The girl asked her father to throw her the ball, but he didn't.	100%	100%	100%
SUBORDINATION			
While the girl saw the movie, she ate some popcorn.	90%	50%	30%
After he cut her hair, the hairdresser took a coffee break.	100%	100%	70%
Before taking the packages to the post office, he had to wrap them.	100%	100%	90%
He couldn't reach it although he was tall.	100%	100%	50%
Besides the baseball glove, she bought a CD.	100%	100%	70%
Reading, the boy fell asleep.	100%	100%	80%
Having put her coat in the wardrobe, she took off her shoes.	100%	100%	80%
If her mother had baked a cake, the girl would have gone to the party.	100%	100%	100%
Before she jumped in the pool, the girl waved to her mother.	100%	100%	100%
Had it been possible, he would have ridden in the car or on the bicycle.	100%	100%	100%
EMBEDDING			
The lady who was standing on the corner by the hamburger stand called to the taxi driver who was driving by.	100%	80%	30%
The boy who was laughing saw the girl.	100%	80%	30%
Mary, her daughter, drank some milk.	100%	90%	80%
The man spoke to the little girl's mother, who was in the car.	100%	90%	40%
The boy the dog watched was eating.	100%	100%	100%
The boy called the girl with the baseball cap.	100%	100%	100%
The baby the woman held clapped her hands.	100%	100%	100%
The boy the girl pulled had on a baseball cap.	100%	100%	100%
The policeman the waitress with the white cap served was holding some coffee.	100%	100%	100%

* Variables were arranged according to difficulty within each category.

Although Carrow (1985:4) explained that L2 speakers' comprehension is aided by redundancies in linguistic or situational messages and by information from which inferences can be made, it appears that redundancies in the assessed sentences did not support the learner participants' comprehension skills sufficiently. Apparently, the learners did not find cues in the sentences to the meaning that was transmitted. As the assessed sentences were supported by pictures, it is evident that the learner participants will find it difficult to comprehend contextually reduced communication which is restricted to words only. The preschool teachers may, therefore, have to modify their language input to facilitate comprehension in multilingual preschool learners.

Important issues emerged in terms of sufficient exposure of the learner participants to elaborated sentences in the research context. It may be necessary to consider earlier findings indicating *first*, that a majority of the teacher participants simplified instructions to facilitate comprehension (Table 6.13), and *second*, that a majority of the teacher participants taught in their L2 (Table 6.2) and perhaps did not include elaborated sentences in their verbal interactions. Jordaan (1993:142) explained that some language components are best learned through native speaker input as it may not occur frequently in the language of L2 speakers. It is, therefore, possible that learner participants may not be adequately exposed to elaborated sentences in class to stimulate comprehension of such sentences.

From the above findings, the following observation is made, conclusion is reached and corresponding need is identified.

OBSERVATION

The TACL-R (Carrow, 1985) was considered an appropriate assessment tool and served its diagnostic function, as learner participants readily recognised the people, objects, and actions depicted in the material.

CONCLUSION

Learner participants displayed inadequate comprehension of vocabulary, grammatical morphemes, and elaborated sentences in English for learning.



CORRESPONDING NEED

A need was identified for learner participants to improve receptive English skills for academic success.
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6.3.1.2 Learner participants' expressive ELoLT skills

Language samples from each of the learner participants were elicited by employing the following measuring instruments: *Picture description* from the MWM Program for Developing Language Abilities (Minskoff, Wiseman & Minskoff, 1972), *Sequence Story* from the Kindergarten Language Screening Test (KLST-2) (Gauthier & Madison, 1998), and *Personal experience narrative* (Tönsing, 1998). An error analysis of the expressive language of learner participants was done according to the categories identified by Nxumalo (1997:16-30) and comprised the following categories: noun errors, preposition errors, errors of article/determiner, verb errors, complex sentence errors, individual variations, and interaction patterns.

A representative section of the total transcription, for the Senior, Middle, and Junior groups of learner participants, was selected. The agreement between the two raters was computed by counting the number of points of analysis (see below), the number of points of analysis where the two raters were in agreement, and the number of points of analysis where disagreement occurred. The results were as follows:

Total number of points of analysis: 1832

Total number of disagreements: 35

Total number of agreements: 1797 = 98.1%

Interrater agreement per group:

Disagreement for Senior group: 12 out of 425=2.8% (Agreement 97.2%)

Disagreement for Middle group: 8 out of 457=1.8% (Agreement 98.2%)

Disagreement for Junior group: 15 out of 950=1.6% (Agreement 98.4%)

It can therefore be accepted that there was a 98.1% agreement between the raters with regard to the syntactic analysis of the transcribed language samples.

- **Noun errors**

In Table 6.29 an analysis of learner participants' noun errors is presented. The most prominent results were that four new categories of noun errors were identified, that noun errors occurred more frequently in the Senior Group of learner participants, that gender confusion was displayed by all learner participants, and that the use of generic terms indicated a weakness in expressive vocabulary skills.

Four categories of noun errors were added to the categories identified by Nxumalo (1997:16-19). It is postulated that Nxumalo (1997) did not observe and, therefore, did not include these categories. The age range of learners in Nxumalo's (1997) research was 5.0 – 6.6 years and all of them had been attending ELoLT preschools for a minimum of two years (Nxumalo, 1997:12), which may account for better English proficiency than that of the learners in the current study. It appears that a category similar to *use of generic term*, was identified by Van der Walt (2001:10), who named the category *use of quantifiers*.

According to Table 6.29, noun errors occurred in the expressive language of all learner participants in all the age groups. These errors were not consistent in each learner participant or in each age group. Although no general pattern in noun errors could be identified from Table 6.29, the *percentage of learners in the Senior Group who made errors* was higher than in the other groups in all but two of the categories. In addition, with the exception of *omission of*

nouns in predicate positions, the frequency of occurrence of errors in these categories was higher in the Senior Group. This may be explained by the fact that the Senior Group communicated more freely with the researcher, whereas the Junior Group appeared to be more reserved, some of them possibly still in the initial phases of the acquisition of ELoLT with limited vocabulary and non-verbal behaviour, as explained earlier. The increased verbal communication of the Senior Group therefore increased the opportunities for errors.

TABLE 6.29: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' NOUN ERRORS (N=30)

TYPE OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Use of noun + pronoun (complement) <i>The boy, she started pushing me</i>	20%	50%	100%	2	11	39
Idiosyncratic use of pronouns <i>And him has got a bicycle</i>	0%	20%	10%	0	2	1
*Omission of pronoun/noun in subject position <i>Is checking me</i>	80%	90%	100%	19	21	24
*Omission of noun in predicate positions <i>He gave me</i>	10%	20%	30%	2	15	3
Regular and irregular plural errors <i>Two, there's two waters</i>	20%	0%	30%	3	0	3
*Use of generic terms (this one/that one/others/ another/that thing) <i>The dog is gonna break that thing, that</i>	70%	60%	80%	36	19	43
CONFUSION OF 3 RD PERSON FORMS OF PRONOUN: a) Gender confusion of pronouns (he/she) <i>My mommy he wake me late</i>	10%	20%	70%	1	5	19
*b) Refers to inanimate object as he/she <i>The cup she's falling down</i>	20%	30%	30%	2	5	10
Omits possessive inflection of noun <i>This is the girl umbrella</i>	10%	0%	0%	1	0	0

* New categories of noun errors identified

The results in the gender confusion category for all the groups concur with the results of Nxumalo (1997) and Jordaan (1993), who also investigated the acquisition of ELoLT by multilingual preschool learners in the South African urban preschool context. As discussed earlier, both these authors explained that the particular distinction of gender in the third person does not exist in African languages, such as IsiZulu and SeSotho (Nxumala, 1997:19; Jordaan, 1993:136). The use of pronouns to distinguish gender is therefore often used indiscriminately because of the interference of the multilingual learners' L1.

This phenomenon is also known as a language transfer error (Hoff, 2004:348). Alternatively, the learner participants could not use the gender distinction he/she correctly as they did not comprehend the difference yet, as shown in Table 6.26. Carrow (1985:3) explained that comprehension of vocabulary occur developmentally before or at the same time as production. Another interesting view held by Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:65) is that the generic use of male pronouns is regarded as a perpetuation of implicit male domination in society.

Table 6.29 indicates that the use of generic terms (this one, that one, others, another, that thing) occurred in high percentages in the utterances of all groups – Junior Group (70%), Middle Group (60%), and Senior Group (80%). It is postulated that the learner participants substituted nouns with these generic terms because of insufficient ELoLT vocabulary. The omission of pronoun/noun in the subject position illustrated the same point and was observed in the Junior Group (80%), Middle Group (90%), and the Senior Group (100%). This finding corresponds with previous research results (Hadley et al., 2000:282), which indicated that expressive vocabulary skills were a major weakness in ELoLT learners and were not sufficiently well developed to serve as a foundation for formal academic learning.

- **Preposition errors**

Table 6.30 contains the results from the analysis of learner participants' prepositional errors. The most important results were that one new category of preposition errors was identified, and that increased frequencies of errors were observed in the Senior Group when compared to the other groups.

The category *overuse of preposition* was added to the categories of preposition errors identified by Nxumalo (1997:20). Although Van der Walt (2001:10) described a similar pattern of error, the error category was refined and named in the current analysis.

TABLE 6.30: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' PREPOSITION ERRORS (N=30)						
TYPE OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Incorrect choice of preposition <i>I was playing with my friends on home</i>	30%	60%	80%	4	14	15
Omission of preposition <i>The dog she look them</i>	10%	30%	50%	4	5	9
*Overuse of preposition <i>The sister is washing with the baby in the water</i>	0%	10%	10%	0	1	2

* New category of preposition errors identified

Preposition errors were displayed in the expressive language of learner participants from all age groups. Table 6.30 shows a general trend of preposition errors increasing from the Junior Group to the Senior Group. As discussed earlier, increased verbal communication may have afforded the Senior Group more opportunities to make errors. The most conspicuous error is the incorrect choice of preposition, which occurred in 30% of the Junior Group, 60% of the Middle Group, and 80% of the Senior Group. Similar results were found by Nxumalo (1997) and Jordaan (1993). Nxumalo (1997:20) explained that prepositional errors may again be attributed to L1 interference, as African languages such as IsiZulu, use a general place marker instead of prepositions, for example *in*, *on*, and *under*. The English prepositional system is complex and multilingual learners may need support to acquire this system. With the necessary support in class, ELoLT learners can, however, develop the correct prepositional forms even if in the English spoken at home or in the community contain prepositional errors, as shown by Jordaan (1993:136).

- **Errors of article/determiner**

In Table 6.31 an analysis of the learner participants' errors of article/determiner is presented. The most significant finding is that in one category a decrease in frequency of errors was displayed by the Senior Group.

The three categories of article/determiner errors were all identified by Nxumalo (1997:21), as well as Van der Walt (2001:10), although the latter divided errors into only two categories, namely *use of articles* and *omission of articles*.

TABLE 6.31: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' ERRORS OF ARTICLE/DETERMINER (N=30)						
TYPE OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Omission of articles <i>It looks like jeep</i>	70%	50%	50%	15	14	9
Overuse of articles <i>The give me a medicine</i>	10%	30%	50%	1	4	10
Error of determiner <i>He's blowing a candles</i>	40%	60%	80%	7	8	14

Table 6.31 reveals that, although errors of article/determiner occurred in the expressive language of learner participants in all the groups, the Middle and Senior Groups *omitted* fewer articles/determiners, which is in contrast to the previously established trend of higher frequencies of errors in the Senior Group. It appears that these two groups were in the process of acquiring the assessed skills, and rather than omitting the article/determiner used an incorrect word. This finding is supported by Hakuta (as cited by Nxumalo, 1997:21), who found that articles/determiners were of low status in the acquisition order and that ELoLT learners often replaced articles/determiners with *this* or *that*, once again indicative of L1 interference.

In addition, research by Van der Walt (2001:4;5) revealed that there may be some confusion and inconsistency about article/determiner use among Black adults with English as additional language (EAL). Van der Walt (2001: 4;5) reported that 75% of assessed Black university students perceived incorrect articles/determiners as correct, which may be indicative of the entrenchment of such grammatical features in their English. If the English article/determiner errors are widely accepted and used in communities, the learner participants would be exposed to incorrect features and would need support in class to reduce errors and acquire the standard form of these features.

- **Verb errors**

In Table 6.32 an analysis of learner participants' verb errors is presented. The most noteworthy results were that four new categories of verb errors were identified, that some verb errors decreased across age groups, and that two prominent categories of verb errors were revealed.

Data analyses indicated that it was necessary to add four categories of verb errors to the categories identified by Nxumalo (1997: 23-29). Two of the additional categories were described but not categorised by Terrell, Battle and Grantham (1998:44), namely *present instead of past tense* and *generic verb to describe action*. No evidence could be found in the literature of the remaining two categories, which may be explained by the young age and poor proficiency of some of the learner participants in the current study.

Two general patterns in verb errors could be identified from Table 6.32. The first trend is that the percentage of some verb errors decreased and/or remained the same across the age groups in the categories *use of compound past tense: did + ed*, *extension of progressive aspect of static verb*, *omission of copula*, and *omission of verb*. This may be explained by the fact that the Junior Group of learner participants communicated less verbally and had fewer opportunities for errors, or, alternatively, that many learner participants from the Senior Group already acquired these skills in ELoLT. The second trend identified from Table 6.32, is that the results followed the same general pattern shown in Tables 6.28, 6.29, and 6.30, namely an increase in the percentage of errors from the Junior Group to the Senior Group.

TABLE 6.32: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' VERB ERRORS (N=30)						
TYPE OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Use of compound past tense: did + -ed <i>We first did played</i>	10%	20%	10%	1	6	1
Extension of progressive aspect of static verb <i>Must lying down</i>	10%	10%	10%	1	2	1
Extension of progressive to habitual actions/past tense <i>You jump and you bump and somebody is hitting another one</i>	30%	70%	90%	6	9	11
* Present instead of past tense <i>and they give me lots of medicine</i>	20%	80%	90%	2	28	58
Omission and inconsistent marking of 3 rd person <i>The doggie drink milk</i>	20%	20%	30%	2	5	14
Incorrect sequence of tenses in discourse and complex sentences <i>I ate and watch TV</i>	30%	20%	60%	5	4	16
Omission of copula <i>She my teacher</i>	40%	20%	20%	6	2	2
Lack of agreement between subjects and 'be' verbs <i>The cat are running</i>	20%	70%	70%	4	12	22
Overuse of regular past tenses <i>They eated</i>	0%	20%	40%	0	2	6
Overuse/omission of aux. verbs <i>The dog is want to drink</i>	50%	40%	30%	7	12	8
* Incorrect choice of verb/generic verb to describe action (e.g. did) <i>It do a cold</i>	60%	90%	100%	8	16	48
* Omission of verb <i>The children at the table</i>	20%	60%	20%	3	6	2
* Omission of -ing/ "going to" <i>She said go and give me medicine</i>	50%	40%	60%	19	6	6

* New categories of verb errors identified

Table 6.32 further reveals two prominent categories of verb errors, the first being the *use of present tense instead of past tense*. The percentage as well as frequency of errors increased progressively across the age groups. The frequent overuse of the present tense indicates the failure of learner participants to distinguish between past and present tense and resembles results presented by Nxumalo (1997:25). Terrell, Battle and Grantham (1998:44) reported this phenomenon as one of the features of the dialect of African American English. The incorrect use of the present tense in discourse identified in Table 6.32, concur with results shown in Table 6.26, which indicated that the learner participants comprehended the present tense better than the past tense and therefore used it more often, although inappropriately.

This may be regarded as a developmental error as the use of present tense instead of past tense is also observed in the speech of English L1 speakers (Nxumalo, 1997:27) and therefore indicative of a typical acquisitional error.

The second prominent category of verb errors identified was the *incorrect choice of verb/generic verb to describe an action (e.g. did)*. The percentage as well as frequency of errors again increased progressively across the age groups. It appears that this feature was adopted by the majority of ELoLT learners. Nxumalo (1997:23) found similar results in her analysis, and speculated that this may be indicative of ELoLT exposure that has been directive and limited to question-answer type interactions. This finding implies that stimulation and repetition of correct verb forms in preschool classes may support the acquisition of standard verb forms which are central to grammatical development.

- **Complex sentence errors**

In Table 6.33 an analysis of learner participants' complex sentence errors is presented. The most prominent results were that three new categories of complex sentence errors were identified, that the conjunctions *and*, *then*, and *then* were overused, and that problems to sequence utterances in narratives were evident.

Only one of the categories of complex sentence errors listed in Table 6.33 concurs with the categories identified by Nxumalo (1997:29). The other categories were not included for reasons discussed in Section 5.6.2.6. Evidence supporting the inclusion of the category *compares without comparative "er" or comparative word* was found in the discussion on dialectal formulation of comparatives in African American English by Terrell, Battle and Grantham (1998:45). No literature support for the other two categories identified in the current study could be found and it is postulated that these two categories may indicate lower levels of English proficiency in this research context.

