Bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use while learning English as an additional language

By

Amy Catherine Farndale

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The de Lissa Early Childhood and Family Studies Research Group

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Glossary and Acronyms

AEDI Australian Early Development Index

AEDC Australian Early Development Census

Bilingual preschooler – a three to five-year-old child who attends preschool and is regularly *exposed* to communication in two languages.

CALD Culturally and linguistically diverse

DECD Department for Education and Child Development

EAL English as an additional language (draws attention to *adding* English)

EALD English as an additional language or dialect (draws attention to Aboriginal English dialects)

ECW Early childhood worker (non-teacher educator; may or may not be bilingual)

ECWB Early childhood worker (bilingual)—hired for the bilingual program

EFL English as a foreign language

ELLs English language learners

ESL English as a second language (the term used prior to EAL)

LBOTE Language background other than English (draws attention to the first language)

Lingua franca – communication in English as the common language between speakers of different first languages

LKO Less knowledgeable other (with regards to productive English speaking ability)

LKOs (plural as per above)

LOTE Languages other than English

Majority-minority – a minority group which is most common

Minority language – a language spoken by few people in society

MKO More knowledgeable other (with regards to productive English speaking ability)

MKOs (plural as per above)

Preschooler A child who attends preschool* (also referred to as kindergarten or kindy)

SFL Systemic functional linguistics – a theory surrounding language use

SLA Second language acquisition – a field of study on second or additional language learning

Target language – the language intentionally learned (in this study it is English)

WTC Willingness to communicate

ZPD Zone of proximal development

*It is noted that some of the terms used in the present thesis may change in the future as new terms evolve and are preferred.

Notes for reader

- Double speech marks "…" are used in this thesis to identify participants' spoken speech and auditory voices, whereas single quotation marks '…' are used to identify quotes from written texts such as referenced literature or questionnaire responses
- The letters "vvv" indicates a Vietnamese utterance
- The letters "kkk" indicates a Khmer utterance
- Highlighted speech surrounded by the letters 'v' on either side of an English utterance identifies the English translation (as provided by an interpreter) of Vietnamese utterances.
- Participants' utterances are typed in the text as they sounded phonetically to the researcher when transcribing the utterances. Note that there are deliberate spelling errors, omissions or grammatical inaccuracies within the transcripts. Clarifications of children's intended messages are provided in brackets, accompanying the original transcriptions, to provide a clearer grammatically correct/appropriately articulated interpretation fitting the context of the utterances.
- There are deliberate colour codings throughout the thesis to indicate participants' first languages, the language functions in charts and forms of data organisation when categorising social, emotional, and functional language information in the thesis.
- Many images are blurred or distorted, particularly photographs which reveal children's faces. The blurring aimed to reduce the potential for children to be identified (considering the achievements of modern technology in facial recognition over the internet) and to uphold the right to anonymity of the young participants whose parents signed consent for image use on their behalf.
- The symbol * indicates a note in text.

Abstract

In Australia, over 300 languages are spoken by children. In some preschools as many as 70% of three to five-year-olds are learning English as an additional language (EAL). This was the case at Gumtree Preschool, where the present descriptive case study aimed to develop in-depth understanding of the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use of bilingual preschoolers. Research investigating how children's emotions and their relationships with their interlocutors impact upon what they say is limited. Yet, the Australian Early Development Census recently identified bilingual five-year-olds (those not proficient in English) as vulnerable in social, emotional, and communication domains. Research has indicated that emotions motivate action (speaking), and sometimes inaction (not speaking). However, research exploring bilingual children's functional language use provides little information on the socio-emotional context influencing children's speech—even though understanding how children use language in different social and emotional contexts can inform curriculum, programming, and educators' practices to support children learning to speak EAL. The study, therefore, explores this problem, along with educators' strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use.

This interpretive study explores four bilingual preschoolers' experiences over six months. Data collection involved observations, interviews, questionnaires, and document collection, with focus children, parents, and educators. Reflective journaling and memoing were employed and NVivo was utilised to code data and identifying themes. Two of the focus children encountered bilingually-matched educators and peers at preschool, the other two children did not. The study was guided by social interactionist principles incorporating Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) and more knowledgeable other (MKO) concepts to identify with whom the bilingual preschoolers interacted regularly and the affordances of such interactions. Children's English language use was analysed in terms of Halliday's functional language perspective to identify children's expressions of seven initial language functions. Data were also thematically analysed to identify how preschoolers' emotional challenges and social interactions influenced their productive speech, and how social and emotional aspects related to children's context of situation (incorporating Halliday's field, tenor and mode).

Social themes that emerged from the data highlighted children's balancing of their emergent bilingualism (using both languages), branching-out challenges (complications when children played with English-speaking peers additional to peers in their bilingually-matched social group), and the valuable contribution of a less knowledgeable other (LKO) peer who

prompted productive language. Emotional themes noted children's shyness with adults as well as separation challenges during transitions to preschool. Functional language themes identified the high frequency of informative utterances and the minimal production of questioning. Relationships among the children's social interactions, emotional experiences, and functional language use were also evidenced, supporting the claim that language is influenced by context. Ten variously qualified educators—a director, three teachers (one bilingual), two early childhood workers (one bilingual), two bilingual support early childhood workers, and a language and communication support educator—identified strategies to support bilingual children. Strategies included facilitating social interactions in first languages and English, developing relationships and trust, and employing forced-choice questioning.

Implications for policy include hiring bilingually-matched educators (particularly when bilingual children start preschool) and adding the intentional scaffolding of questioning to the preschool curriculum. Recommendations for future research include intervention studies that explore explicit teaching of questioning and pairing language learners with LKOs to encourage speech. Theoretical extensions of Halliday's initial functions and Vygotsky's ZPD are proposed. Continued exploration of the relationship between social interactions, emotions, and functional language use—in association with the context of situation—is recommended.

Declaration

This thesis presents work carried out by myself and does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; to the best of my knowledge it does not contain any materials previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; and all substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, are clearly acknowledged.

Amy Catherine Farndale 18 October 2017

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A PhD is a team effort.

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I thank you for challenging me to challenge myself.

We did it!

1. The Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Learning to speak a language is a complex process which is influenced by speakers' emotions, the people they interact with, and their purposeful need to communicate (Halliday 2004; Swain 2013; Vygotsky 1962, 1978). Initial purposes, or functions, for communicating in early childhood include using language to: express wants (instrumental), command (regulatory), interact with others (interactional), talk about oneself (personal), question (heuristic), role-play or sing (imaginative), and inform others (informative) (Halliday 2004). A person's emotions and social interactions can impact on what one says as they shape the 'context of situation' (Halliday 2004) surrounding their functional speech. Little research, however, has investigated a tripartite focus on social, emotional, and functional aspects of bilingual preschoolers' language learning.

The following sub-sections of this introductory chapter develop a case for research on this under-developed topic by first reporting on the growth of bilingual populations in numerous dominant English-speaking countries. The term, 'bilingual preschooler', is then defined prior to describing the early childhood context in Australia. Concerns surrounding Australian bilingual preschoolers' emotional, social, and communicative development are later discussed, as a source of the research problem. Details of the current state of research involving bilingual children and their educators internationally are then provided. The need for the current study, which combines focus on all three social, emotional, and functional language aspects, is presented. The central research questions driving the thesis are:

1. What social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?

2. What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

Functional language refers to the purposes for which children use language.