TABLE 6.33: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' COMPLEX SENTENCE ERRORS (N=30)						
TYPE OF ERRORS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP	MIDDLE GROUP	SENIOR GROUP	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Overuse of "and", "then", "and then" <i>Then I cried, then I get blood here, then it got better</i>	60%	50%	80%	18	12	89
* Compares without comparative "er" or comparative word <i>They lift my hands that I'm Superman</i>	0%	10%	10%	0	1	1
Problems to sequence utterances in personal experience narratives <i>We played everything and when I sleep they go away when I wake up they come back</i>	10%	0%	70%	1	0	19
Omission of connectivity <i>Eating the drinking</i>	0%	40%	60%	0	6	14

* New categories of complex sentence errors identified

The results in Table 6.33 indicate a higher percentage of errors in the Senior Group in all categories as their utterances were more complex than those in the other two age groups, with ample opportunities for errors. The most prevalent error in the sample of Senior learner participants, occurring 89 times, was the overuse of *and*, *then*, and *and then*. Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976:76) explained that *and* is the first conjunction used by learners as a way of maintaining narrative flow, and is often attached to the end of a phrase indicating to the listener not to interrupt. The results of the current research concur with the findings by Nxumalo (1997:29) and indicate a need in ELoLT learners to acquire connective words in their expressive vocabulary so that they can join complex sentences in narratives more creatively.

The results emphasized that learner participants experienced problems to convey meaning in narrative and conversation tasks. According to Hoff (2004:385), producing a narrative and participating in conversation place content and processing demands on the speaker. The learner participants were in the process of narrative development where cognitive demands may interfere with the narrative task, as suggested by Hoff (2004:385). Although the researcher followed the learner participants' narratives and conversations, the results in Table 6.33 revealed that they need to be supported to produce a better narrative. This support could be supplied in the preschool classrooms by the preschool teachers providing scaffolding, asking supportive questions,

and making commands to aid the learner towards improved narrative production.

- **Individual variations (lexical innovations)**

In Table 6.34 an analysis of learner participants' individual variations in expressive language is presented. The most noteworthy result was that one new category of individual variations was identified.

One feature was added to the categories of individual variations as identified by Nxumalo (1997:30), since its frequency of occurrence suggested that it has become part of some of the learner participants' expressive vocabulary. Evidence to support this inclusion was found in the discussion by Terrell, Battle and Grantham (1998:44) who identified 'gonna' as a dialectal feature in African American English.

TABLE 6.34: ANALYSIS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS (N=30)						
TYPE OF VARIATIONS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			TOTAL NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
Invent words <i>There was gunning through his hand</i>	10%	0%	10%	1	0	2
Indiscriminate use of dialectal terms <i>We ate Simbas (chips)</i>	0%	10%	10%	0	3	1
*Use "gonna" instead of "going to" <i>Your mother is gonna come and fetch you</i>	40%	20%	20%	4	4	4

* New category of individual variations identified

The most prominent individual variation identified in Table 6.34 was the use of *gonna* instead of *going to*. Makin et al. (1995:90) described this variation as a form of creating - a stage of L2 acquisition where learners produce variations of previously memorised words and phrases. The learner participants thus showed signs of understanding the processes of word formation. Terrell, Battle and Grantham (1998:47, 48) explained that the use of such dialectal terms may be influenced by region or generation. Learner participants therefore added new words to their vocabularies that identified

them as part of a peer group or culture and with which they can communicate with peers and show affiliation to the group.

Language variation, in particular the implications of new English forms, is currently being debated in the literature. Van der Walt (2001:1; 7; 8) argues that a common standard in English is required and that mutual international comprehensibility should be taken into account. From an educational perspective, standard British English is to be acquired, which in its written form is regarded as the ideal and goal of the literate (Sarinjeive, 1999:131). As most parents or caregivers would agree that this is the English the learners should acquire, it is implied that learner participants need to be stimulated in class as well as in the communities with good models of English.

- **Interaction patterns**

An analysis of interaction patterns in the learner participants is presented in Table 6.35.

TABLE 6.35: ANALYSIS OF INTERACTION PATTERNS IN LEARNER PARTICIPANTS (N=30)						
TYPE OF OBSERVATIONS	PERCENTAGE OF LEARNERS			FREQUENCY OBSERVED		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)	JUNIOR	MIDDLE	SENIOR
No response	100%	60%	50%	41	24	22
Non-verbal response	80%	100%	70%	35	26	23
Answers restricted to yes/no	0%	10%	10%	0	6	15
Answers in single words	20%	40%	60%	4	26	10
Gestures	20%	40%	90%	3	5	27
False starts	20%	50%	90%	3	8	26
Incomplete sentences	20%	20%	90%	2	5	33
Code-switching	10%	30%	50%	2	3	22
Answers inappropriately	60%	30%	100%	8	9	29
Many prompts necessary	40%	20%	10%	4	2	2
Meaningful sounds	0%	10%	40%	0	4	6
Repetition of words	70%	20%	90%	18	7	51
Repetition of phrases	10%	20%	80%	6	7	33
Repetition of sentences	30%	10%	50%	3	1	11
Answers "I don't know"	40%	30%	40%	8	5	5
Problems with word order	10%	30%	100%	1	3	30

The category *interaction patterns* was added to the error analysis form as similar language characteristics emerged during the analysis of the expressive

language of learner participants. The results displayed in Table 6.35 provide information on the learner participants' verbal patterns while learning to communicate in ELoLT with a limited English vocabulary. The results reflect stages of the acquisition of ELoLT as described in the literature (Tabors, 1997: 60-69). The non-verbal phase, which has been discussed earlier and is characterised by rehearsal and sound experimentation in ELoLT, is evident from the results in Table 6.35. According to ASHA (1985:30), hesitations, false starts, filled and silent pauses, and other dysfluent behaviours may be exhibited by multilingual learners because of a lack of knowledge of English (ASHA, 1985:30). When multilingual learners have collected enough language data on ELoLT and feel competent, they attempt expressing themselves in additional languages, using individual words and phrases.

Table 6.35 further illustrates how learner participants repeated words, phrases, and sentences, when they started to build their own sentences indicating the beginning of the productive use of language (Hoff, 2004:192). The phase of productive language use is a cumulative process where learners maintain techniques from previous phases and use all the skills at their disposal to convey meaning (Tabors, 1977:69). The language system obviously provides a mechanism for learners to learn language by using language. The more the language system is used, the better the learners' proficiency become, and the more effective meaning is conveyed (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:21).

The results in Table 6.35 also show the learner participants' use of *code-switching* during interaction. Interesting findings that emerged upon analysis of the data were, *first*, that the learners employed *code-mixing* – the borrowing of single words from an additional language, according to Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:73), and *second*, that all the learner participants code-switched to Afrikaans and not to their L1. This may be attributed to various factors, namely that they could not recall the specific words in their L1, their teachers may have code-switched to Afrikaans in the classes as discussed in Section 6.2.1.3, or learner participants may have been sensitive towards the researcher, being White, who would not comprehend code-switching to

African languages. Dawber and Jordaan (1999:14) pointed out that learners are unlikely to code-switch to a language the listener will not understand. The code-switching to Afrikaans was not mentioned in any of the teacher participants' responses to the questionnaire (discussed in the first part of Chapter Six). They did, however, indicate that learners code-switched to their L1 (Tables 6.4 and 6.15).

When the above results are considered with the results of Table 6.4 and 6.15, it becomes apparent that code-switching was not restricted to one language. Heugh (2002:188) pointed out that multilingual children of Africa have a remarkable ability to draw on their language resources in multilingual situations and code-switch or code-mix to many languages to accommodate communication partners. It appears that the learner participants were using code-switching in a contextually sensitive way.

According to Table 6.35, the whole Senior Group of learner participants displayed *problems with word order*. Indications are once again that the more verbal learner participants became, the more problems they experienced with assessed language features. The Senior Group could formulate simple sentences correctly, but experienced difficulties with word order in complex sentences. Owens (2001:211) stated that word order is one of the earliest principles learned in language acquisition and explained that learners initially rely on a few rigid formulas to form sentences, but later learn other forms and develop a flexible system for sentence formulation, adaptable to different discourse situations. The learner participants were therefore in the process of acquiring a flexible system of word order.

From the above findings, the following observation is made, conclusion is drawn and corresponding need is identified.

OBSERVATION
The use of directive methods to elicit language samples was considered an appropriate method to obtain representative samples of learner participants' continuous speech.

CONCLUSION
The learner participants' expressive ELoLT skills reveal various errors which may be ascribed to L1 interference, but were similar to errors identified in multilingual learners in other contexts and, therefore, can be described as typical in English Additional Language (EAL) acquisition.



CORRESPONDING NEED
A need was identified to support the learner participants' expressive language skills across a developmental continuum.

6.3.1.3 Learner participants' pragmatic skills

The pragmatic behaviours of learner participants were assessed with the *Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors - Format 2* (Creaghead, 1982), and the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 6.36.

TABLE 6.36: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRAGMATIC BEHAVIOURS					
GROUP	MEAN	SD	MIN/25	MAX/25	N
JUNIOR	9	5.59	3	23	10
MIDDLE	13.7	4.66	8	22	10
SENIOR	20.7	4.44	13	25	10

Table 6.36 provides an indication of the range of learner participants' responses to the Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors – Format 2 (Creaghead, 1982).

The results obtained from the checklist are presented in Table 6.37. The most significant result that emerged was that the learner participants on the whole displayed a variety of pragmatic behaviours.

According to Table 6.37, two of the assessed pragmatic behaviours were observed in learner participants of all age groups in similar proportions. The communicative intent of *greeting* was observed in all learner participants (100%) across all age groups. On the other hand, only a limited number of learner participants across all age groups (Junior group - 20%, Middle group - 30%, Senior group - 20%) displayed the communicative intent of *denial*. It is postulated that the latter result may have been influenced by the elicitation context, or by habits in African cultures where children, out of respect for adults, will not question them even when they make mistakes, as was expected in this item. Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:78) explained that *respectful reserve* in learners is often misunderstood in cross-cultural communication and that failure of multilingual learners to respond may be explained by their obedient waiting for a signal to communicate.

TABLE 6.37: LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' PRAGMATIC BEHAVIOURS (N=30)			
ASSESSED ITEMS	PERCENTAGE OBSERVED IN SAMPLE		
	JUNIOR GROUP (N=10)	MIDDLE GROUP (N=10)	SENIOR GROUP (N=10)
COMMUNICATIVE INTENTS			
Greeting	100%	100%	100%
Request for object	10%	50%	70%
Request for action	20%	40%	70%
Request for information	10%	70%	70%
Comment on object	40%	60%	70%
Comment on action	50%	60%	80%
Describing an event	40%	30%	100%
Predicting	30%	80%	100%
Hypothesising	50%	30%	70%
Denial	20%	30%	20%
Making choices	90%	100%	100%
Giving reasons	10%	30%	100%
Closing	90%	90%	100%
CONVERSATIONAL DEVICES			
Answering	70%	100%	100%
Volunteering to communicate	20%	50%	80%
Attending to the speaker	90%	100%	100%
Taking turns	20%	70%	90%
Acknowledging	40%	60%	90%
Specifying a topic	10%	30%	80%
Changing topic	10%	0%	60%
Maintaining a topic	40%	80%	90%
Asking conversational questions	10%	10%	70%
Giving expanded answers	0%	20%	90%
Requesting clarification	10%	60%	90%
Clarifying	10%	20%	90%

From Table 6.37 it is clear that good development across the age groups were displayed for *taking turns*, which is regarded as one of the basic principles of dialogue. Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:78) pointed out that there are often different conventions guiding different cultures in the aspect of turn

taking. They explained that it is less acceptable for a child to interrupt an adult speaker in the Xhosa community than in the English-speaking community (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:78). Despite the cultural differences between the researcher and the learner participants, the learner participants appeared to be in the process of acquiring appropriate skills in turn taking.

Table 6.37 further indicates that the pragmatic behaviours of the Senior Group on the whole were well developed and with the exception of *denial*, all the assessed skills were observed in 60% or more of the senior learners. *Giving reasons (100%)*, *predicting (100%)*, and *hypothesising (70%)*, regarded as difficult and dependent on language for their manifestation, were observed in 70% to 100% of the senior learners. Creaghead (1984:242) presented evidence that these behaviours develop later in the preschool years than the other skills assessed, which suggests adequate pragmatic development in the senior learner participants.

The results shown in Table 6.37 indicate overall typical pragmatic development in the learner participants. These findings are supported by the research of Jordaan (1993:86), who identified a range of communication functions and conversational management strategies in multilingual preschool learners. However, pragmatic behaviours may be viewed differently across cultures (Kaschula & Antonissen, 1995:78; Mattes & Omark, 1984:81), as not all cultures place the same emphasis on verbal communication. In addition, Battle (1998:26) observed how conversation in Western cultures tends to be horizontal, whereas conversation in non-Western cultures may be vertical, flowing from persons with higher to lower prestige. As individuals from different cultures have distinct communication standards, awareness of cultural differences is crucial before any disorder may be identified in multilingual learners.

From the above findings, the following observation is made, conclusion is reached and corresponding strength is identified.

OBSERVATION
The Creaghead Checklist of Pragmatic Behaviors – Format 2 (Creaghead, 1982), was considered an appropriate assessment tool and the communication-demand situation which was created provided opportunities to observe elicited pragmatic behaviours.

CONCLUSION
The learner participants displayed typical development of pragmatic behaviours.



CORRESPONDING STRENGTH
The typical development of pragmatic behaviours was identified as a strength of the learner participants. They had a range of communicational intentions and conversational devices that compensated to a degree for insufficient receptive and expressive ELoLT skills in conversations.

6.3.2 Summary of learner participants' needs and strengths

Table 6.38 provides a summary of the needs and strengths of learner participants identified during Phase Two.

TABLE 6.38: THE NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS IDENTIFIED IN PHASE TWO	
NEEDS	STENGTHS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To improve receptive English skills • To support the development of expressive English skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show typical development of pragmatic behaviours

The language and communication assessment of learner participants provided valuable information on the learners' specific language needs and characteristics of ELoLT errors displayed by the multilingual preschool learners. Although the current trend is towards an asset-based approach which recognises that every learner has competencies and that these provide a positive base from which to start intervention (Nelson, 1998:297), the error analysis allowed the researcher to compare, contrast, and develop insight and understanding from the patterns of language behaviour (Fetterman, 1998:96; Johnson, 1992:148). A need analysis further provided insight into the typical

L2 acquisition process and revealed the processes underlying that development. According to Huebner (as cited by Nxumalo, 1997:1), knowledge of how additional languages are learned, may provide pointers to the manner in which the learning process needs to be facilitated.

6.3.3 Comparison of teacher participants' perceptions with results of ELoLT proficiency assessment of learner participants

To compare the teacher participants' perceptions regarding the language skills in English of the multilingual preschool learners with the language assessment data of learner participants acquiring ELoLT, data from the questionnaire were compared with data from the language and communication assessment. Twenty-seven language skills from Phase One could be paired with 27 language skills from Phase Two (where there were exact matches between variables in the questionnaire and items tested with the test battery /checklist). The data were compared with the non-parametric Wilcoxin matched-pair signed rank test and the comparison is presented in Table 6.39.

Significant differences were found on 15 skills out of the 27 skills tested, which gave an indication of which ratings obtained from the teacher participants' perceptions differed from those obtained from the communication assessment.

TABLE 6.39: COMPARISON OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS AND ASSESSMENT DATA OF LEARNER PARTICIPANTS' LANGUAGE SKILLS

	LANGUAGE SKILLS	MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO RATINGS	P-VALUES ON WILCOXIN MATCHED – PAIR SIGNED RANK TEST
PRAGMATIC SKILLS	Comment on action	-0.1889	0.1661
	Describe an event	-0.0667	0.4652
	Attend to speaker	-0.4667	0.0000*
	Volunteer to communicate	-0.0556	0.1819
	Topic maintenance	-0.2556	0.0024*
	Answer questions	-0.3444	0.0002*
	Request for information	-0.0556	0.1681
	Request for clarification	-0.0889	0.0979
	Request for action/object	0.2333	0.0187*
	Hypothesise	-0.1333	0.1664
	Give reasons	-0.1889	0.0020*
	Greet	-0.3889	0.0000*
	EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS	Code-switch	-0.0222
Follow 1- and 2-step commands		-0.4111	0.0000*
Preposition – through		0.3444	0.0005*
Gestures		0.3333	0.0004*
Name common objects		-0.1852	0.0000*
Use common verbs		-0.2937	0.0000*
Comparison		-0.0630	0.4745
Name colours		-0.4731	0.0000*
Interrogatives		0.2822	0.0000*
Correct word order		-0.1500	0.3971
Gender confusion		0.0500	0.6087
Correct determiners		-0.2000	0.0758
Correct prepositions		-0.2000	0.0758
Verb errors		-0.1244	0.0005*
Degrees of comparison		0.3083	0.0000*

* Significant p-values

The results in Table 6.9 show a significant difference for the pragmatic skill *request for action/object*, which has a positive difference, indicating that the teacher participants ranked this skill higher than the rating given in the communication assessment. The five pragmatic skills (*attend to speaker*, *topic maintenance*, *answer questions*, *give reasons*, *greet*) with a negative significant difference were rated lower by the teacher participants than the ratings given in the communication assessment.