1.2 Bilingual populations

Bilinguals (users of two languages) can be considered common worldwide considering '[o]ver 70% of the world population speaks more than one language' (Clarke 2009, p. 10). In Australia, the US, UK, and New Zealand, English is the dominant language spoken by the majority, although language diversity is reportedly on the rise. In the US, where English is the official language, it is predicted that by 2030 as many as 40% of the school-aged population will speak home languages other than English (Magruder, Hayslip, Espinosa & Matera 2013, p. 9). Also in England, over a million school pupils speak languages in addition to English (NALDIC 2016), and in New Zealand, where official languages are English, Māori, and NZ sign language, 18.6% of the population spoke more than one language in 2013 (Statistic New Zealand 2016). The Australian population is similarly diverse, with speakers of languages other than English (LOTE) increasing to more than one in five people or 21% (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2017). In South Australia, where this present study is situated, there has also been a steady increase in school children, over the past 15 years, who speak English as an additional language or dialect (EALD) (as shown in **Figure 1-1**).

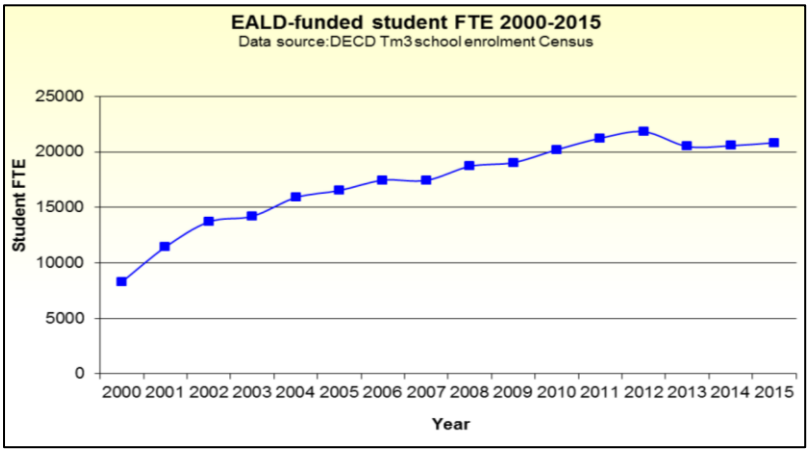


Figure 1-1: The EALD population in South Australian Schools (DECD 2016a, p. 2)

*Permissions was granted to use the DECD graph in this thesis publication

In 2015 in South Australia, 21,000 students were identified as speaking EALD (DECD 2015, p. 28). Bilingualism and multilingualism is on the rise in many countries around the world, and as many as a third of all children in early childhood programs in Australia speak a first language other than English (Cabezas & Rouse 2014, p. 57). Some children speak more than two languages and are hence multilingual. Debate exists over the definition of a '*bilingual*' person, as some traditionally considered a bilingual as a person who is a fluent speaker with 'native-like control of two languages' (Bloomfield 1933, p. 56). The question of just how much language knowledge a person needs in both languages to be considered bilingual is inconclusive. In this study, the term '*bilingual children*' is used to define children who are

regularly exposed to the 'need' to use two languages. Clarke (2009, p. 9) explains that '[b]ilingualism is the ability to use two languages, and involves both understanding and speaking, not necessarily with the same degree of fluency, but in either language'. Tabors (2008) similarly defines a '*bilingual*' as a person who is regularly exposed to two or more languages but who is not necessarily a competent speaker of both of them. This definition takes into consideration people who are new to learning a particular language, or '*incipient bilinguals'* (Diebold 1961, p. 99). Hall (2001, p. 5) defines bilingual children as children

> 'who live in two languages, who have access to, or need to use, two or more languages at home and at school. It does not mean that they have fluency in both languages or that they are competent and literate in both languages.' (Hall 2001, p. 5)

An *emergent bilingual* is another term used to describe a person who is beginning to communicate in their additional language (Tabors, Páez & Heise-Baigorria 2008). In this study, the term '*bilingual preschooler*' is used to describe children who speak a first language other than English who are undergoing the process of needing to and learning to communicate in English during preschool.

Experts have suggested that bilingualism and proficiency in English is best represented by a continuum (Hornberger 2004 p. 158). This means a person may have a level of understanding ranging from being newly exposed to an additional language, to having receptive understanding of an additional language, to being socially productive in speaking in an additional language, to finally having advanced academic and intellectual fluency in an additional language. The continuum is depicted in **Figure 1-2**.

Figure 1-2: Example of a bilingual continuum

The concept of '*sequential*' or '*successive*' bilingualism has been established to identify a person who has originally learned one language, and then after the age of three has been introduced to another language (McLaughlin 1984, p. 101). '*Simultaneous bilingualism'*, on the other hand, occurs when a child is exposed to two or more languages prior to turning three years of age. In the simultaneous bilingual situation, a child learns both languages during the same period, prior to age three. However, children can be difficult to distinguish as either simultaneous or successive bilinguals as they may have had only minimal English

exposure in infancy, in which case they might lie somewhere on a continuum between simultaneous and sequential/successive.

In recent years, the term 'English as an *additional* language (EAL)' has replaced 'English as a *second* language (ESL)', a term traditionally used in *second language acquisition* (SLA) research. This modern term, '*English as an additional language*', suggests that the learning of English ideally be added to children's current language repertoires. Contemporary views of bilingual learning now promote and value first language maintenance and the *addition* of English (Clarke 2011; Tabors 2008). Scholars no longer see bilingualism as a deficit and encourage educators to support the development of children's multilingual resources. In the past, educators commonly suggested to parents that children drop their minority languages and prioritise English, due to pressures of assimilation (Wong Fillmore 1991). Children were traditionally viewed from an English-dominant perspective in educational systems, and were consequently considered as under achieving.

1.2.1 The Australian bilingual context

A central factor prompting pedagogical change in the field of early childhood education is the increase in bilingual preschoolers in Australia and other countries. In 2013, there were 305 languages reported as spoken nationally in Australian schools (AEDI 2013b). This increased to 331 in 2015 (AEDC 2015b). Some of the most common languages other than English in Australia are: Mandarin, Italian, Arabic, Cantonese, Greek, Vietnamese, Tagalog, Spanish, Hindi, German, Korean, Punjabi, Macedonian, Dari, and to a lesser extent, Khmer (id. the population experts 2017a). A large portion of languages represented in Australia's linguistically diverse population are also Australian Indigenous languages (n=126) (AEDC 2015b); however, following the dominant impact of English since the colonial-period, many of Australia's Indigenous languages have been lost as a result of linguicide (Zuckermann, Shakuto-Neoh & Quer 2014, p. 55).

Australia has a history of the death of languages, due to the favouring of English. A result of the historic *White Australia Policy*, or more accurately, policies such as the *Immigration Restriction Act* (1901) and *Assimilation* policies, a European and British-Australia has been prioritised in the past and populations have been deterred from speaking Indigenous languages in favour of speaking English (Smolicz & Secombe 2003). The prioritisation of English has been a dominating force in Australia for over two centuries. Traditionally, Indigenous Australians had spoken a multitude of languages on the land for thousands of centuries. However, for over a century, Australia has been considered to be a monolingual speaking country where the population predominantly speaks English (Hu, Torr & Whiteman

2014). Australia has also been identified as a country where many people may have a *monolingual mindset*, that is, 'seeing everything in terms of monolingualism being the norm', in other words, speaking only English is common and accepted (Clyne 2005, p. xi; Hajek & Slaughter 2014). Support for policies surrounding multilingualism has been slow to emerge and linguistic pluralism has been frequently overlooked in educational settings (Molyneux 2009). Multilingual Australia has been a gradual process, despite large scale migration and the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco1987), which argues for first-language maintenance and developing bilingualism for Australians (Clyne 2005; Scarino 2014). There has been more recent focus on reviving Indigenous languages since the *National Indigenous languages policy* being put into place in 2009 (House of Representatives Standing Committee on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs 2012). There has also been a focus on languages other than English (LOTE) curriculums and developing the Ethnic Schools Association and School of Languages in South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales (Smolicz & Secombe 2003). Recently, a *Languages strategy for public education* (DECD 2017) was put in place in South Australia.