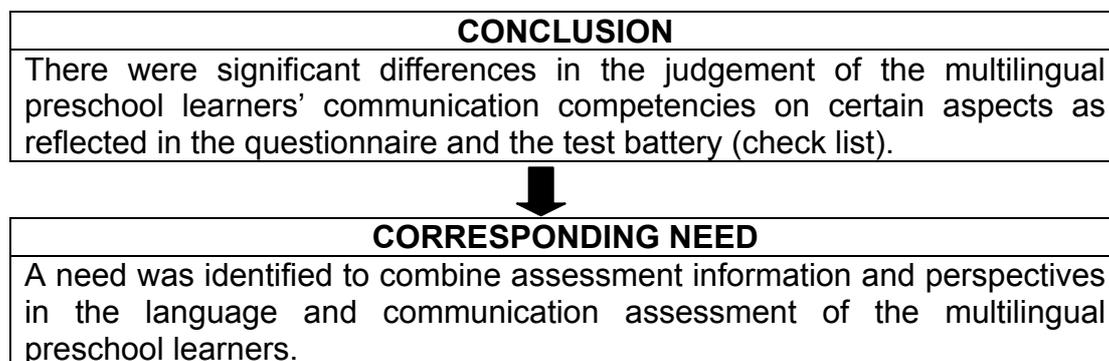
For the following four expressive language skills (*preposition-through*, *gestures*, *interrogatives*, *degrees of comparison*) positive significant differences indicate that the teacher participants rated these skills higher than the rating given in the communication assessment. The five expressive language skills with negative significant differences (*follow 1- and 2-step commands*, *name common objects*, *use common verbs*, *name colours*, *verb*

errors) were rated lower by the teacher participants than the ratings given in the communication assessment.

These findings indicate that there were significant differences in the judgement of some of the learner participants' English language skills by the teacher participants and the researcher. This may be attributed to the different environments in which the learner participants' English skills were assessed, namely the more natural communication setting of the classroom versus the more therapeutic situation of the formal assessment.

The teacher participants provided valuable information on the ELoLT needs and strengths of multilingual preschool learners, and Wyatt (1998:395) strongly valued teachers' clinical intuition of language barriers. However, the language and communication assessment in Phase Two provided more detailed information on ELoLT proficiency than Phase One, which is attributed to the use of a structured, detailed assessment. The significant differences between the teacher participants' perceptions and the researcher's assessment data displayed in Table 6.39 support the claim that an integrated view of the multilingual learners' communication abilities needs to be established across contexts, that assessment strategies such as naturalistic and structural assessments need to be combined, and that interdisciplinary perspectives need to be established.

From the above findings, the following conclusion is drawn and a corresponding need is identified.



This need of the teacher participants identified in Phase Two should be considered with the needs and strengths identified in Phase One (and summarised in Section 6.2.3) to constitute all the needs and strengths identified in the current research.

6.4 THE ROLE OF THE SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPIST IN THE ACQUISITION OF ELoLT BY THE MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS

The overall objective of Phase Three was *to explore the role of the speech-language therapist in the acquisition of ELoLT by multilingual preschool learners*, based on the results of Phase One and Phase Two of the research. The outcome of Phase Three is presented according to the objective presented in Figure 6.1. The role of the speech-language therapists is explored by interpreting both the subjective perceptions of the teacher participants and the objective communication assessment of the learner participants. This discussion will guide the formulation of a service delivery model in Chapter Seven.

The results of Phase One and Phase Two indicated an overlap in the language needs identified in learner participants, as insufficient receptive and expressive skills were identified in both phases. The implications of these results were that learner participants should have the benefit of supportive intervention and that it was the educational responsibility of the teacher participants to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT by learner participants in the classrooms. The teacher participants also indicated in Phase One that they were willing to consult and collaborate with other educational support professionals, including speech-language therapists, to guide them in the multilingual classes through this period of educational change in South Africa.

The involvement of speech-language therapists in the acquisition of ELoLT is highly appropriate as they have been trained in the sequential nature of language development, as well as in the assessment and facilitation of language functioning (Jordaan, 1993:2). Although both the preschool

teachers and the speech-language therapists have the language needs of the learner acquiring ELoLT as primary focus, the respective roles of these professionals may contribute a unique knowledge base and expertise to the process. Prelock (2000:214) proposes that the specific expertise of speech-language therapists in language development and language disorders set their role apart from that of teachers who may provide a less language-focused teaching curriculum. However, to prevent service gaps, unnecessary duplication, and contradictory service delivery, the language intervention practices of the teachers and the speech-language therapists need to converge to the advantage of the multilingual preschool learners (Ukrainetz & Fresquez, 2003:284; 285; 295).

According to ASHA (1991:49), collaborative service delivery models can augment traditional methods of serving multilingual learners. This implies that speech-language therapists have to think in broader terms about their roles and responsibilities in multilingual preschools. In contrast to the narrow focus of traditional service delivery models, including pull-out methods, the teacher participants' support needs (discussed in Section 6.2.2.4) clearly indicated that the principal role of the speech-language therapists need to be indirect, providing mainly consultative, but also collaborative support. The terms *consultation* and *collaboration* are not synonymous, but instead must be viewed as independent concepts. Whereas *collaboration* defines *how* individuals interact, *consultation* defines the *process* (Coufal, 1993:4). Morsink (1991:6) points out that both consultation and collaboration are features of interactive teamwork, as illustrated in Figure 6.3.

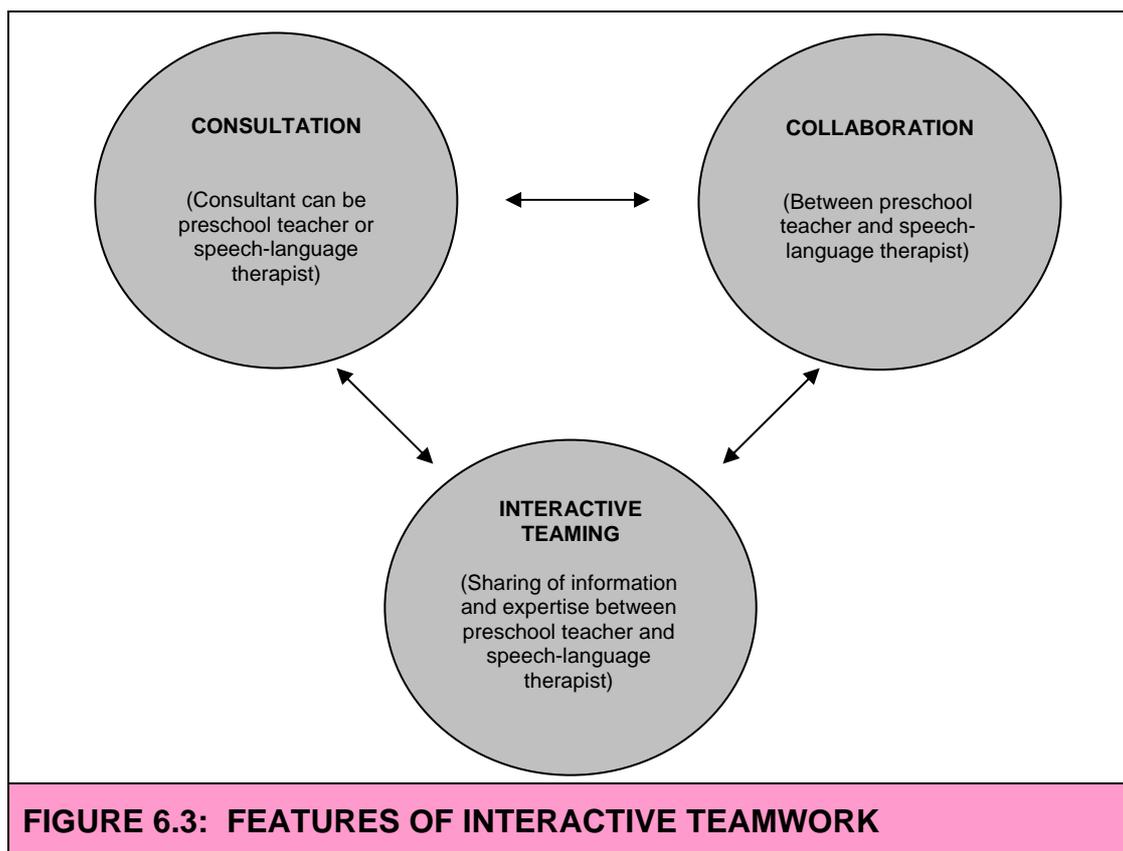


FIGURE 6.3: FEATURES OF INTERACTIVE TEAMWORK

Source: Morsink (1991:6).

According to Figure 6.3, the consultant constantly changes in interactive teamwork, being the person who possesses the necessary information on a given topic at a particular time. In *consultation*, the preschool teacher or the speech-language therapist needs to share knowledge in a reciprocal, rather than an authoritarian manner (Morsink, 1991:5). In *collaboration*, the preschool teachers' and the speech-language therapists' actions need to be coordinated to reach their common goal, which is to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual learners. Collaboration between the two professionals therefore needs to be cooperative rather than competitive (Morsink, 1991:6).

When considering the research results, it becomes clear that the role of the speech-language therapist in the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners needs to incorporate not only the components of consultation and collaboration, but also collaborative intervention, as will be described forthwith.

Consultation is the act of communicative interaction that provides a shared view for the consultant and consultee of social and biological conditions contributing to the present problem (Coufal, 1993:3). Scarce human and material resources and a need for assistance to resolve problems may be the motivation to enter into the consultation process.

Consultation explicitly calls for *voluntary participation* (Coufal, 1993:8). As the results in Phase One indicated that not all the teacher participants required support, the preschool teachers' participation in consultation with speech-language therapists needs to be based on a demonstration of interest in collaboration. Voluntary participation may contribute to the success of consultation, as no administrative mandate can coerce the preschool teacher and the speech-language therapist to form the interdependent relationship necessary for successful consultation (Drake, 1993:10). Such a working relationship needs to evolve out of respect between the two professionals, the need to share information, skills and resources, and the need for mutual support on behalf of the multilingual learners (Coufal, 1993:8).

Collaboration includes working together in a supportive and mutually beneficial way to develop intervention plans deriving from joint problem definition and provision of services, with shared responsibility for all outcomes. Collaboration involves more than cooperation, in that coequality and co-participation are essential to the process (Coufal, 1993:4-5). By adopting the collaborative ethic, the speech-language therapist promotes shared responsibility and understanding with the preschool teacher.

It was suggested in the results of Phase One that education support professionals, including speech-language therapists, may have to take the lead in initiating collaboration with the teacher participants. Such collaboration may, however, depend largely on the competencies of the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists in clarifying and redefining their roles to form a team that provides services to the multilingual preschool learners.

Collaborative intervention is regarded as a systematic process of planning, problem solving, and sharing of resources and responsibilities in intervention that involves team members from diverse professional backgrounds (Coufal, 1993:1-12). Although collaborative intervention was identified from the research results of Phase One as one of the roles of speech-language therapists, they need to become advocates for collaborative consultation and demonstrate how their expertise, coupled with the expertise of the preschool teachers, may provide relevant support that could lead to meaningful outcomes for the needs identified in the multilingual preschool learners.

Although many speech-language therapists and preschool teachers may want to adopt the collaborative consultation approach, they need to realise that this approach involves more than simply talking to each other and randomly sharing their expertise. Collaborative consultation is a systematic process that depends on the adoption of a collaborative ethic and knowledge of the process (Coufal, 1993:12).

The results obtained in the empirical study indicated that the teacher participants were positive about support from speech-language therapists, which is in line with current government policy of teacher support by educational support professionals. Although no single person or profession has sufficient knowledge and experience to provide all the supporting functions associated with the needs of multilingual preschool learners and preschool teachers, the results of this study indicated that the speech-language therapist is one of the professionals that may be employed as consultant and resource person. Through a jointly developed partnership, preschool teachers and speech-language therapists could facilitate ELoLT development in the multilingual preschool learners with limited communication skills, and enable the inclusion of these learners in the learning environment where they may have experienced linguistic barriers to learning. This exploration of the role of the speech-language therapist served as a guide to the formulation of a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in Chapter Seven.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The current study investigated the specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area in order to understand the local context, describe the language needs of multilingual learners acquiring ELoLT, and explore the role of speech-language therapists in support of preschool teachers and multilingual preschool learners. Although this study was initiated in response to the needs of this specific community, it is also in line with the call by the Department of Education (DoE) in White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:18) for all professionals involved in ECE to respond passionately and work together in fulfilling the educational needs of young learners. The current research was conducted to construct meaning from the teacher and learner participants' needs and strengths, and to reinterpret this knowledge by providing guidelines to speech-language therapists and preschool teachers on the model of service delivery, as well as initial stage intervention guidelines to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners.

While extensive research on multicultural education is currently underway (Heugh, 2005; Harmse, 2005; Naudé, 2005; Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121), the results obtained from the empirical study supplied contextual information and contributed to the search for solutions to local problems. The observations and conclusions resulting from the research findings have generated a number of contextual recommendations towards addressing the language teaching needs of the preschool teachers, as well as the linguistic needs of the multilingual preschool learners. In the specific research context, the findings provided empirical support for the theoretical claims that speech-language therapists can play a role in the acquisition of ELoLT by urban multilingual preschool learners. This clearly indicates that South African speech-language therapists need to be included as team members when addressing the language needs of young learners acquiring ELoLT.

6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the empirical study, which included the questionnaire survey and the communication assessment. The results were organised into three sections according to the three phases of the study, namely the needs and strengths of preschool teachers and ELoLT learners, the language and communication proficiency of multilingual preschool learners, and the role of the speech-language therapist. These results form the basis upon which a service delivery model and initial stage intervention guidelines for the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners will be proposed in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

The end of the journey marks new beginnings (Drake, 1993:52).

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of applied research is to solve problems in practice, and therefore most applied research findings have implications for knowledge development (Fouché, 2002a:109). In the field of Communication Pathology, research findings can support the implementation of specific intervention approaches and can be used to motivate changes in service delivery models. Such evidence-based approaches to clinical services involve the conscious use of current theory and research to frame the services provided (Apel, 2001a: 196). An important part of research is therefore to contribute to the knowledge on the expanding role of the dynamic profession of the speech-language therapist and, in addition, to create opportunities for progress within the discipline of Communication Pathology.

The changes in the population demographics of urban South Africa, resulting in an ever-increasing number of multilingual preschool learners attending preschools (Wolhuter, 2000:156), have implications for South African speech-language therapists. Speech-language therapists have to prepare to serve this multilingual population and make a meaningful contribution to support the learners' education. However, in order to be relevant, a service delivery model that facilitates the acquisition of English as Language of Learning and Teaching (ELoLT) and involves speech-language therapists has to be context specific, based on contextually determined goals and desired outcomes (Harber, 1999:8). The current research aims to provide a research base for a proposed service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in the specific

research context where language needs were identified in the multilingual preschool learners acting as participants.

The specific educational context of multilingual preschools in the Pretoria Central Business District (CBD) and Sunnyside was investigated to provide research-based recommendations for clinical practice. This exploratory study can guide the clinical implementation of collaborative consultation between speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers sharing the responsibility for the multilingual preschool learners' success with the acquisition of ELoLT, and serve to generate further research.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the conclusions drawn from the theoretical and empirical research study as described in the previous chapters, to critically evaluate the research, to propose a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT, and to recommend initial stage ELoLT intervention guidelines for the multilingual preschool learners in the research context.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH

The current study explored the existing situation in multilingual preschools in the Pretoria CBD and Sunnyside area, and interpreted the current opinions and perceptions of the preschool teachers in order to guide speech-language therapists towards the fulfilment of their role in the specific context. The empirical research consisted of three research phases, which resulted in the following research conclusions:

- The results of *Phase One* revealed the teacher participants' perceptions of the impact of certain personal challenges while supporting the preschool learners acquiring ELoLT. Most of the challenges in the research context were in the form of needs, but strengths were identified as well. The teacher participants acknowledged, *first*, the need for knowledge about additional language acquisition and cultural issues and, *second*, the need for support. The results indicated that the teacher participants were willing

to consult and collaborate with other professionals, including speech-language therapists, in support of the multilingual preschool learners. The teacher participants were therefore prepared to form partnerships in dealing with multilingual challenges.

- The results of *Phase One* further indicated that the teacher participants perceived certain needs and strengths in the multilingual preschool learners. The multilingual preschool learners in the research context had to communicate in ELoLT despite it being an unfamiliar language. Some of the multilingual preschool learners displayed negative social and emotional behaviours, such as withdrawal, frustration, and discipline problems, that could be interpreted as indicators of negative influences on their self-esteem. The results added to the growing awareness that a holistic approach to intervention needs to be the basis of the multilingual learners' education, and that interdisciplinary partnerships need to be established to bring together diverse perspectives and expertise for collaborative intervention. In collaborative partnerships between the preschool teachers and educational support staff, knowledge related to the multilingual preschool learners' strengths and barriers to education could be shared to enhance the learning process.
- The results of *Phase Two* indicated that many of the learner participants' comprehension of and expression in ELoLT were insufficient for learning and that they required support for academic success. The types of expressive ELoLT errors made by the learner participants were similar to errors identified in other South African research contexts (Van der Walt, 2001; Nxumalo, 1997; Jordaan, 1993) and could therefore be described as typical in the acquisition of English as Additional Language (EAL). The results indicated that the learner participants displayed good development in a range of communicational intentions and conversational devices, such as turn taking which is generally regarded as one of the basic principles of dialogue. The multilingual learners' typical development of pragmatic

behaviours compensated to a degree for insufficient receptive and expressive ELoLT skills in conversations.