The history of Australian policies, in relation to Australia's multilingual or pluralingual 'language potential' and its tensions have been discussed by Clyne (2005). It has been argued that the 1990s generally marked a retreat from national languages policy (Scarino 2014, p. 292), and since then, many 'strategies', 'plans' and 'programmes' concerning languages education have been implemented. Many language-related programs, plans, and strategies have emphasised primary and secondary schooling, and to a lesser extent, preschools. South Australia and other states are seen to lack coordinated language policies (Scarino 2014, p. 292).

> 'A major challenge for the field is to address the absence at both national and state levels of a coherent policy for languages in general and for languages in education specifically, and a commitment to maintaining and/or developing at least some level of bilingual capability for all students as part of their school education'. (Scarino 2014, p. 292)

A *First Language Maintenance and Development* program has existed since 1985, in the Department for Education and Child Development (Scarino, Curnow, Heugh & Liddicoat 2013). The program was an initiative in connection with the language policy report, *Voices for the future* (Languages Policy Working Party, 1983). This program, once again, has a focused on schooling years, rather than preschool, and the success of its implementation has been questioned in its recent review (Scarino, Curnow, Heugh & Liddicoat 2013). The *English as an additional language or dialect* program, in the form of the *New Arrivals Program* and *Intensive English Language Classes*, have also been implemented in South Australian schools for some time (DECD 2016a). Preschool-based programs and initiatives

specifically geared towards bilingual learners are scarce in South Australia. Only recently in 2018, has *English language development for newly arrived children in preschool* training been available to inform preschool educators about how to support children who are new to English. The training mentions the priority to 'honor the first language'. The majority of professional training and programs in general, however, tend to focus on the school years.

Australia's linguistic diversity (in the first year of school) has been investigated in the national Australian Early Development Index (AEDI), now called the *Australian Early Development Census* (AEDC). The AEDC is a data collection process whereby teachers rate students on five developmental domains answering approximately 100 questions on each student. The domains of the AEDC, described by Goldfeld, O'Connor, Mithen, Sayers and Brinkman (2014, p. 45), include:

- Physical health and wellbeing
- Social competence – including the skill to get along with and play with other children
- Emotional maturity – including overcoming anxious and fearful behaviour such as nervousness, sadness and upset when left at school
- Language and cognitive development; and
- Communication and general knowledge – including the ability to communicate easily and effectively

The ratings identify various differences between children who speak English as a first (and only) language, as against children who are bilingual yet proficient in English, or children who bilingual yet are *not* proficient in English. The AEDC is largely conducted by Australia's majority monolingual English-speaking teachers, often in an English dominant educational context. Children's first language skills or general skills in a first language context are represented to a much lesser extent. Parents are not involved in the AEDC checklist procedure which is completed by teachers. The full picture of bilingual children's skills outside of educational settings, within their homes and communities is, therefore, under-represented in current AEDC research. This under-representation can lead to the impression that children who are new to English and preschool, or school, are lacking in social, emotional, and cognitive skills as a result of their language barrier. This view can also result in teachers' emphasis on children catching up to their English-speaking monolingual peers while ignoring the fact that bilingual children have multilingual resources for their learning.

The AEDC, which involved 290,000 school starters, and reached approximately 96% of the Australian population, revealed that almost one in every five five-year-olds (*n*=46,967 in 2009 and *n*=52,277 in 2012) spoke a language other than English in their home (AEDI 2009, p. 6, 2013a, p. 6; AEDC 2014, p. 5). Within this bilingual population of five-year-olds,

almost 15% were further identified by their teachers as being '*not yet proficient in English'*, meaning, 'less than average in their ability to use English effectively' when they entered school (O'Connor, O'Connor, Kvalsvig & Goldfeld 2014, p. 167). In 2015, the AEDC (2016a, p. 16) identified 8252 five-year-olds in their first year of schooling, from language backgrounds other than English (LBOTE), who were not proficient in English, of a total of 64,881 five-year-olds from LBOTE nationwide. This statistic indicates the population of three to five-year-olds learning EALD that likely attended preschool in the year before school who would not yet have been proficient in English.

The AEDI (2013a, p. 13) reports that 93.7% of children from LBOTE, who were *not* proficient in English, are considered 'developmentally vulnerable' in one or more AEDI domains: social, emotional, communicative, physical, and cognitive. Use of the term 'vulnerable' is a contentious issue however, as teacher ratings may be biased due to the English dominant context of situation surrounding bilingual-EAL-speaking-students in the AEDC data. The descriptor '*developmentally vulnerable*' refers to children who scored below the 10th percentile in the national AEDC (2012, p. 4) population. Children who scored between the 10th and 25th percentile of the national AEDC population were classified as '*developmentally at risk*'. Many children from LBOTE were clustered in this category. A large proportion (16.4%) of Australia's five-year-old LBOTE population also rated as 'poor' to 'very poor' according to teacher ratings (Goldfeld, Mithen, Barber, O'Connor, Sayers & Brinkman 2011, p. 7). More recently in the AEDC (2016a, p. 17), children from LBOTE, who were *not* proficient in English, were found to be four times more likely to be developmentally vulnerable than children from LBOTE who *were* proficient in English.

1.2.2 The social, emotional, and communicative challenges of bilingual children

In 2012, 58% of children, who were *not* proficient in English and had LBOTE status, were identified as being 'developmentally vulnerable' in two or more domains (AEDC 2014); whereas only 8.3% of children, who *were* proficient in English and had LBOTE status, were found to be 'developmentally vulnerable' in two or more domains (as reported in **Table 1-1**). In the English-dominant educational context of school, low proficiency in English seems to present barriers to displaying sound social, emotional, and communicative skills for five-year-old Australian children, according to the opinions of Australia's reception teachers (AEDC 2015b).

Table 1-1 AEDC summary report (AEDC 2014, p. 6)

Characteristic	Number of children	Developmentally vulnerable on one or more domain/s (%)	Number of children	Developmentally vulnerable on two or more domains (%)
Language diversity				
LBOTE[3]	52,107	29.5	52,277	14.6
Proficient in English[4]	45,370	20.0	45,579	8.3
Not proficient in English[5]	6,661	93.7	6,608	58.0
English only	220,175	20.2	220,998	9.9
Proficient in English	213,116	17.9	213,930	7.9
Not proficient in English	6,837	93.7	6,810	72.3

*Note: Permission was granted to use the AEDC tables in this thesis publication.

In the AEDC (2014), social competence domain, 34.8% of children with LBOTE status, who were *not* proficient in English, were reported as being 'developmentally vulnerable'. Examples of such include not adjusting well to change and having low confidence. An additional 27% were considered 'developmentally at risk', a criterion, for example, being that they did not play with a range of children. The risk and vulnerabilities of the '*not* proficient in English' population compares to a lesser 7.8% of children with LBOTE status, who *were* proficient in English, being rated as 'vulnerable' and 13.9% rated as 'at risk' (see **Table 1-2**).