- The results of *Phase Two* furthermore indicated that the teacher participants' subjective perceptions of the multilingual preschool learners' ELoLT proficiency were not always congruent with the objective communication assessments of the learner participants. These results support the claim that an integrated view of the multilingual learners' communication abilities needs to be established across contexts, by combining assessment strategies, such as naturalistic and structural assessment, as well as interdisciplinary perspectives.
- In *Phase Three* the results of Phase One and Phase Two were interpreted to explore the role of speech-language therapists in the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners. The results indicated that the principal role of speech-language therapists in the acquisition of ELoLT needs to be indirect, providing mainly consultative, but also collaborative support to the preschool teachers with the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners.

The exploration of the role of the speech-language therapist in Phase Three served as a guide to the formulation of a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in the research context, which is presented forthwith.

7.3 A SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL TO FACILITATE THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING IN THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

The researcher used the results of the empirical research to propose a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in the research context, as recommended by De Vos (2002b:43). A service delivery model was generated in the research context, where no model of service delivery had previously existed. Such a theoretical model may guide the development of

hypotheses, suggest new areas of research, and provide a basis for the planning of intervention guidelines (De Vos, 2002b:38; Fouché, 2002b:97). Over the past two decades, collaborative service delivery models have been proposed in other contexts, but have never been widely applied in South Africa. Some speech-language therapists appreciated the apparent advantages of collaboration, but experienced many barriers, such as scheduling, planning and training, to establishing collaborative service delivery models (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994:263). It appears that speech-language therapists tend to prefer the traditional intervention approach where they work independently and pull learners from the classrooms for individual sessions (ASHA, 1991:44). However, the current emphasis in South African education on eco-systemic perspectives, inclusion, collaborative partnerships, Whole Language approaches to instruction, and the generalisation of intervention results demands the consideration of alternative service delivery options by speech-language therapists. A graphic representation of the proposed model, based on the research results, is provided in Figure 7.1.

The proposed service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT in Figure 7.1 has three components, namely consultation, collaboration, and collaborative intervention. In *consultation* the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists need to share knowledge in a reciprocal, rather than an authoritarian manner (Morsink, 1991:5). In *collaboration* the preschool teachers' and the speech-language therapists' actions need to be coordinated to reach their common goal, which is to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT in the multilingual learners (Morsink, 1991:6). In *collaborative intervention* the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists share responsibilities for the direct instruction of the multilingual learners (Prelock, 2000:213). The following discussion of the three components of a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT is based on the current research results, but includes recommendations from the literature of the past two decades.

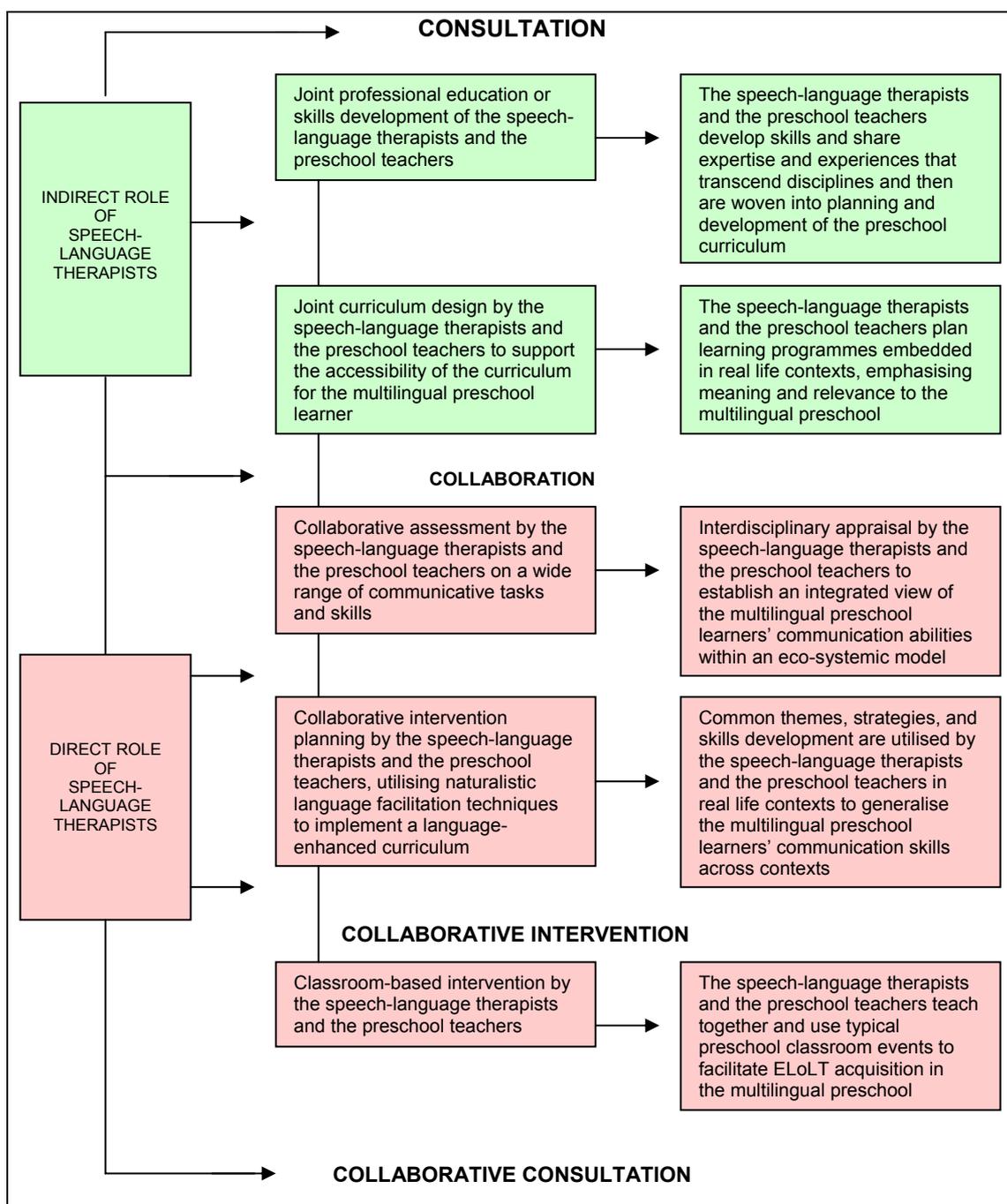


FIGURE 7.1: A SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL FOR THE ACQUISITION OF ELoLT TO FACILITATE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION WITHIN THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

- The *first consultative role* for both the speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers identified from the results of Phase One is *professional education or skills development*. The preschool teachers may need instruction in the nature of language and communication, whereas the

speech-language therapists may need information on the nature of the curriculum and its associated language demands (Brice & Perkins, 1997:20). It may therefore be necessary for the preschool teachers to familiarise the speech-language therapists with the learning areas of the curriculum, enabling them to understand their role within the curriculum and develop appropriate skills and knowledge to work within the curriculum (Struthers & Lewis, 2004:27). It implies that both professionals need to become ongoing learners themselves, sharing knowledge and information and drawing on the strength of the other in order to gain competencies and provide services responsive to the unique needs of the multilingual preschool learner.

- The *second consultative role* identified from the research results involves the *designing of learning programmes* and the *planning of structured language support* in the context of classroom activities. The results of Phase One clearly indicated that the teacher participants recognised the importance of language to the multilingual learners' academic success and socialisation, but did not feel competent to address the learners' linguistic needs in class. In consultation, the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists need to plan a language-focused curriculum, using the natural contexts of the classroom as point of departure and the classroom format and curriculum as sources of programme content (Giangreco, as cited by Prelock, 2000:215). The speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers may thus create a plan of action for addressing the multilingual learners' particular language needs, based on what could practically be implemented in the classroom. Such a collaborative approach allows the synthesising and generalisation of communication skills across contexts and also supports accessibility to the curriculum. The preschool teachers need to play a leading role in any modifications to the curriculum to facilitate comprehension, ensuring that the conceptual requirements of the learning area are met. The speech-language therapists in collaborative curriculum design need to analyse the curriculum to identify important concepts and associated language

components (Lazar, 1994:10), and suggest modifications to the important ELoLT input of the preschool teachers (Nelson, 1989:182).

- The research results of Phase One indicated a perceived need of the teacher participants for knowledge about verbal strategies to support the acquisition of ELoLT. Drawing on the preschool teachers' knowledge of whole group instruction, speech-language therapists need to provide information on naturalistic language facilitation techniques to make instructional input comprehensible to learners with diverse levels of English proficiency. As the goal of language acquisition should be communication competence, the classroom focus needs to be on interactive communication without expecting correct usage of English from the outset (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124), nor the memorisation of grammatical rules. The quality and quantity of input need to be considered (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999:13-14), and the learning environment needs to provide comprehensible input, good language models, and an effective climate to comprehend and communicate meaning (Renton, 1998:32).
- As part of their consultative role, speech-language therapists may be required to provide instructional support, for example illustrative learning programmes, equipment, assessment instruments, and learner support material to teachers, as envisaged in White Paper 6 (RSA, 2001b:49) and indicated in the results of Phase One. Speech-language therapists need to explain to the preschool teachers how to incorporate activities in their lessons, based on the vocabulary requirements of the curriculum *and* the needs and interests of their learners. It may be essential for the preschool teachers to have a range of material available that could assist ELoLT learners to move along a developmental continuum in their comprehension of new English words. This implies moving from the real object, to the pictorial, to the symbolic or abstract representation as in the written word (Meyers, 1993:37). As there is currently a lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials (Mafisa, 2001:35), speech-language therapists and preschool teachers need to develop materials together to facilitate the

learning and development of learners with language barriers to learning. The challenge presented to these two professionals is to cross disciplinary borders and reach agreement without experiencing domain conflicts.

- The first *collaborative* role of the speech-language therapists, identified from the results of Phase One and Phase Two, is to assume primary responsibility in the team for coordinating the *communication assessment* of multilingual preschool learners, as they are trained in the assessment of communication abilities of preschool learners (Jordaan, 1993:2). The preschool teachers may take secondary responsibility for the communication assessment, thereby establishing an integrated view of the learners' language abilities in the context of a larger social system (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:46-48). In such interdisciplinary appraisals of the learners' language proficiency, the speech-language therapists need to assume responsibility for collecting, analysing, and synthesising the language assessment information, as well as presenting the results to the team (ASHA, 1991:46). This is generally acknowledged as one of the roles of the speech-language therapists and they are trained on tertiary level to perform such functions. Owing to the preschool teachers' involvement and support in assessing the learners, their confidence, skills, and knowledge about communication assessment will increase, while the speech-language therapists will acquire knowledge about the nature of the language demands of the curriculum and the multilingual preschool learners' ability to handle those demands. From the outcome of curriculum-based language assessment, functional goals and objectives for intervention need to be identified (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:233; Nelson, 1989:180) and a service delivery model need to be selected.
- Lesson planning or *intervention planning* in collaboration with the preschool teachers is one of the most critical procedures to successful communication intervention (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:234), and was identified as the second *collaborative* role of speech-language therapists from the results of Phase One. At the basic level, the preschool teachers

and the speech-language therapists need to develop an Individual Education Plan (IEP) in which speech and language goals become part of the academic IEP goals. The preschool teachers need to assume overall responsibility for the development of IEPs, while the speech-language therapists may contribute to IEP development in areas related to their expertise in speech, language, and communication (Wren, Roulstone, Parkhouse & Hall, 2001:109; 116). Intervention planning in inclusive education need to be guided, not only by a normal language developmental continuum, but also by the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS). The primary focus of intervention planning needs to meet the social *and* academic needs of ELoLT learners (Prelock, 2000:213). The integrated curriculum-based intervention aims may be planned as depicted in Table 7.1.

TABLE 7.1: CURRICULUM-BASED PLANNING FORM

LESSON PLAN			
CLASS: Grade R			
LEARNING AREA: Language: Thinking and reasoning			
CURRICULUM AIMS: Use language to develop concepts: shapes			
LANGUAGE AIMS: To expand receptive and expressive vocabulary and improve verbal expression			
CURRICULUM AIMS	SPEECH AND LANGUAGE AIMS	HOW: TECHNIQUES OR ACTIVITIES	MATERIAL
To identify shapes: circle, square, triangle, rectangle	To improve vocabulary skills To practise the use of comparative words To practise the use of one/more than one pronoun	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce shapes by means of a story. Discuss target words/ repeat words • Learners identify shapes. Repeat, expand, extend • Match objects with similar shapes. Target words same, alike, like a • Describe similarities and differences. Target pronouns describing size and colour, e.g. big red circle • Identify different shaped objects in the classroom, and draw pictures. Questioning to elicit comparison of shapes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Story book • Plastic or wooden shapes • Objects pulled from a grab bag • Objects • Paper and crayons. Different size templates for circle, square, rectangle, triangle
To relate shapes to objects in the environment	To improve verbal expressions through descriptions, comparisons and contrasts		

Based on: RSA, 2002:45; Du Plessis, 1998b: 138; Farber, Denenberg, Klyman and Lachman, 1992:297.

Table 7.1 suggests that the preschool teachers need to assume primary responsibility for planning the curriculum goals and the speech-language therapists for planning the communication goals. In this manner their mutual

perspectives on desired outcomes may be combined in intervention planning (Hadley, Simmerman, Long & Luna, 2000:285).

- The results of Phase One indicated a perceived need of the teacher participants to utilise verbal strategies effectively in ELoLT acquisition. *Verbal strategies* to support ELoLT acquisition that need to be planned collaboratively, include the following: providing two or more options for objects or activities (forced alternatives); sabotage strategies; models of targeted communication behaviour (focused stimulation); maintaining or adding to the semantic content while highlighting structured aspects of language (e.g. expansions and recasts); sentence completion, and vertical structuring (Tabors, 1997:98; Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:227; Jordaan, 1993:57-61; Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:45). In addition, the learners' discourse techniques need to be improved with the emphasis on social, conversational, and narrative language (Farber et al., 1992:295). Although all of these strategies may be effective, some may be more appropriate than others, depending on the situation. In collaboration with the preschool teachers, the speech-language therapists may play a role in deciding which verbal strategy to employ in the classroom. The preschool teacher and the speech-language therapist need to continually evaluate and plan strategies in a flexible, cooperative process that allows for the changing needs of the learners.
- *Collaborative intervention* is the third *collaborative* role of the speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers, identified from the research results in Phase One. The role of the speech-language therapists in collaborative intervention needs to be a direct role, which implies direct contact with the multilingual preschool learners, as well as shared responsibilities with the preschool teachers for direct instruction of the preschool learners. As stated earlier, a service delivery model needs to be negotiated between the speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers (Nelson, 1989:180), and the level of role release between these professionals needs to be determined (Prelock, 2000:214).

Recognising that there is no perfect service delivery model (Farber & Klein, 1999:84), the speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers need to negotiate the *nature* of the services, the *location* of services, the *frequency* of services, the *mode* of services, the educational *relevance*, and the *necessity* of those services and their *functions* (Prelock, 2000:214).

- *Classroom-based* intervention (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:222), which is regarded as the anchor for most collaborative intervention services, *may* be chosen as service delivery model. Successful classroom-based intervention facilitates communication behaviour essential to participation in classroom activities; is designed to take into account the communication opportunities in typical classroom events; includes therapeutic techniques integrated into classroom activities with respect to curriculum contexts; and is based on collaboration with teachers and families (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:222). In Table 7.2 an example is presented of how the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists may integrate their services in classroom-based intervention.

TABLE 7.2: INSTRUCTIONAL SCHEDULE FOR VOCABULARY ENHANCEMENT IN THE PRESCHOOL CURRICULUM

ACTIVITY	INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES	INTEGRATION OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION
Circle time	The preschool teacher takes attendance, facilitates calendar and weather discussion, and counting. The speech-language therapist may ask questions or make comments to enhance or expand the teacher's instruction.	The preschool teacher may incorporate target vocabulary.
Story time	The preschool teacher <i>or</i> the speech-language therapist may lead this activity. The teachers learn to incorporate songs, gestures, and drama into stories	Pre-teaching, discussion of target words, dramatisation of target words in story.
Small group activities	The preschool teacher and the speech-language therapist may lead small group discussions <i>respectively</i> . The learners rotate between two activities.	Focused stimulation of target words.
Free play	The speech-language therapist may model the use of indirect language facilitation techniques; the preschool teacher may observe and may gradually become independent.	Dramatic play facilitated by the speech-language therapist incorporating the week's theme.
Snack time	The preschool teacher and the speech-language therapist may <i>both</i> sit with the learners and facilitate interaction.	Follow the learners' lead and take advantage of opportunities to facilitate social interaction.
Language lesson	Whole group activity typically led by the preschool teacher, coaching the speech-language therapist in group-handling techniques. The speech-language therapist may use indirect language facilitation techniques and visual support to supplement the teacher's instruction.	Target vocabulary specifically incorporated into this instruction.

Source: Hadley et al., 2000:284.

As illustrated in Table 7.2, the speech-language therapists need to teach *with* the preschool teachers and not *for* them, assuming the role of co-teacher in classroom-based intervention (Farber & Klein, 1999:87). In such collaborative intervention, relationships need to be built on a strong network of trust and be framed within the context of natural settings, in which communication among the professionals is nurtured. The challenges that collaborative intervention presents to some speech-language therapists are to overcome their own traditional training influenced by a medical model, as opposed to an educational model, and to foster the teachers' receptiveness to have the speech-language therapists in their classrooms, sharing educational goals.

Collaborative intervention bridges the gap between traditional speech-language therapy and the ongoing communication demands of the ELoLT classroom. The results of Phase One and Phase Two indicated that many of the multilingual preschool learners have needs in the language domain. The preschool classroom is regarded as a fertile background for the generalisation of emerging language skills and provides learners with ample opportunities to practise newly acquired skills. The preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists need to utilise the classroom as natural context for ELoLT acquisition together. Such collaborative intervention honours the expertise of each collaborative partner, and efforts and responsibilities may be shared throughout the design (Simon, 1994:129).

It is suggested that the proposed service delivery model to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT in the research context may be an effective approach to provide supportive intervention to the multilingual preschool learners with linguistic barriers to learning. The *first* benefit to the learners may be the integration of education and support services so that, through the sharing of information among the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists, learners with linguistic barriers to learning may be accommodated in inclusive classrooms (Lewis, 2004:37). *Second*, through joint curriculum planning and intervention, the multilingual learners may benefit in all the learning areas, as aspects such as vocabulary, which could prove difficult, may be revealed and functional instructions planned to facilitate

comprehension (Lewis, 2004:37; Lyon & Lyon, 1980:262). *Third*, the multilingual learners may benefit from integrated language instruction as opportunities to expand their language skills may be utilised across the curriculum, providing increased opportunities for ELoLT stimulation and acquisition (Lewis, 2004:37; Genesee & Cloud, 1998:63; 64). The *fourth* benefit to the multilingual learners may be that ELoLT skills could be facilitated outside the therapeutic situation and generalised to natural communication settings such as the classroom and home setting (Hadley et al., 2000:291; Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:157; 194; Hixson, 1993:45).

In conclusion, it is suggested that the speech-language therapists have a consultative *and* collaborative role in the multilingual learners' acquisition of ELoLT. However, the role of the speech-language therapists needs to be primarily an indirect role that extends to resource sharing and support of the preschool teachers. In the proposed service delivery model to facilitate the acquisition of ELoLT in the research context, the preschool teacher and the speech-language therapist need to support the educational context for instruction together.

7.4 CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

It is important to acknowledge the strengths as well as limitations of the study in order to gain perspective regarding the implications of the research results. The current investigation was conducted in the relatively unexplored research context of multilingual urban preschools, where the preschool teachers requested support and guidelines for service delivery from the speech-language therapists. A critical evaluation of this empirical research endeavour is important to guide judgement of the interpretation of the results and to preclude similar limitations in future studies (Strydom, 2002:255).

The current research was initiated as part of a larger institutional research project for the development of communication skills in young children. A research plan and design was drafted, compiled, and approved by the researcher's faculty advisors. After informed consent was granted by all

participants, the data were collected. The researcher's academic advisors only took over as supervisors of the research project from the faculty advisors after the data were collected. The main limitation of this study is that the formal research proposal was only submitted and approved after the research project had already been initiated. The researcher's academic advisors could therefore not provide their input before data collection to eliminate possible limitations in the questionnaire and research procedure. As proposals are currently mandatory for academic research projects, they should always be the point of departure for formal research to aid the researcher to organise the research endeavour, and to allow the researcher's academic advisors to provide guidance and monitor the progress of the research project (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:115; 129).

Another limitation of the study is that the question evaluation by participants during the pretest did not reveal all the limitations of the questionnaire. Although the researcher was careful not to reveal the existing knowledge in the wording of the questions, the questions in Section Eight of the questionnaire may be regarded as leading questions. It is further recognised that in Section Four (Part One) and in Section Five of the questionnaire the rating scales selected by the participants may not have been appropriate for the type of question asked. As Fowler (1995:115) pointed out that non-representative pretests are a general problem associated with pretests, one could argue that a pretest with a larger and more representative sample of pretest participants potentially could provide more opportunities to identify difficulties in the question formation of the questionnaire (Fowler, 1995:115). It is acknowledged that reversals in question phrasing ensuring reliable answers from the participants were not included and that open-ended questions at the end of more questionnaire sections may have provided more qualitative data.

A limitation of the research was that informed consent was not explicitly obtained from the teacher participants, but only from the schools' principals. While completion of the questionnaire may be seen as agreement to participate, they needed to have been informed that participation was

voluntary, that they had the right to withdraw and that the following procedure, to obtain the questionnaires, were in no way coercive.

Although the questionnaire was rather lengthy, most of the questions were close-ended which shortened the duration for completion. A strength of the questionnaire was the relevant information the teacher participants' responses yielded regarding their opinions and suggestions for the acquisition of ELoLT by the multilingual preschool learners.

Another strength of the larger institutional research project is that the data collected during the research yielded enough information, not only for this study, but also for a DPhil dissertation submitted in November 2005, on *Profiling Language in Young Urban English Additional Language (EAL) Learners* (Naudé, 2005). A language profile for preschool EAL learners in the research context will provide a tool for the speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers in collaborative practice to identify those multilingual learners who are at risk of language learning disabilities, and a means of obtaining guidelines for the development of an appropriate intervention programme.

A strength of the research method was the use of triangulation. *Data triangulation* was implemented where a variety of sample strategies was used (De Vos, 2002a:365) to reduce observer bias and enhance the accuracy of the information (Balagopalan, 2003:27). The data were collected from two different sources in an attempt to cross-validate the results, for example the questionnaire was completed by the preschool teachers and the multilingual preschool learners were assessed. To provide a detailed description of the learners' communicative abilities, *interdisciplinary triangulation* was employed (Janesick, 1998:47) where assessment information was obtained from multiple perspectives (the preschool teachers and a speech-language therapist) to broaden the understanding of the context and reduce the limitations of single-discipline perspectives (Mouton & Marais, 1990:42).

Although one of the strengths of the research was that care was taken to assess the multilingual preschool learners in an unbiased manner, without the application of normative data, the dynamic assessment approach could have minimised any inherent bias in the measuring instruments even further. By focusing on how learners learn, as well as on appropriate learning strategies for individual learners (Laing & Kamhi, 2003:48), the dynamic assessment model offers the potential for a fair and meaningful assessment of learners from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

A limitation of this study was that classroom observations of the multilingual learners were not included in the language and communication assessment process. To obtain a fully contextualised view of the linguistic demands in naturalistic contexts and the manner in which multilingual preschool learners use language, *onlooker observation* in the classroom may have been conducted to supplement the individual structured assessments and to obtain more comprehensive language samples (Nelson, 1998:206). In addition, an account by parents or caregivers on the learners' L1 development may have provided a more detailed picture of the multilingual preschool learners' language proficiencies, as assessment of the learners needs to take into account the entire context in which the learner is learning and developing (Tabors, 1997:159).

A further limitation of the study is that focus group discussions and interviews with the teacher participants were not included as this may have provided more qualitative data. As too much time has elapsed since the completion of the questionnaires, the participants as well as the context-specific characteristics may have changed, and data therefore may not be comparable.

Another limitation of the study was that phonological awareness in the multilingual preschool learners was not assessed. It was excluded because the communication assessment in Phase Two was based on research by Jordaan (1993) (as stated previously), who assessed receptive, expressive, and pragmatic skills in learners. In the initial discussions with the preschool

teachers, before the research was initiated, phonological awareness was also not identified by the teachers as an area of concern. However, the assessment of phonological awareness is of central importance when considering the relationship between the learners' oral language and literacy (Hoff, 2004:130). An important facet of language development was therefore not included in the research. As the preschool teachers in the research context could benefit from research information on phonological awareness, further research on this aspect of the multilingual preschool learners' language development is implicated.

Although the study involved a single context and the results could not be generalised, the significance of the study is that it added to the knowledge of language variation and language use in the specific context. The analyses of the learner participants' language and communication assessment provided valuable information on the learners' specific language needs and the characteristics of ELoLT errors displayed by the multilingual preschool learners. This study provides information on the essence of ELoLT trends in the context and based on the results, recommendations for a service delivery model for the acquisition of ELoLT could be proposed and initial stage intervention guidelines will be recommended. These recommendations and guidelines may provide suggestions for the manner in which the language learning process for the multilingual learners could be facilitated. The study therefore contributed to existing knowledge that could ultimately improve practice and make a useful contribution towards ELoLT acquisition in the research context.

7.5 CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The empirical results of the research have the following important implications:

- The urban environment of the research context presents education with specific problems, challenges, and opportunities, for example the enrolment of the multilingual preschool learners with no prior knowledge of

English in preschools with English as Medium of Instruction (Mol). These multilingual preschool learners need to be supported in their adaptation, not only to the unfamiliar language and learning environment, but often also to a different culture. The home and school environments may have diverse sets of rules, values, expectations, and behaviours, requiring an adaptation between these settings from the preschooler in order to function optimally.

The multilingual preschool learners require supportive intervention *in the preschool classroom* where they need to have adequate opportunities to use English. Activities in the preschool classrooms need to be planned to create abundant and diverse opportunities for talking and listening. The preschool classrooms need to provide a stimulating language-rich environment for language use in meaningful social interactions, with good models of English language use. Whenever possible, the multilingual preschool learner with no prior knowledge of English needs to be placed in a class with other learners speaking the same L1, in order to allow peer-tutoring (Meyers, 1993:86). As peer interaction may take a variety of forms, depending on the cultural background of the learners, such interactions may vary from highly verbal to a great deal of non-verbal physical contact (Viljoen & Molefe: 2001:123) which may present a challenge in terms of the teachers' tolerance of such behaviour.

- The preschool teachers in the research context regarded the support of parents or caregivers important in the learners' acquisition of ELoLT. White Paper 5 (RSA, 2001a:4) also encouraged the involvement of parents or caregivers with preschool learners' education. Co-operation, communication, and understanding between the parents or caregivers and the preschool teachers need to be encouraged to ensure the successful education of the multilingual preschool learners. Meaningful parental or caregiver participation in the acquisition of ELoLT therefore needs to be planned and managed by the preschool teachers, and parents or caregivers need to be included in the service delivery team of the learner acquiring ELoLT. There are, however, challenges to the process, and

barriers to successful parental or caregiver involvement may exist from the teachers' perspective or from the parents' or caregivers' perspective (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:89).

Personal contact with parents or caregivers needs to occur on a regular basis in order to share information and ideas, with the aim of improving the multilingual learners' learning experience and empowering parents or caregivers with some form of educational confidence to enable them to support the learners and reach well-informed decisions (Bosman, 2000:226). The parents or caregivers may also act as cultural resources to the preschool teachers, which may provide rich opportunities for parental or caregiver involvement and may be an effective way in which to achieve authentic cultural representation in the classroom.

- The preschool teachers need to incorporate cultural responsive experiences into the curriculum that value the multilingual learners' L1 and culture, as that will enhance interpersonal communication among learners and contribute to the learners' social and academic success. Through the identification and recording of, and reference to the multilingual preschool learners' cultural background, the preschool teachers may provide an accepting, secure classroom climate, sensitive to cultural and linguistic diversity (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:121).
- The changing and challenging multilingual school environment in South Africa demands a curriculum reform regarding multicultural and multilingual education in teacher training programmes, and the programmes need to be extended to in-service training for the existing teaching corps. Linguistic and cultural diversity therefore has implications for curriculum transformation (Louw, 2004:262). Teacher training programmes need to address both theory and practice in multicultural education in a comprehensive manner to allow pre-service teachers to become knowledgeable and confident about multicultural and multilingual issues in

education (Barry & Lechner, 1995:149). Heugh, Siegrühn and Plüddemann (1995:109) suggested a multilingually focused core curriculum for teachers' language education programmes, comprising four interrelated components, namely scholastic literacy and language proficiency endorsement, language awareness, language across the curriculum, and language as subject methodology.

- Although preschool education currently varies significantly in terms of quality (RSA, 2001a:14), the government recognises that independent preschools are here to stay (RSA, 2001a:19, 23, 37). However, independent preschool programmes need to be regulated and the quality of some independent preschool programmes needs to be controlled. To achieve this, preschools need to be registered with provincial departments of education and monitored through the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), which include Developmental Appraisal, Performance Measurement and Whole School Evaluation (RSA, 2003:3). In addition, Grade R teachers need to be registered with the South African Council of Educators, and, where necessary, preschool teachers need to undergo approved in-service training programmes. Such regulations will ensure quality education to preschool learners.
- To overcome the historical division between education support services and main stream education, where support has been directed at a limited number of learners in predominantly urban areas (RSA, 1997:3), more interdisciplinary research projects need to be conducted within the South African context of educational change and inclusive education. To meet the needs of all multilingual learners, interdisciplinary research needs to provide evidence-based guidelines to educational professionals on their changing role within education. Interdisciplinary research should seek solutions and solve problems to address local needs for the benefit of multilingual preschool learners.

- Tertiary institutions have a major responsibility to develop speech-language therapy students' knowledge of and exposure to the multicultural and multilingual population in the South African context. The Health Professional Council of South Africa currently demands this as prerequisite in the training curriculum of tertiary institutions (Singh, 2005:13). Training programmes need to include an increased amount of coursework, as well as clinical practicum where students have direct experiences with multicultural and multilingual clients across a variety of settings (Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:161). Training needs to focus on the provision of relevant support to multilingual clients with communication disorders. In addition, tertiary institutions need to actively recruit speech-language therapy students proficient in African languages to serve South Africa's multilingual population (Singh, 2005:13).
- Tertiary institutions need to develop collaborative interdisciplinary workshops on multilingualism as part of the Continuing Professional Development programmes for in-service speech-language therapists and preschool teachers (NAEYC, 1996:12; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:156). Workshop topics derived from the research results need to include, among others, Foundation Phase curriculum analyses, L2 acquisition theory, L2 assessment strategies, service delivery models for the acquisition of ELoLT, the respective professional roles within the curriculum, activities and strategies for use in classrooms with linguistically and culturally diverse learners, cultural competence, as well as teamwork and consultation skills.
- Speech-language therapists need to identify barriers to their expanded roles in multilingual preschools and try to overcome these obstacles. This may involve, among others, improving interpersonal communication with preschool teachers, as well as the marketing of their services (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:237). Speech-language therapists need to create an expectation that their services will add value to the curriculum activities and goals of the multilingual preschool classroom. Initially, they may have

to involve the preschool teachers in participatory action research to gain evidence that the collaborative consultation process is effective and indeed improves the multilingual learners' access to the curriculum (Struthers & Lewis, 2004:26).

- Speech-language therapists need to consider and negotiate service delivery models other than the traditional models with the preschool teachers. While initial trial-and-error experiences may be unavoidable, members of these two professions are encouraged to adopt the basic principles of collaborative consultation, and develop their own strategies to suit their unique situation (Drake, 1993:53). If both parties view this approach as an ongoing education process, it may enhance the probability of successful outcomes. Preschool teachers who volunteer - often those who are willing to innovate and take risks – need to be involved in collaborative consultation. Once the collaborative support team is established, they need to meet regularly and frequently to create linguistically, culturally, and developmentally appropriate programmes in collaboration. Apart from these meeting times, the speech-language therapist needs to be available for consultation on a daily base (Du Plessis, 1998b: 155; 156), and may have to support the preschool teacher in the implementation of the offered intervention guidelines, which are presented forthwith.

7.6 INTERVENTION GUIDELINES

The current research was initiated in response to the needs of a specific community, as discussed in Chapter One, Section 1.4. The preschool teachers specifically requested intervention guidelines for the basic level ELoLT learner. Based on the research results and a literature review, the following intervention guidelines for the initial stage of the acquisition of ELoLT are offered in Figure 7.2 for the basic level multilingual preschool learners in the research context.