Table 1-2: Children with LBOTE status who are developmentally vulnerable according to the social competence domain (AEDC 2014, p. 11)

Characteristic	Number of children	Developmentally vulnerable (Below the 10th percentile – %)	Developmentally at risk (Between the 10th and 25th percentile – %)	On track (Between the 25th and 50th percentile – %)	On track (Above the 50th percentile – %)
Overall					
Australia	273,534	9.3	14.3	21.9	54.6
Sex					
Male	137,817	12.7	17.8	23.6	45.9
Female	135,717	5.8	10.7	20.1	63.3
Indigenous					
Indigenous	14,041	18.7	20.7	23.0	37.7
Non-indigenous	259,493	8.8	13.9	21.8	55.5
Language diversity					
LBOTE[3]	52,383	11.2	15.5	22.8	50.5
Proficient in English[4]	45,642	7.8	13.9	22.7	55.7
Not proficient in English[5]	6,640	34.8	27.0	23.7	14.5
English only	221,151	8.8	14.0	21.7	55.5
Proficient in English	214,022	7.6	13.6	21.7	57.1
Not proficient in English	6,825	45.2	26.6	19.4	8.7

In the AEDC (2014) emotional domain, 21.1% of children with LBOTE status, who were *not* proficient in English, were reported as being 'developmentally vulnerable'; this includes criteria such as being sometimes upset when left by a caregiver. A further 30.9% were reported as 'developmentally at risk', for example, due to showing anxious behaviours. This statistic compares to a lesser 6% being identified as 'developmentally vulnerable' and 15% identified as 'developmentally at risk' for English proficient children with LBOTE status, as shown in **Table 1-3**.

Table 1-3: Children with LBOTE status who are developmentally vulnerable according to emotional domain (AEDC 2014, p. 13)

Characteristic	Number of children	Developmentally vulnerable (Below the 10th percentile – %)	Developmentally at risk (Between the 10th and 25th percentile – %)	On track (Between the 25th and 50th percentile – %)	On track (Above the 50th percentile – %)
Overall					
Australia	272,682	7.6	14.2	24.2	53.9
Sex					
Male	137,205	11.8	18.6	26.0	43.6
Female	135,477	3.4	9.8	22.5	64.3
Indigenous					
Indigenous	13,981	15.6	19.7	24.9	39.7
Non-indigenous	258,701	7.2	13.9	24.2	54.6
Language diversity					
LBOTE[3]	52,039	7.9	16.2	26.4	49.5
Proficient in English[4]	45,350	6.0	14.0	26.3	53.7
Not proficient in English[5]	6,562	21.1	30.9	27.0	21.0
English only	220,643	7.6	13.8	23.7	54.9
Proficient in English	213,362	6.9	13.2	23.7	56.2
Not proficient in English	6,777	30.3	29.6	23.9	16.2

According to the more specific category 'anxious and fearful behavior', within the 'emotional maturity' domain, 20.1% of children (*n*=1,249), who had LBOTE status and were *not* proficient in English, were marked as 'developmentally vulnerable'. This statistic suggests that inferred psychological states, mentioned by the AEDC, such as nervousness, sadness, and upset when left at school, were more common among school starters who had LBOTE status and who were *not* proficient in English (Goldfeld et al. 2011, p. 20). Emotional wellbeing among CALD populations is a concerning global issue, as mental health difficulties are inequitably distributed among minority populations, including migrants (Priest, Baxter & Hayes 2012). More specific and detailed information on bilingual children's experiences is needed to thoroughly understand bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges and social interactions in the year before school, especially considering that the mastery of social and emotional skills in preschool have been shown to predict later school adjustment and academic achievement (Oades-Sese, Esquivel, Kaliski & Maniatis 2011).

As one might expect, in the communication domain, only 1.2% of school starters, who were from LBOTE and who were *not* proficient in English in 2012, were considered to be 'on track'. The majority of bilingual children, who were *not* proficient in English, were considered 'developmentally vulnerable' (91.9%) and 6.9% were rated as 'developmentally at risk' in the communication domain (as shown in **Table 1-4**).

Table 1-4: Children with LBOTE status who are developmentally vulnerable or at risk according to communication domain (AEDC 2014, p. 17)

Characteristic	Number of children	Developmentally vulnerable (Below the 10th percentile – %)	Developmentally at risk (Between the 10th and 25th percentile – %)	On track (Between the 25th and 50th percentile – %)	On track (Above the 50th percentile – %)
Overall					
Australia	273,855	9.0	16.3	18.7	56.0
Sex					
Male	137,959	11.3	18.7	20.1	49.9
Female	135,896	6.6	13.9	17.2	62.3
Indigenous					
Indigenous	14,057	19.9	22.5	22.0	35.6
Non-indigenous	259,798	8.4	16.0	18.5	57.2
Language diversity					
LBOTE[3]	52,443	18.2	20.9	20.1	40.7
Proficient in English[4]	45,707	7.5	22.9	22.9	46.7
Not proficient in English[5]	6,658	91.9	6.9	1.2	0.0
English only	221,412	6.8	15.2	18.4	59.7
Proficient in English	214,331	4.1	15.4	18.9	61.6
Not proficient in English	6,840	91.3	7.6	1.1	0.0

The AEDC's (2014) communication domain refers only to the ability to communicate effectively and function in English, and ignores communication skills in first languages. Little is known about bilingual preschoolers' first language use over the past 10 years in Australian preschools.

In both 2009 and 2012, there were no signs of improvement for children with LBOTE status in the '*not* proficient in English' group for which 93.7% of children were reported as 'developmentally vulnerable' on one or more domains (AEDC 2014, p. 19). The following **Table 1-5** further illustrates the percentage of children considered to be 'developmentally vulnerable' according to each AEDC domain. English proficiency, for children from LBOTE, appears to have a link to whether a child is considered 'on track', 'vulnerable' or 'at risk', according to the domains: physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language and cognitive skills, communication skills, and general knowledge. It is apparent that children who are not proficient in English score significantly lower and are at higher risk of under achieving (Goldfeld et al. 2014).

Table 1-5: Percentage of LBOTE children, who are not proficient in English, and are developmentally vulnerable according to all domains (AEDC 2014, p. 21)

Characteristic	Physical health and wellbeing (%) – 2009	Physical health and wellbeing (%) – 2012	Social competence (%) – 2009	Social competence (%) – 2012	Emotional maturity (%) – 2009	Emotional maturity (%) – 2012	Language and cognitive development (%) – 2009	Language and cognitive development (%) – 2012	Communication and general knowledge (%) – 2009	Communication and general knowledge (%) – 2012
Overall										
Australia	9.3	9.3	9.5	9.3	8.9	7.6	8.9	6.8	9.2	9.0
Sex										
Male	11.8	11.9	13.0	12.7	13.5	11.8	11.3	8.5	11.7	11.3
Female	6.8	6.7	5.9	5.8	4.2	3.4	6.4	5.1	6.6	6.6
Indigenous										
Indigenous	21.9	20.4	20.2	18.7	17.1	15.6	28.6	22.4	21.3	19.9
Non-indigenous	8.7	8.7	9.0	8.8	8.5	7.2	7.9	5.9	8.6	8.4
Language diversity										
LBOTE[3]	10.6	9.9	11.8	11.2	9.5	7.9	12.4	9.6	20.0	18.2
Proficient in English[4]	7.4	7.1	7.9	7.8	7.2	6.0	7.5	5.7	7.9	7.5
Not proficient in English[5]	29.2	29.5	35.0	34.8	23.3	21.1	41.2	36.7	91.3	91.9
English only	9.1	9.2	9.0	8.8	8.7	7.6	8.1	6.1	6.8	6.8
Proficient in English	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.6	7.9	6.9	6.6	4.8	4.1	4.1
Not proficient in English	50.0	51.5	45.5	45.2	34.1	30.3	53.5	47.7	90.3	91.3

Acknowledgement of children's strengths in their first language speaking context is not only lacking in the AEDC data, but also lacking in Australian research on bilingual children. Early childhood bilingual researchers matched to the languages of the children they study are rare in Australia. Qualitative, descriptive, and detailed research in preschool settings is needed to complement teacher rating-type checklists in the AECD school-based setting as so to contribute in-depth and detailed information. First-hand observational descriptions, supported by bilingual educators, could contribute to gain thorough understandings bilingual children's social, emotional, and communicative experiences. Such research could serve to inform the development of educational practices designed to support bilingual preschoolers' social, emotional, and communicative development, prior to attending school. Children from non-English speaking backgrounds, who have either recently migrated to Australia, and/or who are new to English are presently considered to be children living in 'priority circumstances' (Harris & Manatakis 2014). They deserve greater attention in contemporary research.