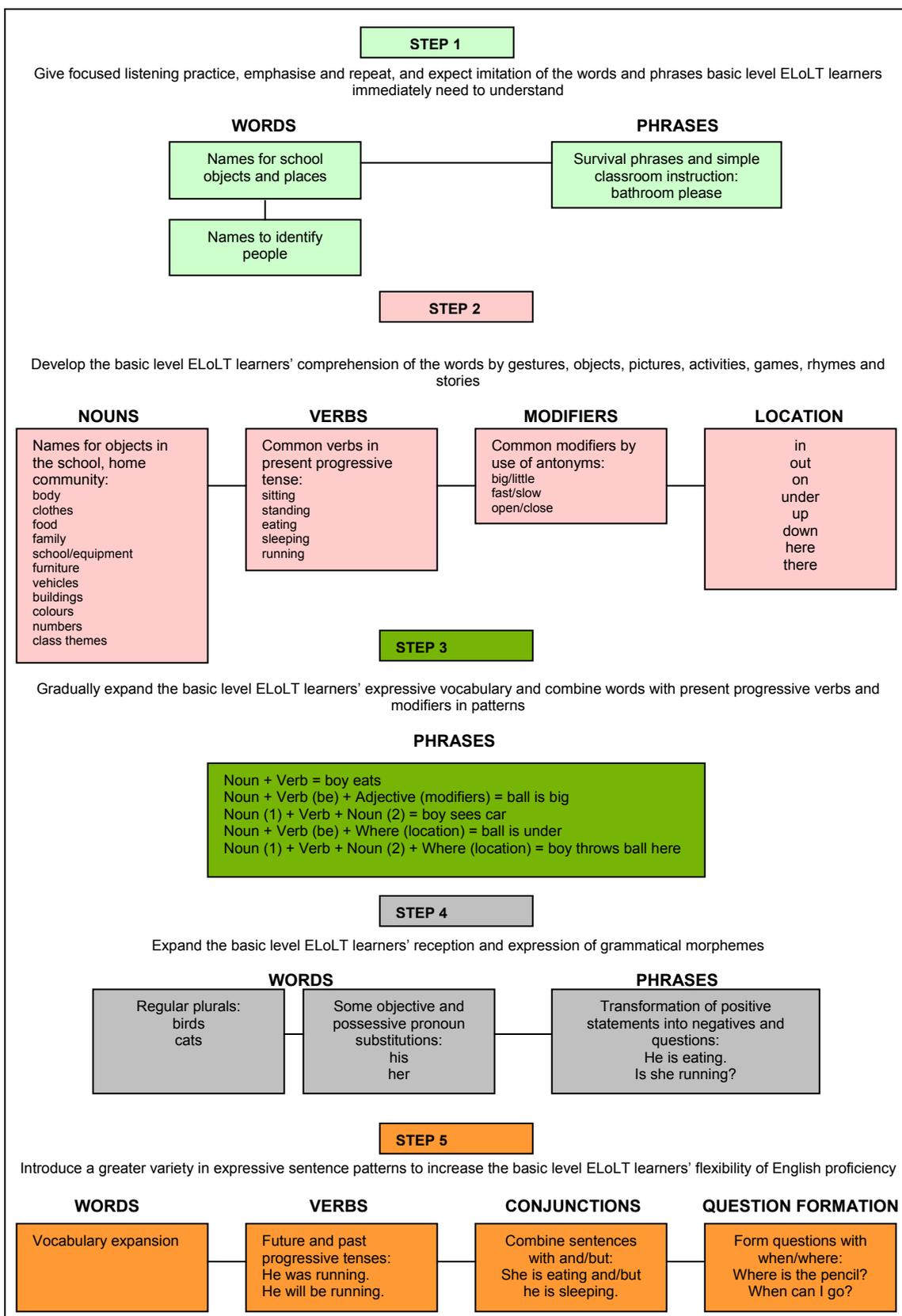


FIGURE 7.2: INTERVENTION GUIDELINES FOR THE INITIAL STAGE OF THE ACQUISITION OF ELolT IN THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

Sources: Hoff (2004:4); Owens (2001:208-211); Dawber and Jordaan (1999:36); Meyers (1993:87); Manolson (1992:64); Gillchrist (1981:148-152).

Figure 7.2 illustrates the intervention guidelines for the initial stage of the acquisition of ELoLT, and may assist the preschool teachers in planning the essential words the learners require to initiate their acquisition of ELoLT. The exact manner in which the preschool teachers structure their daily programmes to allow optimal opportunities for the acquisition of ELoLT needs also to be planned and may be discussed during consultations between the preschool teachers and the speech-language therapists.

The classroom as learning environment provides a framework for the acquisition of ELoLT and the preschool teachers and speech-language therapists need to plan together how to *structure classroom activities* to achieve ELoLT goals. Techniques to allow the multilingual learners discover communication functions may be planned (Norris & Damico, 1990:215), and the levels of cues and prompts, in particular, need to be determined to ensure that the multilingual learners participate in communication activities (Wilcox & Shannon, 1996:226). There are numerous strategies, such as the manipulation of the physical environment, that facilitate the acquisition of language skills. The three structures in the classroom that may be changed are the *environmental structure* (toys not too easily accessible, group size, routines, follow the learners' initiatives, incidental learning), the *learning structure* (questions, models, less information in model, prompts, time-delay), and the *teaching structure* (modify teachers' sentence length, facilitate language form, content, use) (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:187).

Furthermore, a *structured learning environment* needs to be created consisting of routines and daily lessons that are related and meaningful to the learners to support English vocabulary acquisition (Tiegerman-Farber, 1995:195). New vocabulary may therefore be introduced in familiar activities and routines (Meyers, 1993:87). The speech-language therapists and the preschool teachers need to collaborate in planning how to use routine activities to support the multilingual preschool learners' vocabulary, as summarised in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 illustrates how routinised activities may increase opportunity and motivation to communicate, and allow learners to act as members of the group. Many activities in the preschool classroom occur quite frequently and take on a routine structure. Within a given routine, the same events typically recur in the same order. As the multilingual learners learn what to expect within a specific routine, they pick up cues that support comprehension and the acquisition of ELoLT in time. However, the preschool classroom should not be over-structured, as the spontaneous learner-directed daily routines remain a valuable source of interaction and support the acquisition of ELoLT for the preschool learners (Jordaan, 1993:183).

TABLE 7.3 OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE ACQUISITION OF ELoLT IN THE MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL CLASSROOM

HIGHLY STRUCTURED ACTIVITIES (ADULT – DIRECTED)	LESS STRUCTURED ACTIVITIES (LEARNER – DIRECTED)
<p>Circle Time: Calling the learners' names, talking about the calendar, discussing the weather help the multilingual learners to predict the sequence of events and their responses. Repeated songs and movements reinforce learning. Allowing the learners to respond to the teachers' questions in unison may render them with confidence to respond.</p>	<p>Free Play: Make activities available, then encourage choice making, independent interaction with materials, social interactions with peers. The learners may be encouraged to make choices and decisions and act on own decisions. Picture symbols around the classroom for the learners with limited ELoLT proficiency.</p>
<p>Activity Time: While the learners are actively involved in exploring and learning about the environment and engaged in hands-on activities that introduce them to materials, concepts, and vocabulary, the adults may engage in <i>event casting or talking while doing</i>. The adults may rely on naturalistic communication techniques rather than directives.</p>	<p>Snack Time: Can benefit from adult-direction to develop and confirm vocabulary related to food being eaten. Presents opportunities to learn even when listening to interchanges of others. Promotes interaction by placing the proficient and less proficient learners together.</p>
<p>Story Time: To keep the multilingual learners engaged, the adults may employ short stories, small group reading, carefully chosen books, talk rather than read the story, repeat books, learners "read" to others. Create interest, excitement, understanding, and creative thinking.</p>	<p>Outside Time: Can benefit from adult-direction and structuring of environment to allow communication practice. The learners can work co-operatively during a game. Social interaction skills among the learners may be encouraged through group activities and dramatic play.</p>

Sources: Tabors, 1997:116-126; Wilcox and Shannon, 1996:225-226.

In the preschool classroom where ELoLT learners are in the majority, adult-directed activities need to be focused on the acquisition of ELoLT throughout the various daily routines. However, in the preschool classrooms with English L1 and ELoLT learners, these two groups may be separated for adult-directed

activities, but combined for learner-directed activities to allow peer group interaction (Jordaan, 1993:183).

The offered intervention guidelines for the initial stage of the acquisition of ELoLT may provide a basis for the planning of intervention strategies to the preschool teachers who were concerned about the education and future of the multilingual preschool learners. The guidelines may also provide the underpinnings for further research in the specific research context, for further exploration and confirmation of existing trends.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Research is rarely conclusive. In exploratory research, such as the current study, the researcher usually encounters additional problems that need resolving (Leedy & Ormrod, 2004:6). The findings of the current research led to the identification of new questions relating to the education of teachers, speech-language therapists, and parents or caregivers, as well as the provision of the most responsive environment to the multilingual learners. If these questions are to be answered, further research is required. This study may, however, serve as the underpinning for further research, and the following recommendations are made:

- A challenge to researchers is to differentiate between language differences and language disorders in multilingual learners (Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994:160). Currently various research projects in this field are underway, such as the study by Naudé (2005) profiling language in young urban EAL learners. Large-scale studies are needed to improve the English language proficiency assessment of Black South African multilingual learners, especially to determine the level of English proficiency required to participate in English-only instruction. Such studies may serve to develop psychometrically sound and practical assessments and assessment procedures that could be further developed into measuring instruments appropriate for assessing ELoLT learners in an unbiased manner (August & Hakuta, 1998:51).

- More in-depth studies exploring L2 acquisition by South African learners are required (Jordaan, 1993:186). As there is a considerable variation in the rate of L2 acquisition owing to individual and external influences (Jordaan, 2003), research-based information on external influences on L2 acquisition in the unique South African context is needed. Problems and issues facing some South African learners, such as deprivation and poverty, may differ markedly from those in developed countries (Lemmer, 1995:92). Understanding the external influences on the variability in L2 acquisition would be an important contribution to understanding the interaction between language and other domains of human functioning.
- Another important aspect that requires investigation is how the ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity of the South African population may be successfully incorporated into preschool Learning and Teaching Support Materials (Moodley et al., 2005:40). Pilot studies need to examine the influence of innovative classroom organisations and interventions, such as curriculum content, on multilingual preschool learners' view of themselves and other cultural groups, to promote cross-cultural friendships and positive regard. Such studies may provide guidelines to preschool teachers on how to adapt curriculum content to make it culturally relevant and appropriate (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:78), and how to embark on culturally sensitive educational practices in South Africa (Louw, 2004:266).
- Hadley et al. (2000:282) reported that bilingual learners in the United States of America (USA) as a group experienced problems in the area of phonological awareness and phonological processing – prerequisite literacy skills (Geva, 2000:15). Research findings also indicated that phonological processing skills in L1 are predictive of word recognition skills in L1 and L2 (Geva, 2000:20). In the South African context, research is needed on language/literacy relationships in the L1 and EAL literacy skills of multilingual learners. An intensive and extensive research effort is required to investigate variables which may clarify the differences in

literacy skills of multilingual learners. Such studies may provide information on the optimal English literacy instruction for multilingual learners of different ages, including learners whose parents are illiterate or not literate in English (August & Hakuta, 1998:31).

- As effective research into language in education requires a data base (Harlech-Jones, 1990:12), extensive research is needed to compile a South African linguistic atlas. The creation of a linguistic atlas is of particular importance because language relations vary from context to context. The classification of these variations may make a substantial contribution to rural decision-making on multilingual education. A linguistic atlas may identify the multilingual learners' L1, facilitating the support of L1 as a learning area or as the Medium of Instruction (Mol) (Harlech-Jones, 1990:13).

The results of the current research have provided guidelines and suggestions for further research with the aim to understand and support multilingual learners in the South African context.

7.8 FINAL COMMENTS

Speech-language therapists in South Africa are increasingly being called on to provide services to multilingual learners – a call for service that is not only legitimate, but also highly appropriate. To accelerate the acquisition of ELoLT in multilingual preschool learners, speech-language therapists need to move beyond the traditional models of service delivery, and expand and release their professional roles across disciplinary lines, as has been recommended in the literature for the past two decades and practised elsewhere in the world. Larger issues need to be considered, such as the comprehension of instructions in the ELoLT classroom without which communication breakdown may occur in many multilingual learners (Prelock, 2000:214). Speech-language therapists need to *communicate* with preschool teachers to identify and accommodate such areas of communication breakdown to the benefit of the multilingual learners. South African speech-language therapists therefore

need to become preventionists, collaborators, and interventionists to optimise their services to multilingual learners and to contribute to multilingual learners' future academic success.

This study adds to the growing body of literature on multilingualism in education and contributes to the debates on language in education practices in South Africa. The researcher personally believes that multilingual learners in South Africa could be empowered to reach functional levels in English and that English needs to be actively promoted, along with L1 development, starting in the preschool years. Ultimately, ELoLT learners need to achieve high standards in both L1 and English proficiency and literacy. While South Africa is in the process of building an inclusive education system, speech-language therapists are urged to work in collaboration with preschool teachers as a team to provide multilingual preschool learners with a solid foundation in L1 *and* English for lifelong learning and development.

With sufficient research evidence to support collaborative intervention, the time has arrived for South African speech-language therapists, working in educational settings, to mobilise and start working collaboratively with preschool teachers. With confidence in their own skills, the speech-language therapists need to expand their role into the preschool classroom and engage in a mutual process of sharing their knowledge and skills with others, and learning from others.

“Challenging SLPs [*speech-language pathologists*] to ‘Make it so’, requires that they take responsibility for their own destiny and not wait for others to make the necessary changes” (Ehren & Ehren, 2001:237).

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE NEEDS OF TEACHERS AND CAREGIVERS IN PRESCHOOL CENTRES WITH REGARDS TO MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS.

* (ESL) - English Second Language

Respondent number
Card number
Group

For office use

V1	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	01 - 03
V2		<input type="text"/>		04
V3	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>		05 - 06
V4		<input type="text"/>		07
V5		<input type="text"/>		08
V6		<input type="text"/>		09
V7			10	
V8			11	
V9			12	
V10			13	
V11			14	
V12			15	
V13			16	
V14			17	
V15			18	
V16			19	
V17		20		

1. PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK

1.1 What is your home language?

English	
Afrikaans	
IsiXhosa	
SeSotho	
SePedi	
SeTswana	
XiTsonga	
IsiNdebele	
SiSwati	
IsiZulu	
TshiVenda	
Other _____	

1.2 What other language can you speak?

English	
Afrikaans	
IsiXhosa	
SeSotho	
SePedi	
SeTswana	
XiTsonga	
IsiNdebele	
SiSwati	
IsiZulu	
TshiVenda	
Other _____	

For office use

1.3 What is your language of preference?

V18 21 - 22

1.4 What medium of instruction do you use in the class?

English	<input type="checkbox"/>
Afrikaans	<input type="checkbox"/>
English and Afrikaans	<input type="checkbox"/>

V19 23

1.5 Your age:

years

V20 24 - 25

1.6 What is your highest qualification?

Lower than matric	<input type="checkbox"/>
Matric	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Post-graduate qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>

V21 26

1.7 Length of teaching experience:

years

V22 27 - 28

1.8 Type of school at which you teach:

Private preschool	<input type="checkbox"/>
Government-subsidised preschool	<input type="checkbox"/>
NGO preschool	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playgroup	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other, specify _____	<input type="checkbox"/>

V23 29

1.9 How many children do you have in your class?

children

V24 30 - 31

1.10 Do you have multilingual (ESL) learners in your class?

Yes No

V25 32

For office use

1.11 How many multilingual (ESL) learners are in your class?

children

V26 33 - 34

1.12 How many learners in your class speak the following languages?

English	
Afrikaans	
IsiXhosa	
SeSotho	
SePedi	
SeTswana	
XiTsonga	
IsiNdebele	
SiSwati	
IsiZulu	
TshiVenda	
Other African languages _____	
Other European languages _____	

V27 35 - 36
 V28 37 - 38
 V29 39 - 40
 V30 41 - 42
 V31 43 - 44
 V32 45 - 46
 V33 47 - 48
 V34 49 - 50
 V35 51 - 52
 V36 53 - 54
 V37 55 - 56
 V38 57 - 58
 V39 59 - 60

1.13 How long have you taught multilingual (ESL) learners?

years

V40 61 - 62

1.14 How many learners in each age group do you currently teach?
Please tick all possibilities.

2 - 3 years old	
3 - 4 years old	
4 - 5 years old	
5 - 6 years old	
6 - 7 years old	

V41 63 - 64
 V42 65 - 66
 V43 67 - 68
 V44 69 - 70
 V45 71 - 72

2. PLEASE COMPLETE

If you have received any formal teacher training, what courses have you completed as part of your training regarding the multilingual learner?

V46 73 - 74
 V47 75 - 76
 V48 77 - 78

Respondent number

Card number

What courses have you completed regarding the multilingual learner, after your formal studies?

If you have attended any workshops on multilingualism, please specify.

If you have done any self-study on multilingualism, please specify.

Indicate in which way you collaborate with other teachers/ caregivers who have multilingual (ESL) learners in their regular classrooms.

Indicate in which way you collaborate with speech/language pathologists regarding the multilingual (ESL) learners in your class.

Do you at this stage feel competent in teaching multilingual (ESL) learners:

In all circumstances/activities	
In some circumstances/activities	
In most circumstances/activities	

For office use

V49 01 - 03

V50 04

V51 05 - 06

V52 07 - 08

V53 09 - 10

V54 11 - 12

V55 13 - 14

V56 15 - 16

V57 17 - 18

V58 19 - 20

V59 21 - 22

V60 23 - 24

V61 25 - 26

V62 27 - 28

V63 29 - 30

V64 31

For office use

3. HOW OFTEN DO THE MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS SHOW THE FOLLOWING?

	Often	Seldom	Never
Switching from one language to another			
Substituting English words with words from first language			
Inability to follow simple instructions (1 - 2 instructions)			
Inability to follow difficult instructions (2 - 4 instructions)			
Inability to answer questions			
Inability to follow a conversation			

V65	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
V66	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
V67	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
V68	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
V69	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
V70	<input type="checkbox"/>	37

	Often	Seldom	Never
Inability to understand a story			
Imitation of words without comprehension			
Use of learned expressions like "yes teacher" without comprehension			
Can answer questions in first language but not in English			
Cautious to answer - do not volunteer answers			
Social isolation/withdrawal because of inadequate language abilities			
Frustration because of inability to explain needs			
Use of gestures to supplement speech in order to make needs known			
Slow down class activities because of poor comprehension			
Do you experience any disciplining problems because of poor comprehension?			