New directions for Australian research need to ask: What kinds of social interactions are encountered by bilingual preschoolers who are new to English as an additional language? This could explore how relationships between children and their interlocutors influence their speech. Research also needs to ask: What emotional challenges do children who are not proficient in English encounter? This could explore how emotional challenges might interplay with social interactions as well as impact upon what children say. Further details on the specific questions of the present inquiry are presented in section 1.5 The aims of the study and research questions.

The Centre for Child Health at The Royal Children's Hospital and Murdoch Children's Institute (2014, p. 1) advocates that '[b]ilingual children need to be viewed holistically by practitioners'; hence, support for bilingual preschoolers needs to aim beyond explicitly teaching the forms of English to help children to 'catch up' to their monolingual counterparts. Supporting children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language development in both first language contexts and EAL contexts, is necessary to foster competent bilingual citizens.

This study intends to address the gap of understandings about bilingual preschoolers' social, emotional, and communicative experiences and their relationship to language learning by closely observing a small number of children explicitly over a period of six months to describe, in illustrative detail, the contexts of situation surrounding their speech. This current thesis provides multiple forms of observational evidence and includes children's, parents' and a variety of educators' voices—teachers, early childhood workers, bilingual educators,

language and communication support workers, and a preschool director. Whilst the AEDC documented teachers' appraisals to rate children and compare data on thousands of monolingual and bilingual children in the first year of schooling, the present study investigates four three-to-five-year-old bilingual children.

1.3 The preschool context in Australia

In Australia, the preschool intake occurs once, at the beginning of the calendar year—late January or early February. The once-a-year intake often results in many educators, nationwide, responding to the challenge of simultaneously supporting multiple new enrolments who have limited English-speaking skills. American and British research has indicated that the experience of bilinguals being newly inducted into an English language environment can be rather daunting, overwhelming and perhaps even distressing for some three to four-year-old children (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Shao 2005; Tabors 2008). To date Australian research on bilingual preschoolers in preschool settings is limited (Clarke 1996, Jones Díaz 2007). As a preschool teacher of over 15 years, I have witnessed bilingual children screaming and crying to the point of vomiting when separating from their parents, particularly those who are new to English. Although English speakers too can cry, they can often be consoled by educators who speak their language, unlike children who are new to English. It is often a trying time for educators who have the role of transitioning bilingual children, not just into their new preschool service, but also the 'double-bind' of learning and using EAL in the new cultural context (Tabors 2008). The retention and maintenance of bilingual preschoolers' first languages is another complexity for parents, educators and children, although some educators simply choose to focus on the English and ignore children's first languages. According to the AEDC (2016b), bilingual children who attended preschool were more likely to be proficient in English when they entered school than those who had not. The impact of preschool on children's ability to maintain their first language skills, however, is another area for research.

1.3.1 Australia's preschool curriculum

Bilingualism and building on children's current knowledge is supported in the *Australian Children's Education and Care Quality Authority* document and the *National Quality Standards* (ACECQA 2017). *The Early Years Learning Framework* (EYLF 2009), the Australian preschool curriculum states:

> Children's use of their home languages underpins their sense of identity and their conceptual development. Children feel a sense of belonging when their language, interaction styles and ways of communicating are valued. They have the right to be

> continuing users of their home language as well as to develop competency in Standard Australian English. (EYLF 2009, p. 38)

The EYLF (2009) is directed by five learning outcomes which each have complementary explanations and examples of how they can be achieved. Outcome One, 'Children have a strong sense of identity', recommends that children 'use their home language to construct meaning' and this is achieved when educators 'actively support the maintenance of home language and culture' (EYLF 2009, p. 23). Outcome Three, 'Children have a strong sense of wellbeing', encourages educators to ensure 'children experience and share personal successes in learning and initiate opportunities for new learning in their home languages or Standard Australian English' (EYLF 2009, p. 31). Lastly, Outcome Five: 'Children are effective communicators' encourages children to be 'independent communicators who initiate Standard Australian English and home language conversations and demonstrate the ability to meet the listeners' needs' (EYLF 2009, p. 40). The EYLF further notes that educators support this learning when they 'value children's linguistic heritage and with family and community members encourage the use of and acquisition of home languages and Standard Australian English' (EYLF 2009, p. 40). On a more general level, Outcome Five also states that 'Children interact verbally and non-verbally with others for a range of purposes' (EYLF 2009, p. 40). This idea of purpose in communication is central to the functional language approach adopted in the present study.

Preschool attendance

Preschool is attended by 80.62% of Australian children, during the year prior to school. In South Australia (the location of the present study) 92.54% (*n*=13,062) of preschool-aged children attended preschool in 2012 (O'Connor et al. 2014, p. 12). In a somewhat lower proportion, just over 60% of the 'not yet proficient in English' bilinguals, and 73.91% of the English proficient bilinguals nationwide also attended preschool in 2012 (O'Connor et al. 2014, p. 11). This percentage leaves almost 40% of '*not* yet proficient in English' bilinguals having not attended preschool. As noted, children who are *not* proficient in English score significantly lower on AEDC ratings and are at higher risk of under achieving (Goldfeld et al. 2011, p. 8). Preschool programs are hence a potentially modifiable factor that may promote English language skills at school entry for bilingual children (O'Connor et al. 2014). Preschools can also promote first language maintenance, if provided with resources to do so.

1.3.2 Bilingual support in South Australian preschools

The present study was set in South Australia, where a growing proportion or 13% of preschoolers are bilingual (AEDI 2009). In Australia, the larger cities of Sydney and Melbourne respectively have 16% and 26% of preschool-aged children identified as bilingual

(McLeod 2011, p. 115). During 2011, in 200 preschools throughout South Australia, approximately 4,300 preschool aged children were supported by 130 early childhood workers-bilingual (ECWB) in 65 community languages (DECD 2011, p. 69). Many more minority language groups exist in Australia and this makes it difficult for productive first-language maintenance to be supported by matched bilingual educators in all preschools for all children. Australia's top languages other than English are: Italian, Greek, Mandarin, and Vietnamese (NSW Government Department of Education 2015). Such larger populations of minority language groups, or *majority minorities,* tend to experience greater support for first language maintenance than the speakers of rarer languages in Australia such as Chin (a Burmese language).

Early childhood workers-bilingual (ECWBs) are employed in South Australia through the preschool bilingual support program. Such bilingual support programs aim to smooth children's transition to using English to communicate, and aim to value and maintain first languages for bilingual preschoolers (Bezdicek & García 2012, p. 171). In South Australia, preschools are financed for a certain allocation of bilingual educator support depending on the number of bilingual enrolments within a preschool and their urgency for support—this includes how capable a child is at communicating in English and whether they were born in Australia or in a non-English speaking country. Bilingually-matched support is not a certainty. Often the allocated funds that employ a bilingual support educator employ one or two educators per service that speak the languages of the majority 'language other than English' speaking preschoolers. Qualified teachers who speak several languages are rare in English-as-a-dominant-language countries, such as Australia, where the majority of educators are monolingual English speakers (Ellis 2002).

In the present study, two focus children encountered matched bilingual support and the other two children did not. The study explores four bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use at the same preschool.