V71	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
V72	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
V73	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
V74	<input type="checkbox"/>	41
V75	<input type="checkbox"/>	42
V76	<input type="checkbox"/>	43
V77	<input type="checkbox"/>	44
V78	<input type="checkbox"/>	45
V79	<input type="checkbox"/>	46
V80	<input type="checkbox"/>	47

4. HOW TRUE IS THE FOLLOWING ABOUT THE MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS IN YOUR CLASS? PLEASE TICK ALL APPROPRIATE ANSWERS.

	All	Some	None
They understand and use only a few English words			

V81	<input type="checkbox"/>	48
-----	--------------------------	----

	All	Some	None
They understand and use only English words used regularly at schools			
They understand and use English words related to experiences outside the school environment			
They have a large vocabulary and understand most of what is said to them.			
Their vocabulary is like that of a natural speaker of English			

For office use

V82	<input type="checkbox"/>	49
V83	<input type="checkbox"/>	50
V84	<input type="checkbox"/>	51
V85	<input type="checkbox"/>	52
V86	<input type="checkbox"/>	53
V87	<input type="checkbox"/>	54
V88	<input type="checkbox"/>	55
V89	<input type="checkbox"/>	56
V90	<input type="checkbox"/>	57
V91	<input type="checkbox"/>	58
V92	<input type="checkbox"/>	59
V93	<input type="checkbox"/>	60
V94	<input type="checkbox"/>	61
V95	<input type="checkbox"/>	62
V96	<input type="checkbox"/>	63
V97	<input type="checkbox"/>	64
V98	<input type="checkbox"/>	65
V99	<input type="checkbox"/>	66
V100	<input type="checkbox"/>	67

HOW OFTEN DO THE MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS EXPERIENCE PROBLEMS WITH THE FOLLOWING?

	Always	Often	Seldom	Never
The naming of common objects in the school, home and community				
The use of common verbs, for example run, sleep, eat, pull, push				
The comprehension of concepts, for example same/different				
The comprehension of time concepts, for example today, yesterday, tomorrow				
The comprehension of comparative concepts, for example bigger, smallest				
The knowledge of common shapes, for example circle, square, triangle				
The naming of colours				
The comprehension of abstract concepts, for example jealousy				
The comprehension of words with multiple meanings, for example orange, ball				
The comprehension of non-literal meaning as used in expressions, for example "here comes Tarzan"				
The comprehension of humour				
The answering of specific questions, for example who, what, where?				
The pronunciation of English words				
The correct use of intonation patterns, for example when asking questions				
The imitation of words				

Respondent number
Card number

For office use

V101	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	01 - 03
V102	<input type="text"/>			04
V103	<input type="text"/>			05
V104	<input type="text"/>			06
V105	<input type="text"/>			07
V106	<input type="text"/>			08
V107	<input type="text"/>			09
V108	<input type="text"/>			10
V109	<input type="text"/>			11
V110	<input type="text"/>			12
V111	<input type="text"/>			13
V112	<input type="text"/>			14
V113	<input type="text"/>			15
V114	<input type="text"/>			16
V115	<input type="text"/>			17
V116	<input type="text"/>			18
V117	<input type="text"/>			19
V118	<input type="text"/>			20
V119	<input type="text"/>			21
V120	<input type="text"/>			22

5. DO THE MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS DISPLAY ANY OF THE FOLLOWING WHEN SPEAKING ENGLISH?

	Always	Often	Seldom	Never
Use the correct word order in sentences				
Have the same length of sentences compared to their English-speaking classmates				
Can combine sentence with "and"				
Can combine sentences with words like but, because				
Use plurals correctly, for example shoes, birds				
Use difficult plurals correctly, for example mice				
Use "he" and "she" correctly				
Use determiners "the" and "a" correctly				
Use prepositions like on, in, under, behind correctly				
Use diminutive correctly, for example small duckling				
Use negatives correctly, for example not dirty				
Use nouns correctly, for example man, woman, boy, girl				
Use of adjectives and adverbs, for example big lorry or run fast				
Use more than one adjective, for example the <i>big red</i> lorry				
Use question words correctly, for example who, what, where?				
Use of correct tense form, for example "We <i>played</i> with the ball"				
Use contracted words, for example "I <i>didn't</i> do that" or "I <i>won't</i> go to school"				
Can make comparisons for example "My car is bigger than his"				

For office use

	Always	Often	Seldom	Never
Can use passive sentences correctly, for example "The boy is chased by the dog"				
Stress the correct word in sentences, for example "You can teach <i>him</i> nothing"				

V121	<input type="checkbox"/>	23
V122	<input type="checkbox"/>	24

6. HOW MANY OF YOUR MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS DISPLAY THE FOLLOWING?

	All	Some	None
Make eye contact when talking			
Comment on personal actions while these are happening, for example "I am eating my sandwich"			
Comment on the action of others			
Are able to give an accurate description of their personal experience			
Describe a sequence of events in the order in which they occurred			
Allow the person they are communicating with to speak and are able to listen without interrupting			
Start conversations with adults and other children			
Take turns during conversation			
Are able to talk about a topic of discussion over several sentences during a conversation			
Respond appropriately to simple questions			
Use language to get the attention of others			
Ask questions to obtain information about people, action and events			
Use language to tell others what to do			
Ask for clarification when they do not understand what others have said			
Can inform others of their personal needs, for example can tell what they want			
Can express feelings such as joy, fear and anger, using language			
Describe plans for events that will take place in the future			

V123	<input type="checkbox"/>	25
V124	<input type="checkbox"/>	26
V125	<input type="checkbox"/>	27
V126	<input type="checkbox"/>	28
V127	<input type="checkbox"/>	29
V128	<input type="checkbox"/>	30
V129	<input type="checkbox"/>	31
V130	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
V131	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
V132	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
V133	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
V134	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
V135	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
V136	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
V137	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
V138	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
V139	<input type="checkbox"/>	41

For office use

	All	Some	None
Express personal opinions and can provide a logical reason for their opinion			
Describe the solution to a problem			
Express imagination			
Greet people appropriately when they come or go			

V140	<input type="checkbox"/>	42
V141	<input type="checkbox"/>	43
V142	<input type="checkbox"/>	44
V143	<input type="checkbox"/>	45

7. INDICATE HOW OFTEN YOU USE THE FOLLOWING TECHNIQUES WITH THE MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS IN YOUR CLASS.

	Often	Seldom	Never
Simplify/rephrase your utterances			
Speak more slowly			
Repeat instructions			
Accentuate key words			
Repeat new vocabulary			
Use gestures			
Mime actions			
Adapt your lesson plan			
Present more pictures/visual material			
Repeat the learner's utterances			
Expand the learner's utterances			
Involve parents to help at home			
Do you use any other techniques?			

V144	<input type="checkbox"/>	46
V145	<input type="checkbox"/>	47
V146	<input type="checkbox"/>	48
V147	<input type="checkbox"/>	49
V148	<input type="checkbox"/>	50
V149	<input type="checkbox"/>	51
V150	<input type="checkbox"/>	52
V151	<input type="checkbox"/>	53
V152	<input type="checkbox"/>	54
V153	<input type="checkbox"/>	55
V154	<input type="checkbox"/>	56
V155	<input type="checkbox"/>	57
V156	<input type="checkbox"/>	58 - 59
V157	<input type="checkbox"/>	60 - 61
V158	<input type="checkbox"/>	62 - 63
V159	<input type="checkbox"/>	64 - 65

8. INDICATE WHETHER YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE

	Agree	Disagree	Unsure
Do you think it is necessary for a multi-lingual (ESL) learner to have a good base in his first language before learning a second language?			
Does second language development follow the same steps as first language development?			

V160	<input type="checkbox"/>	66
V161	<input type="checkbox"/>	67

For office use

	Agree	Disagree	Unsure
Do you think the parents of the multilingual (ESL) learner should change their home language to English?			
Do you think the comprehension of words precedes the use of words?			
Do you think the personality of a multilingual (ESL) learner affects the pace at which he learns a second language?			
Do you think the teacher/caregiver should know what the multilingual (ESL) learner's ability is in his first language?			
Do you think acquiring a second language will have a negative impact on the first language?			
Do you view multilingualism as an asset?			
Do you think the multilingual (ESL) learner will benefit if the teacher/caregiver could provide the synonym in his first language while teaching new English vocabulary?			
Do you think the multilingual (ESL) learner will benefit if culturally appropriate language activities could be included in the curriculum?			

V162	<input type="checkbox"/>	68
V163	<input type="checkbox"/>	69
V164	<input type="checkbox"/>	70
V165	<input type="checkbox"/>	71
V166	<input type="checkbox"/>	72
V167	<input type="checkbox"/>	73
V168	<input type="checkbox"/>	74
V169	<input type="checkbox"/>	75

Respondent number
Card number

V170	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	01 - 03
V171	<input type="checkbox"/>			04

9. INDICATE IF YOU NEED ANY OF THE FOLLOWING.

	Yes	No
Advice on how to handle the multilingual learner		
Workshops on multilingualism		
Formal training on multilingualism		
Assistance by a speech/language pathologist in planning language lessons		
Material to use in language lessons		
Professional help to evaluate the language needs of the multilingual learner		

V172	<input type="checkbox"/>	05
V173	<input type="checkbox"/>	06
V174	<input type="checkbox"/>	07
V175	<input type="checkbox"/>	08
V176	<input type="checkbox"/>	09
V177	<input type="checkbox"/>	10

WHAT WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE INCLUDED IN TRAINING COURSES ON MULTILINGUAL (ESL) LEARNERS?

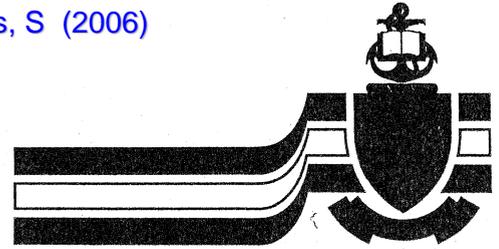
For office use

	Yes	No	Unsure
Language acquisition			
Second language learning			
Use of translators/interpreters			
Working with diverse families			
Sociolinguistics			
Cross-cultural communication			
Language and culture			
Community involvement			
Acquiring basic vocabulary in new language			
Habits and customs of different cultures			
Do you have any other suggestions for training courses?			

V178	<input type="checkbox"/>	11
V179	<input type="checkbox"/>	12
V180	<input type="checkbox"/>	13
V181	<input type="checkbox"/>	14
V182	<input type="checkbox"/>	15
V183	<input type="checkbox"/>	16
V184	<input type="checkbox"/>	17
V185	<input type="checkbox"/>	18
V186	<input type="checkbox"/>	19
V187	<input type="checkbox"/>	20
V188	<input type="checkbox"/>	21 - 22
V189	<input type="checkbox"/>	23 - 24
V190	<input type="checkbox"/>	25 - 26
V191	<input type="checkbox"/>	27 - 28
V192	<input type="checkbox"/>	29 - 30

APPENDIX B

INITIAL LETTER TO TEACHERS



University of Pretoria

Pretoria 0002 Republic of South Africa Tel (012) 4202357/4202816
Fax (012) 420-3517 <http://www.up.ac.za>

Department of Communication Pathology
Speech, Voice and Hearing Clinic

May 2000

Dear Teacher

There has been much discussion lately about the multilingual learner in the regular classes. Teachers seem to struggle to meet the needs of multilingual learners. The preschool teachers, especially, have a gruelling task of preparing the multilingual preschooler for formal schooling in English.

Kommunika (preprimary centre for the development of communication skills in young children) is currently researching this matter. As part of the research an equipment package will be developed which will assist preschool teachers in a multilingual setting to encourage and support the development of both home language and English second language.

The first step in this research is to identify the needs experienced by the preschool teachers. Your help in completing the attached questionnaire is of vital importance for the success of this research.

In order to permit you to answer as candidly as possible, your name need not appear anywhere on the questionnaire, and confidentiality is ensured. All that is required is your honest opinion and observations.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

S. du Plessis

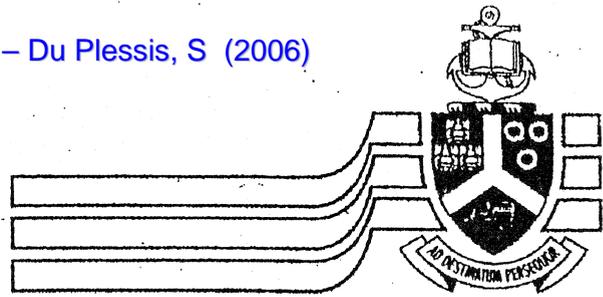
.....
SANDRA DU PLESSIS
RESEARCH ASSISTANT

E. Naudé

.....
ELSIE NAUDÉ
HEAD: KOMMUNIKA

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO TEACHERS



University of Pretoria

**Department of Communication Pathology
Speech, Voice and Hearing Clinic**

Tel : +27 12 420 2357

Fax : +27 12 420 3517

Email : enaude@postino.up.ac.za

August 2002

The Principal and Teachers
Participating preschools
PRETORIA

Dear Teachers

During May 2000 you took part in a research project about the multilingual learner in the preschool by completing a questionnaire. The analysis of the questionnaire provided information for part of our research. Other data was collected by evaluating multilingual preschool learners in the Sunnyside and Pretoria inner city areas.

The information obtained in this research is presently being analysed for two doctoral studies. The first study will set guidelines for a equipment package to enable preschool teachers to develop English second language in multilingual preschool learners. The second study aims to develop norms for language development in second language learners in order to identify potential problems early. The results of these two studies will be published and presented at seminars.

If you have any questions about the research you are welcome to contact the researchers at the address listed below.

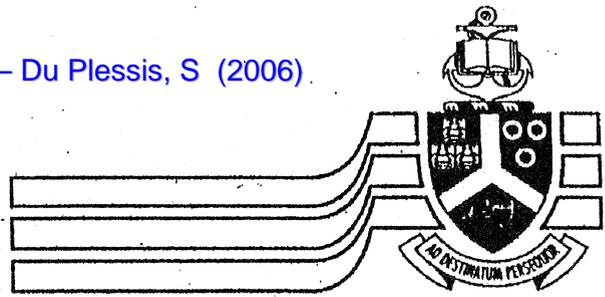
Please bring this to the attention of all those parents whose children were participants in the project.

Thank you once again for your participation.

Sandra du Plessis and Elsie Naudé
Department of Communication Pathology
University of Pretoria
PRETORIA
0002

APPENDIX D

**INFORMED CONSENT LETTER
TO PARENTS**



University of Pretoria

Department of Communication Pathology Speech, Voice and Hearing Clinic

Tel : +27 12 420 2357
Fax : +27 12 420 3517
Email : enaude@postino.up.ac.za

Dear Parents

At the Department of Communication Pathology at the University of Pretoria we are currently doing research on the development of English as a second language by preschool learners.

The information obtained in this research will be analysed for two doctoral studies. The first study will set guidelines for a equipment package to enable preschool teachers to develop English second language in multilingual preschool learners. The second study aims to develop norms for language development in second language learners in order to identify potential problems early. The results of these two studies will be published and presented at seminars.

We would like to ask your permission to let your child take part in this research.

If you agree, your child's English will be evaluated at the preschool by a speech-language therapist. There will be no cost involved. The results will be treated confidentially and your child's name will not appear in any publication.

This research is done with the approval of the schools' principal.

Please complete the attached letter of permission and return to the school as soon as possible.

If you have any questions about the research you are welcome to contact the researchers at the address listed below.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sandra du Plessis and Elsie Naudé
Department of Communication Pathology
University of Pretoria
PRETORIA
0002

LETTER OF PERMISSION

Parent's name: _____

Child's name: _____

Child's teacher: _____

I give permission for my child's language to be evaluated by Sandra du Plessis, research assistant of the University of Pretoria.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

I wish to receive a copy of the evaluation results for my child:

Yes

No

APPENDIX E

ERROR ANALYSIS FORM

THE LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION ABILITIES OF MULTILINGUAL PRESCHOOL LEARNERS AS ANALYSED BY A SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPIST

Respondent number
Card number
Group

PRAGMATIC BEHAVIOUR

COMMUNICATIVE INTENTS

1. Greeting
2. Request for object
3. Request for action
4. Request for information
5. Comment on object
6. Comment on action
7. Describing an event
8. Predicting
9. Hypothesizing
10. Denial
11. Making choices
12. Giving reasons
13. Closing

K1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	01 - 02
K2	<input type="checkbox"/>		03
K3	<input type="checkbox"/>		04
K4	<input type="checkbox"/>		05
K5	<input type="checkbox"/>		06
K6	<input type="checkbox"/>		07
K7	<input type="checkbox"/>		08
K8	<input type="checkbox"/>		09
K9	<input type="checkbox"/>		10
K10	<input type="checkbox"/>		11
K11	<input type="checkbox"/>		12
K12	<input type="checkbox"/>		13
K13	<input type="checkbox"/>		14
K14	<input type="checkbox"/>		15
K15	<input type="checkbox"/>		16
K16	<input type="checkbox"/>		17
K17	<input type="checkbox"/>		18
K18	<input type="checkbox"/>		19
K19	<input type="checkbox"/>		20
K20	<input type="checkbox"/>		21
K21	<input type="checkbox"/>		22
K22	<input type="checkbox"/>		23
K23	<input type="checkbox"/>		24
K24	<input type="checkbox"/>		25
K25	<input type="checkbox"/>		26
K26	<input type="checkbox"/>		27
K27	<input type="checkbox"/>		28
K28	<input type="checkbox"/>		29

CONVERSATIONAL DEVICES

14. Answering
15. Volunteering to communicate
16. Attending to the speaker
17. Taking turns
18. Acknowledging
19. Specifying a topic
20. Changing topic
21. Maintaining a topic
22. Asking conversational questions
23. Giving expanded answers
24. Requesting clarification
25. Clarifying

University of Pretoria etd – Du Plessis, S (2006)
WORD CLASSES AND RELATIONS

NOUNS

1. girl	K29	30
2. cat	K30	31
3. bird	K31	32
4. box	K32	33
13. half	K33	34
15. cross	K34	35
30. letters	K35	36
34. collection	K36	37
35. pair	K37	38

VERBS

5. jumping	K38	39
6. cutting	K39	40
19. drawing	K40	41
24. going	K41	42
25. giving	K42	43
38. ascending	K43	44
39. finishing	K44	45

MODIFIERS - QUALITY

8. blue	K45	46
9. little	K46	47
11. together	K47	48
18. round	K48	49
21. fast	K49	50
23. alike	K50	51
28. soft	K51	52
31. high	K52	53
40. elderly	K53	54

QUANTITY

22. four	K54	55
26. some	K55	56
27. many	K56	57
29. most	K57	58
36. equal	K58	59

DIRECTION	
14. up	K59 <input type="checkbox"/> 60
33. second	K60 <input type="checkbox"/> 61
37. left	K61 <input type="checkbox"/> 62

WORD RELATIONS	
7. a bird and a cat	K62 <input type="checkbox"/> 63
10. no eyes	K63 <input type="checkbox"/> 64
12. a girl jumping	K64 <input type="checkbox"/> 65
16. a large blue ball	K65 <input type="checkbox"/> 66
17. riding a little bicycle	K66 <input type="checkbox"/> 67
20. eating the fish	K67 <input type="checkbox"/> 68
32. a little bird eating	K68 <input type="checkbox"/> 69

Respondent number
Card number

K69	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	01 - 02
K70	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	03

**TACL
GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES**

PREPOSITIONS

- 1. The cat is in the box.
- 2. The cap is on the toothpaste.
- 5. The boy is beside the car.
- 6. The dog is in front of the car.
- 8. The cat is between the chairs.
- 11. The ball is under the book.
- 12. The rope is through the box.
- 15. The circle is around the car.
- 21. She is pointing at the pencil.

K71	<input type="text"/>	04
K72	<input type="text"/>	05
K73	<input type="text"/>	06
K74	<input type="text"/>	07
K75	<input type="text"/>	08
K76	<input type="text"/>	09
K77	<input type="text"/>	10
K78	<input type="text"/>	11
K79	<input type="text"/>	12

PRONOUNS - PERSONAL

- 14. She feeds her.
- 17. She jumped rope.
- 18. He rode the bicycle.
- 19. He feeds himself.
- 20. His dog is big.
- 23. The girl said, "We're eating popcorn."
- 24. The lady said, "This shoe is mine."
- 26. They swam.
- 27. Mother gave the ball to her.

K80	<input type="text"/>	13
K81	<input type="text"/>	14
K82	<input type="text"/>	15
K83	<input type="text"/>	16
K84	<input type="text"/>	17
K85	<input type="text"/>	18
K86	<input type="text"/>	19
K87	<input type="text"/>	20
K88	<input type="text"/>	21

DEMONSTRATIVE

- 13. Father said, "I have these."
- 25. The boy said, "I want this."

K89	<input type="text"/>	22
K90	<input type="text"/>	23

NOUN NUMBER - REGULAR

- 10. She feeds the birds.
- 22. The cat drank milk.

K91	<input type="text"/>	24
K92	<input type="text"/>	25

IRREGULAR

- 7. The man sees the children play.
- 30. The men ran.

K93	<input type="text"/>	26
K94	<input type="text"/>	27

NOUN CASE		
28. There is the baby elephant.	K95	28
33. There is the grandfather's clock.	K96	29
VERB TENSE		
4. The girl is jumping.	K97	30
29. The man painted the house.	K98	31
31. She sewed the dress.	K99	32
35. She is going to shop.	K100	33
38. She will hit the ball.	K101	34
39. The man has been cutting trees.	K102	35
40. She would have jumped.	K103	36
VERB NUMBER		
9. The fish are eating.	K104	37
37. The deer is drinking.	K105	38
NOUN VERB - AGREEMENT		
32. The fish swim away.	K106	39
36. The deer eats apples.	K107	40
DERIVATIONAL - SUFFIXES		
3. The farmer is big.	K108	41
16. Show me the shortest man.	K109	42
34. Here is the pianist.	K110	43

Respondent number	University of Pretoria etd – Du Plessis, S (2006)
Card number	

K111	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	01 - 02
K112	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	03

**TACL
ELABORATED SENTENCES**

INTERROGATIVES

- 1. Who is by the table?
- 13. When do you sleep?
- 23. The man said, "Can you reach it?"
- 25. With what do you eat?
- 30. Mother said, "Is it raining?"

K113	<input type="text"/>	04
K114	<input type="text"/>	05
K115	<input type="text"/>	06
K116	<input type="text"/>	07
K117	<input type="text"/>	08

NEGATIVES

- 4. It's not round.
- 5. The man isn't drinking.
- 8. It's not a cup.
- 11. She wouldn't ride on the clown's horse.

K118	<input type="text"/>	09
K119	<input type="text"/>	10
K120	<input type="text"/>	11
K121	<input type="text"/>	12

VOICE - ACTIVE

- 6. The mother kisses the baby.
- 14. The boy pushes the girl.

K122	<input type="text"/>	13
K123	<input type="text"/>	14

PASSIVE

- 16. The boy is chased by the dog.

K124	<input type="text"/>	15
------	----------------------	----

DIRECT/INDIRECT OBJECT

- 17. She takes the puppy to the boy.
- 28. She shows the girl the boy.

K125	<input type="text"/>	16
K126	<input type="text"/>	17

COORDINATION

- 3. The girls are eating and watching TV.
- 2. The man and the boy ate popcorn.
- 7. The boy rode his bicycle home, and his sister went home in the car.
- 9. The lady is eating a banana, and the man is drinking milk.
- 26. Neither the girl nor the boy is swinging.
- 29. She wanted a blouse, however, she got a skirt.
- 36. The girl asked her father to throw her the ball, but he didn't.

K127	<input type="text"/>	18
K128	<input type="text"/>	19
K129	<input type="text"/>	20
K130	<input type="text"/>	21
K131	<input type="text"/>	22
K132	<input type="text"/>	23
K133	<input type="text"/>	24

SUBORDINATION

- 10. While the girl saw the movie, she ate some popcorn.
- 18. After he cut her hair, the hair stylist took a coffee break.
- 20. Before taking the packages to the post office, he had to wrap them.
- 21. He couldn't reach it although he was tall.

K134	<input type="text"/>	25
K135	<input type="text"/>	26
K136	<input type="text"/>	27
K137	<input type="text"/>	28

SUBORDINATION		
24. Besides the baseball glove, she bought a record.	K138	29
27. Reading, the boy fell asleep.	K139	30
31. Having put her coat in the closet, she took off her shoes.	K140	31
32. If her other had baked a cake, the girl would have gone to the party.	K141	32
33. Before she jumped in the pool, the girl waved to her mother.	K142	33
37. Had it been possible, he would have ridden in the car or on the bicycle.	K143	34

EMBEDDING		
12. The lady who was standing on the corner by the hamburger stand called to the taxi driver who was driving by.	K144	35
15. The boy who was laughing saw the girl.	K145	36
19. Mary, her daughter, drank some milk.	K146	37
22. The man spoke to the little girl's mother, who was in the car.	K147	38
34. The boy the dog watched was eating.	K148	39
35. The boy called the girl with the baseball cap.	K149	40
38. The baby the woman held clapped her hands.	K150	41
39. The boy the girl pulled had on a baseball cap.	K151	42
40. The policeman the waitress with the white cap served was holding some coffee.	K152	43

Respondent number Card number	K153 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 01 - 02 K154 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 03							
KLST								
1. Stating name Stating surname (last name)	K155 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 04 K156 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 05							
2. Stating age - verbally Stating age - gestural response	K157 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 06 K158 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 07							
3. NAMING COLOURS Red Blue Yellow Green	K159 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 08 K160 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 09 K161 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 10 K162 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 11							
4. COUNTING WITH POINTING 1 - 2 1 - 4 1 - 5 1 - 7 1 - 10	K163 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 12 K164 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 13 K165 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 14 K166 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 15 K167 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 16							
5. BODY PART IDENTIFICATION eyes nose ears chin knee elbow ankle	K168 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 17 K169 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 18 K170 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 19 K171 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 20 K172 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 21 K173 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 22 K174 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 23							
6. FOLLOW COMMANDS 1 - step command 2 - step command 3 - step command	K175 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 24 K176 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 25 K177 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 26							
PREPOSITION IDENTIFICATION 7. in 8. between 9. around	K178 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 27 K179 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 28 K180 <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table> 29							

10. NAMING PREPOSITIONS			
on	K181	<input type="checkbox"/>	30
under	K182	<input type="checkbox"/>	31
next to/beside	K183	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
STATING DIFFERENCES			
11. apple/banana	K184	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
12. bird/dog	K185	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
STATING SIMILARITIES			
13. milk/juice	K186	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
14. car/bike	K187	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
15. SENTENCE IMITATION			
a. "Lori went to the store and got us some candy."	K188	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
b. "Johnny will give your the red ball if you want it."	K189	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
c. "Don't cross the street without looking both ways."	K190	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
d. "What is he doing?"	K191	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
16. Picture arrangement	K192	<input type="checkbox"/>	41

**ITPA
GRAMMATIC CLOSURE**

PREPOSITIONS

2. on	K193	<input type="checkbox"/>	42
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PLURALS - REGULAR

1. dogs	K194	<input type="checkbox"/>	43
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5. dresses	K195	<input type="checkbox"/>	44
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30. leaves	K196	<input type="checkbox"/>	45
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PLURALS - IRREGULAR

17. men	K197	<input type="checkbox"/>	46
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22. feet	K198	<input type="checkbox"/>	47
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23. sheep	K199	<input type="checkbox"/>	48
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28. women	K200	<input type="checkbox"/>	49
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31. children	K201	<input type="checkbox"/>	50
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32. mice	K202	<input type="checkbox"/>	51
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DEGREES OF COMPARISON

15. bigger	K203	<input type="checkbox"/>	52
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16. biggest	K204	<input type="checkbox"/>	53
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20. more	K205	<input type="checkbox"/>	54
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21. most	K206	<input type="checkbox"/>	55
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24. better	K207	<input type="checkbox"/>	56
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25. best	K208	<input type="checkbox"/>	57
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EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE TYPE OF ERROR	
Use of noun + pronoun (complement)	K209 58
Idiosyncratic use of pronouns	K210 59
Omission of pronoun/noun in subject position	K211 60
Omission of noun in predicate positions	K212 61
Regular and irregular plural errors	K213 62
Use of generic terms (this one/that one/others/that thing)	K214 63
CONFUSION OF 3rd PERSON FORMS OF PRONOUN:	
a) Gender confusion of pronouns (he/she)	K215 64
b) Refers to inanimate object as he/she	K216 65
Omits possessive inflection of noun	K217 66
VERB ERRORS TYPE OF ERRORS	
Use of compound past tense: did + -ed	K218 67
Extension of progressive aspect of stative verb	K219 68
Extension of progressive to habitual actions/past tense	K220 69
Present instead of past tense	K221 70
Omission and inconsistent marking of 3rd person	K222 71
Incorrect sequence of tenses in discourse and complex sentences	K223 72
Omission of copula	K224 73
Lack of agreement between subjects and 'be' verbs	K225 74
Overuse of regular past tenses	K226 75
Overuse/omission of aux. verbs	K227 76
Incorrect choice of verb/generic verb to describe action (eg. did)	K228 77
Omission of verb	K229 78
Omission of -ing/"going to"	K230 79

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Respondent number Card number </div>	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K231</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">01 - 02</td> </tr> <tr> <td>K232</td> <td style="text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="text-align: right;">03</td> </tr> </table>	K231	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			01 - 02	K232	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			03
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PREPOSITIONAL ERRORS											
TYPE OF ERRORS											
Incorrect choice of preposition	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K233</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">04</td> </tr> </table>	K233	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			04					
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Omission of preposition	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K234</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">05</td> </tr> </table>	K234	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			05					
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Overuse of preposition	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K235</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">06</td> </tr> </table>	K235	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			06					
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ERRORS OF ARTICLE/DETERMINER											
TYPE OF ERROR											
Omission of articles	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K236</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">07</td> </tr> </table>	K236	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			07					
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COMPLEX SENTENCE ERRORS											
TYPE OF ERROR											
Overuse of "and", "then", "and then"	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K239</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">10</td> </tr> </table>	K239	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			10					
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Compares without comparative "er" or comparative word	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K240</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">11</td> </tr> </table>	K240	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			11					
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Problems to sequence utterances in personal experience narratives	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K241</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">12</td> </tr> </table>	K241	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			12					
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INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS											
TYPE OF VARIATION											
Invent words	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K243</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">14</td> </tr> </table>	K243	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			14					
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Indiscriminate use of dialectal terms	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K244</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">15</td> </tr> </table>	K244	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			15					
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Use "gonna" instead of "going to"	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">K245</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 70%; text-align: right;">16</td> </tr> </table>	K245	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 20px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> </table>			16					
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**COMMUNICATIONAL OBSERVATIONS
TYPE OF OBSERVATION**

No response	K246	□	17
Non verbal response	K247	□	18
Answers restricted to yes/no	K248	□	19
Answers in single words	K249	□	20
Gestures	K250	□	21
False starts	K251	□	22
Incomplete sentences	K252	□	23
Substitute words from other languages	K253	□	24
Answers inappropriately	K254	□	25
Many prompts necessary	K255	□	26
Meaningful sounds	K256	□	27
Repetition of words	K257	□	28
Repetition of phrases	K258	□	29
Repetition of sentences	K259	□	30
Answer's "I don't know"	K260	□	31
Problems with word order	K261	□	32
Inadequate vocabulary	K262	□	33

APPENDIX F

**TRANSCRIBED ELICITED
LANGUAGE SAMPLE**

LEARNER PARTICIPANT S25

1. Birthday party

No.	Researcher	S25	Remarks
1	Tell me a story about this picture	There was a birthday	
1.1		And the girl blowing the ... the candles	
1.2		And this boy said pfft	Blows
1.3		And the girl holding like this	
1.4		And this one he want the cake	
1.5		And the, and the, and the cat he sit in, in, in this girl his chair	
1.6		There was a present down here	
1.7		And the dog, he want to open the present	
2	I wonder what's in there	NR	
3	What do you think, what's in there?	NR	
4	What are they going to do now?	After they're going to take the cake and ...	Demonstrates cutting
5	Cut it?		Nods
5.1		And was a balloons there	
6	Lovely ... and what can they do when they've finished eating?	They're going to play	
7	And what can they play?	Anything	
8	Have you had a birthday party?		Nods
9	At your house?	No	
10	Where?	At school	
11	What did you do?	I did give children my cake - me and my friends - it was Stacey	
12	What did you cake look like?	A teddy bear	
13	That's nice! Who made the cake?	Teacher Anita	
14	Did you buy it from her?	Yes	
15	Tell me, what games did you play at your party?	And then, and the other, my friend, she did buy me another cake	
16	Lovely, did you get any presents?	Yes	
17	What did you get?	That thing for ... happy birthday	
17.1		And a Barbie-house	
18	Who gave you the Barbie-house?	My Mommy did buy it	
19	Did you play any games?	They didn't buy me gifts	

2. Conversation (Going to the doctor)

No.	Researcher	S25	Remarks
20	Have you ever been to the doctor?	Yes	
21	What was wrong? Tell me about it	My throat, she was sore	
21.1		And, and my, my here, he was sore	Indicates head
22	Your head ... and what did the doctor do?	And the doctor said: must go down, and give me and medicine	
23	Did he first examine you?	Yes	
24	What did he do?	He lie me at the bed and he check my stomach	
24.1		And I say "uuh"	Deep breath
24.2		He said I must do like that uhuh	
25	So he saw that your throat was sore?	Yes	
26	Are you better now?	My mommy will phone the doctor and they said they must take me out the tonsils	
27	Are they going to take out your tonsils?	Yes	
28	Have they already done that? Do you still have your tonsils?	Yes	
29	So you will have to go to the hospital. Have you ever been to the hospital?		Nods
30	What happened?	I don't remember	
31	Do you have a brother or a sister?	A brother and a sister	
32	Lucky girl. Do you ever fight with them?	No	
33	What do you do with them?	I want, I says, when my mommy is go, né, when she go and at work, né, I said: sister, I want food and he give me food	
34	She's looking after you	Yes	
35	That's great. Did you ever get a plaster?		Nods
36	What happened?	Here was sore	Points
37	What made it so sore?	Here, there was a thing, né	
37.1		I didn't see it, né	
37.2		And so, my mommy give me a bandage	
38	And is it better now?		Nods