1.4 The foci of past research

To date, the vast majority of early childhood research and literature describing the experiences of children learning EAL has derived from studies in the US (Genesee 2010; Beaty & Pratt 2011; Calderón, Slavin & Sánchez 2011; de Jong & Harper 2005; Gort & Pontier 2013; Hakuta 1976; Hardin, Lower, Robinson Smallwood, Chakravarthi, Li & Jordan 2010; Herrell & Jordan 2008; McCrary, Sennette & Brown 2011; Shao 2005; Smidt 2008; Tabors 1987; Whitlach & Staley 2003; Wong Fillmore 1976, 1979) and Canada (Dixon & Fraser 1986; Chumak-Horbatsch 2008; Toohey 2000). Such research has focused on the

larger minority LBOTE populations such as Spanish-English bilinguals (Jones Díaz 2007; Llinares García 2005, 2006, 2007; Páez, Tabors & López 2014; Palermo & Mikulski 2014; Sager 2015; Strand, Pula, Parks & Cerna 2011; Wong Fillmore 1976) and French/English bilinguals (Thordardottir 2011). Some studies involving bilingual children of various first languages while learning EAL have been conducted in the UK (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Smith 2006); however, Australian research with bilingual children who speak a variety of first languages is limited (Restuningrum 2015).

There are few studies situated in Australia and nearby New Zealand specifically on the topic of preschool-aged bilingual children, with exceptions of: Cabezas and Rouse (2012, 2014); Clarke (1996); Jones Díaz (2007); Milne and Clarke (1993); and Scrafton and Whitington (2015) in Australia; and Harvey and Myint (2014) and Schofield (2011) in New Zealand. Some recent Australian research has also focused upon playgroup settings where parents also accompany their children (Morgan & Chodkiewicz 2009; Morgan, Chodkiewicz & Jones Díaz 2013). Australian preschools, however, differ from playgroups, as in preschool, parents separate from their children for sometimes as many as eight hours. Separation challenges, therefore, occur in preschool rather than in playgroup. Overall, it can be said that there is 'a lack of understanding of dual language learning in children who begin learning a second language after first language acquisition has begun and before the age of school entry' (Genesee 2010, p. 73).

The majority of research on bilingual children has given attention to school-aged children—children who have further developed their emotional maturity and social independence (Adair 2009; Ambrosio, Binalet, Ferrer & Yang 2015; Calderón, Slavin & Sánchez 2011; Christoffersen 2015; Facella, Rampino & Shea 2005; Gersten & Baker 2000; Jones Díaz 2007; Llinares & Pastrana 2013; McCrary, Sennette & Brown 2011; Millar 2011; Toohey 2000; Wong Fillmore 1976; Wong Fillmore & Snow 2000; Yang 2010). Schools also differ from preschools in Australia, as preschools commonly follow a play-based curriculum with numerous resources and activities set up for three to five-year-olds to engage with according to their interests. Preschools often offer simultaneous inside and outside play, which is not usual in school. In addition, the preschool routine is generally divided between children's free play and a few short 20-minute instructional teacher led group-times. The fourth chapter of this thesis provides more details about the daily routine of the preschool in this study.

Previous research, involving preschoolers learning EAL, has been dominated by studies of social and linguistic aspects of language learning (Bligh 2014; Clarke 1996; Drury 2007; Hirschler 1991, 1994; Tabors 2008). Emotions have rarely been prioritised or intentionally

incorporated into studies. The context of situation (Halliday 2004; Halliday & Hasan 1985) surrounding children's speech has scantly been considered, particularly with attention to emotions. Studying social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use together aims to contribute to current social interactionist and systemic functional linguistics theories on bilingual preschoolers' language use and language learning.

1.4.1 Research incorporating functional language use

Many studies have concentrated on stages of development and the grammar used by language learners to formulate language. Studies that have drawn attention to the techniques children use to structure EAL include Clarke (1996), Cummins (2008), Krashen (1982, 1987), Tabors (1987), and Saville-Troike (1987). Studies involving four to five-year-old children, with a focus upon the functional use of language, have been generally limited to contexts where English is a first language (Bluiett 2009; Thomas Rinehart & Wampler 1992), where infants and toddlers are at home (Halliday 1975; Painter 1985, 2005), or in English-as-a-foreign-language contexts in preschools (Llinares García 2005, 2007) and schools (Ambrosio et al. 2015; Llinares & Pastrana 2013). Some researchers have drawn from functional language theories by Hymes (1974), used in Christoffersen's (2015) research; Kumpulainen and Wray (1997), used in the study by Ambrosio et al. (2015); and Dore, Gearhart and Newman (1978), used in Tabors' (1987) study. Research investigating Halliday's (2004) initial functions with bilingual preschoolers learning EAL is limited.

Little is known about bilingual preschoolers' functional EAL use in the context of Australia—let alone worldwide. A few exceptions include a rare study in the UK which briefly analysed a young child's excerpt in a journal article (Parke & Drury 2002, p. 84), research with year 2 students (Parke & Drury 2000), and a study with toddlers under the age of two drawing from *systemic functional linguistics* (SFL) to investigate the manner in which educators interact with infants in long day care centres (Torr & Pham 2016). Empirical studies that provide detailed descriptions and illustrations of preschoolers' functional use of language, in relation to their social-emotional context of situation, are lacking.

1.4.2 Research incorporating emotions

Presently, little attention is paid to emotions in language learning, in relation to functional language use. Emotions have received somewhat greater attention in SLA research with learners beyond preschool age (e.g. Krashen & Terrell 1983; Horwitz 2001; MacIntyre 2002, 2003; Swain 2013). In SFL, Bednarek (2010) identifies *emotion talk,* and Martin and White (2005, p. 35) discuss a*ppraisal theory.* Limited research has intentionally focused, at the outset of research, upon the emotional experiences of bilingual preschoolers and educators'

emotional supports—several exceptions include Dixon and Fraser (1986), Oades-Sese et al. (2011), Ren and Wyver (2014), Richard (2007), Shao (2005) and Strand et al. (2011). A number of studies have, however, mentioned emotional challenges such as shyness, fear, and upset, as well as children's distress or crying in findings reports (Bligh 2014; Clarke 2009; Drury 2007; Fumoto, Hargreaves & Maxwell 2007; Millar 2011; Scrafton & Whitington 2015; Tabors 2008; Yang 2010). In the past, many presumed that young children soaked up new languages, much like sponges, and faced fewer obstacles in additional language learning in comparison to adults (Díaz Rico 2008; Tabors 1987). Some have suggested that young children 'pick languages up' without any need for specific, intentional teaching support (Clarke 1996, p. 2; Tabors 2008). This outdated misconception is now considered inaccurate and misleading. Due to preschoolers' young age of maturity, and their unfamiliarity with being separated from their primary caregivers, preschoolers can be considered more emotionally vulnerable than adults (Clarke 1992; Genessee 2010).

'The role of the affective' was an original area of interest by Bligh (2014, p. 70), one of a few researchers to take an interest in emotions when studying young bilinguals. Her research questions were later revised to focus more on community of practice, gaze and the legitimate peripheral participation of silent children. Research designs that intentionally inquire about children's emotional experiences are needed in order to extend current understandings and theories of bilingual language learning. Swain (2013), for instance, recently established that a relationship exists, between emotion and cognition, in second language learning with adult bilinguals. The current study merges the fields of psychology, education, sociology, and linguistics from the outset of the study, by drawing attention to bilingual children's emotional experiences, in combination with their social interactions, and functional language use

1.4.3 Research investigating bilingual children's social interactions

Studies on bilingual preschoolers' social interactions have not previously drawn attention to the experiences of both preschoolers who encounter bilingual support (in the form of bilingually-matched educators and peers), and children who are without bilingual support, while attending the same preschool. Interpersonal aspects of language learning and how relationships influence speech requires further exploration with bilingually-supported, as well as unsupported bilingual preschoolers. Thordardottir (2011) compared balanced and unbalanced (dominant) five-year-old French/English bilinguals' receptive and expressive vocabularies, and Páez, Tabors and López (2007) compared Spanish/English bilinguals to Spanish monolinguals in different preschool settings in the US and in Puerto Rico. However, Australian research is needed to investigate bilingual preschoolers who are with and without bilingual support.

Exploring different contexts serves to highlight how educators might differentiate programs for bilingual preschoolers according to their specific social and emotional context. The impact of bilingual teachers and teacher aides has previously been compared with the impact of non-bilingual teachers upon early literacy and receptive language outcomes by Ruebeck (2013). However, emotions and functional language use was not studied. The present study explores whether children who encounter bilingual first language support have different experiences and needs to children who are 'lone bilinguals', a term used by Schofield (2011) to describe children who are without peers or educators to converse with in their first language while at preschool. This thesis presents that different contexts require different strategies to support bilingual preschoolers.

1.4.4 Research identifying strategies to support bilingual preschoolers

In past studies, experienced mainstream teachers have commonly been invited to identify the practices they implement to support children learning EAL (Ball 2012; Cabezas 2012; Facella, Rampino & Shea 2005; Matthews 2010; Shin 2010). Fewer studies, however, have sought suggestions from early childhood workers (ECWs), ECWBs, or other early childhood professionals additional to the director and teachers, such as language and communication support workers who also specialise in supporting children's language learning (Adair 2011; Robertson, Drury & Cable 2014). The present study questions a variety of educators. The study involves observations of a range of practices throughout the daily routine of the preschool, both inside and outside, to identify and seek recommendations of strategies to support bilingual children who were in the early stages of learning EAL. The study focuses on both children's experiences and educators' strategies as they inform one another.

1.5 The aims of the study and research questions

The present study has a tripartite focus in that it combines: social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use into a single study. The study aims to extend current interdisciplinary knowledge in the fields of education, psychology, linguistics, speech pathology, and sociology. In addition, the study seeks to identify innovative strategies to support bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL. The study aims to explore the type of people bilingual preschoolers interact with, the emotional challenges they encounter, and the purposeful, or functional language they produce, in relation to the context of situation.

As previously mentioned, the two central questions explored by this thesis are:

1. What social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?

2. What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

These questions serve to identify the context surrounding bilingual preschoolers' oral language.

The first central question is divided into sub-questions covering social interactions (1.1), emotional challenges (1.2) and functional language use (1.3) as well as a final synthesis question.

The three sub-questions in the *social* category for children's experiences include:

1.1.1 With whom do bilingual preschoolers interact regularly at preschool?

1.1.2 What languages do bilingual preschoolers speak during these interactions?

1.1.3 What language learning opportunities do the various social interactions afford?

The sub-questions in the *emotional* category (1.2) for children's experiences include:

1.2.1 What emotional challenges are encountered by bilingual preschoolers who are in the early stages of learning to communicate in EAL?

1.2.2 How are emotional challenges incorporated into children's context of situation and how do they influence children's productive language learning?

And the three sub-questions for the *functional language* category (1.3) include:

1.3.1 What are the frequencies of bilingual preschoolers' functional language—*instrumental, regulatory, personal, interactional, heuristic, imaginative,* and *informative*—when speaking EAL at preschool?

1.3.2 Which language functions are most and least commonly expressed?

The final synthesis question concerning preschoolers' experiences asks:

1.4 How can children's functional language use be explained in relation to each individual child's context?

The second central question in the study investigates *educators' strategies* to support preschoolers as they learn EAL. This second question is divided into three categories to identify and compile:

2.1 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions

2.2 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges

2.3 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' functional language use

Preschoolers (who are new to English) require tailored strategies to support their learning; thus, the final intention of this study aims to highlight specific pedagogical and practical implications for educators to use to support bilingual preschoolers' language learning. These

implications relate to social interactions, emotional supports, and the facilitation of different types of functional language. A variety of educators offer recommendations and demonstrate strategies in this study. As has been illuminated by researchers of bilingual children, accommodating English language learners (ELLs) is one of the greatest challenges educators face today. Shao (2005, p. x) argues that '[s]tudies on the functions of adult intervention are also needed in order to find ways to shorten the L2 children's adaptation period and facilitate their language acquisition process'. The next section provides chapter summaries to detail the content of the present study, which investigates the bilingual children's experiences and educators' strategies to support their learning.

1.6 Chapter summaries

The thesis is divided into ten chapters.

Chapter Two, *The Literature Review,* critiques past theories of language learning and highlights their consideration of, or lack of attention to, social, emotional, and functional language based foci. While research has developed understandings in each individual area, the lack of simultaneous focus of all three aspects in research is noted. A thorough description of the context of situation and other concepts stemming from SFL research are then provided. The stages of EAL learning in the early years are presented. Then, the literature review divides into three sections to describe theoretical constructs and research findings relating to bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. Social interactionism, sociocultural theory, and the zone of proximal development is discussed; basic emotions are identified; and the functional language section includes more specific details of Halliday's (2004) seven initial language functions. The latter section then draws attention to educators' strategies where an explanation of the notion of linguistic capital and ideas relating to how society's view of bilingualism impacts upon education is included. The review then concludes by identifying currently recommended strategies for educators to implement when supporting bilingual preschoolers that address functional language use, social interactions, and emotional challenges.

Chapter Three, *The Methodology*, offers explicit detail on the research paradigm and interpretivist case study design. Conceptual frameworks incorporating Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD), Rogoff's (2003) personal, interpersonal, and cultural-institutional lenses of focus, Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974) concept of scaffolding, a SFL approach to studying language (Halliday 2004), and various emotions-considerate research approaches are then explained and related to the research questions (Horwitz 2001; Krashen 1982; MacIntyre 2002, 2003; Swain 2013). Research preparations are detailed and

rationales are provided to explain data collection methods and recording processes, such as observations (documented via field notes, movie-mode, photographic, and audio recordings), interviews and informal discussions (documented via field notes and audio recordings), questionnaires, and the collection of documents and work samples. Data analysis, comprising: reflective journaling, memo writing, *a priori* coding, and thematic analysis using NVivo, are explained and a discussion on trustworthiness follows. Biographical details of the researcher, a 'privileged active participant observer' (Johnson & Christensen 2014, p. 409) are provided and to conclude, the limitations of the research are presented.

Chapter Four, *Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies*, provides a demographic profile of the community where the case study took place. This profile identifies the languages spoken at the partially-bilingual preschool site of Gumtree Preschool (pseudonym). An overview of the preschool curriculum, the physical set-up, and the daily routines of the preschool is provided. The profiles of Gumtree Preschool's educators are identified and various recommended and implemented strategies to support bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL are presented. Strategies are categorised into strategies addressing social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. Presenting Gumtree Preschool's context and educators' strategies first serves to provide the contextual foundation for later presenting the children's experiences.

Chapter Five, *The Children's Experiences*, introduces the individual profiles of the four focus preschoolers in the study: Patty, Shaun, Van Van, and Limi (pseudonyms). This chapter describes the preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. The report describes who the children interacted with, what languages they spoke, what emotional challenges they encountered, and which language functions the preschoolers communicated in English, as well as which functions were the most and least common.

Chapter Six, *Synthesising the Themes,* highlights the four focus children's social interactions involving: balancing bilingualism, branching-out, and being scaffolded by less knowledgeable others (LKOs) and more knowledgeable others (MKOs); emotional challenges themes concerning: shyness, anxiousness, and separation challenges; and functional language use themes being: bilingual preschoolers' common use of language to inform and rare use of language to ask questions. The findings are then further synthesised to note how the context of situation incorporates social and emotional considerations to influence bilingual preschoolers' productive language.

Chapter Seven, *The Discussion*, relates the present study's findings with previously mentioned research literature. The chapter is separated into: children's experiences and

educators' strategies. The discussion centres on children's social, emotional, and functional language experiences, in reflection of the context of situation. This chapter defends the assertion that the people with whom children interact, along with the emotions they feel during those interactions, in turn influence what children choose to say, what language they choose to say it in, and what language structures they rehearse aloud.

Chapter Eight, *The Conclusion*, summarises the empirical findings and identifies several theoretical implications of the study. One recommendation is to extend Vygotsky's ZPD and more knowledgeable other concept to incorporate LKOs. Methodological implications, relating to advances in technology, are recommended, and implications for improving educational practices and policies (concerning bilingual preschoolers) are presented. Finally, recommendations for future research topics that investigate bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use are offered.

1.7 Summary

This introductory chapter has indicated the increasing populations of bilingual preschoolers learning EAL in contemporary early childhood settings, in Australia, and internationally. The chapter has highlighted concerns surrounding young bilingual learners and the current gap in the research literature pertaining to the interface between bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. The absence of studies that investigate the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language of preschoolers receiving matched bilingual support, as well as preschoolers without matched bilingual support, has been raised as an issue. The limitation of previous research, involving a diversity of early childhood practitioners when compiling and identifying strategies to support bilingual preschoolers, has also been noted. What remains is for research to develop thorough understandings of bilingual children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use in combination, in order to note how they are incorporated in their context of language use. This will highlight the interplay the three aspects have upon one another, and identify how educators can support bilingual children's language learning in preschool.

The following chapter examines the current state of research concerning the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use of language learners, and reviews strategies presently recommended for supporting bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL.

2. The Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Research relating to the topic of early childhood bilingualism and English as an additional language (EAL) learning has derived from the social science fields of education, psychology, linguistics, sociology, and speech pathology. Over several decades, understandings of language learning and teaching have been presented by numerous theorists to detail and debate what language is, what language learning involves, and how language is best taught (Bourdieu 1991, Chomsky 2006; Halliday 2004; Krashen 1987; Piaget 1959; Skinner 1957; Swain 2000, 2005; Vygotsky 1962, 1978). Theories, relevant to the study of bilingual preschoolers learning EAL draw from both English-as-a-first language, English as a foreign language (EFL), and English as a second/additional language (ESL/EAL) learning research. What stands out from the evolution of theories is that language use depends on context. This chapter reviews literature from national and international Honours, Masters and Doctoral theses, academics' research, journals, research-based or theory-based texts; practitioner books, research reviews, conference proceedings, experts' informative DVDs, and governmental websites.

The first section begins with a historical account of the study of language, to explore past and present attention to social, emotional and functional language focuses in the evolution of language learning theories. The second section details the linguistic processes and phases of learning EAL in early childhood. The following three sections divide into areas to highlight knowledge surrounding the contexts of social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use of language learners. Social interactionist perspectives are explicated and peers and their influence are detailed. Emotions are defined and past research incorporating emotions in language learning is detailed. Halliday's (2004) seven initial functions are exemplified and functional language studies involving young children and preschoolers are detailed. The limited amount of contemporary research investigating a combined focus upon bilingual preschoolers' functional language use, in relation to children's emotional challenges and social interactions, is reiterated.

The final focus of the literature review concentrates on the educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL. This section introduces the notion of cultural and linguistic capital to note how societal values impact upon language teaching. Practices currently recommended for supporting bilingual preschoolers that address social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use are explored.

2.2 A historical overview of language learning research

Past research on the topic of language learning originally focused on ***behaviorist*** principles and isolated linguistic aspects of language learning, outside of the social, emotional and functional language context. Traditionally, language learning research directed attention towards the form of language and its syntax (grammar), and concentrated on the rules governing language and its acquisition. Behaviorist principles emphasise explicit rote-style learning, and often incorporate chanting and singing as a means to memorise language through imitation and operant conditioning (Fellowes & Oakley 2014; Skinner 1957). ***Nativists*** later proposed a language acquisition device, as research drew more attention to the role of the brain in language learning (Chomsky 2006). Krashen and Terrell (1983) instigated a change in the 80s toward a more ***naturalist*** approach to learning and teaching language, with a focus on *comprehensible input*—language understood by learners. Comprehensible input and the abstract formula of 'i+1' refer to the notion that people learn language receptively when it is only slightly ahead of their current level of understanding. The 'i' in i+1 represents the learner's current independent level of ability and the '+1' represents the input provided from others slightly above a learner's current level of understanding (contextual cues are seen to support comprehensible input). In addition to comprehensible input, Krashen and Terrell's (1983) monitor model of five hypotheses developed awareness in the final hypothesis of the influence of affect.

The ***social interactionist*** approach to researching language noted the impact of peers, parents and educators during purposeful and functional language exchanges (Halliday 2004; Vygotsky 1962, 1978). Researchers, such as Swain (1985, 2000, 2005, 2011, 2013), started to detract attention from input and receptive learning, and instead concentrated on the role of language learners' productive use of language, or *output*. Swain (1985, 2000) highlighted that productive speech serves many benefits such as '*hypothesis testing*' (trialing ways to express oneself), '*noticing*' (when a speaker realises the errors or gaps they may have in their speaking ability), '*receiving feedback*' from others (which enables repair or corrections to be made to one's own speech), and '*automaticity*' (increasing the speaker's fluency in the future

due to instantaneous recall of rehearsed vocabulary and pronunciation) (see also Doughty & Long 2005).

In the field of SLA research, there has been a divide among researchers—some emphasise the value of productive speech, or output (Gass 1997, Gass & Mackey 2004; Swain 1985), whereas others emphasise receptive language or comprehensible input (Chomsky 2006; Krashen & Terrell 1983). Productive speech helps children to pay attention, memorise, and recall bits of information. Swain (2000, 2005) argues that respondent's' feedback to productive speech encourages learners to refine their utterances, should their original attempt be unsuccessful. This process of adjustment, or 'pushed output' (Swain 2000, 2005) can lead to improvements in pronunciation or grammatical re-formulation. The act of vocalising increases the potential that a language learner will be responded to; thus, vocalising affords further extensions of communicative dialogue, increased opportunities to sustain a conversation, and opportunities to practise speaking. De La Fuente (2002) defends productive speech as not only a product of learning, but also a crucial part of the process. In addition to output, Swain (2011, 2013) also credited emotional influences upon language learning.

Attention to ***emotions*** gained momentum following Swain's (2011, 2013) 'effect of affect' research, MacIntytre's (2003) 'willingness to communicate' research, and Horwitz's (2001) foreign language speaking anxiety research. Few researchers have studied emotions at the outset of research projects with preschool aged bilingual learners (Shao 2005; Strand et al. 2011), although, many researchers have observed and mentioned bilingual children's emotional challenges when reporting studies (Bligh 2014; Clarke 2011; Dixon & Fraser 1986; Drury 2007; Tabors 2008). Within the emotions-considerate research literature, there seems to be inconsistencies in assumptions regarding whether negative emotions such as stress, anxiety or embarrassment hinder, inspire or stunt language learning. Swain's (2013) research highlights the benefit that embarrassment can have in prompting a learner's determination to ensure they repair and build their vocabulary so to avoid public humiliation.

Research investigating bilingual preschoolers' emotions at the outset of studies, in combination with their social interactions and functional language use, has not been evidenced in contemporary studies. The *systemic functional linguistic* (SFL) approach has also rarely been adopted in research with bilingual preschoolers learning EAL.

2.2.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics

The SFL perspective on language development has become popular in contemporary times. It draws primarily from the work of Halliday (2004)—a British-born Australian systemic functional linguist from 1969 onwards—as well as collaborative work by Halliday and Hasan

(e.g. 1985), and other researchers such as Malinowski (1994, originally published in 1923), and Martin (e.g. 2016).

The act of speaking a language, either a first or an additional language, is influenced by a child's '*context of situation*' and '*context of culture*' (Halliday & Hasan 1985): two notions which derive from a SFL perspective of language learning, as demonstrated in **Figure 2-1**.

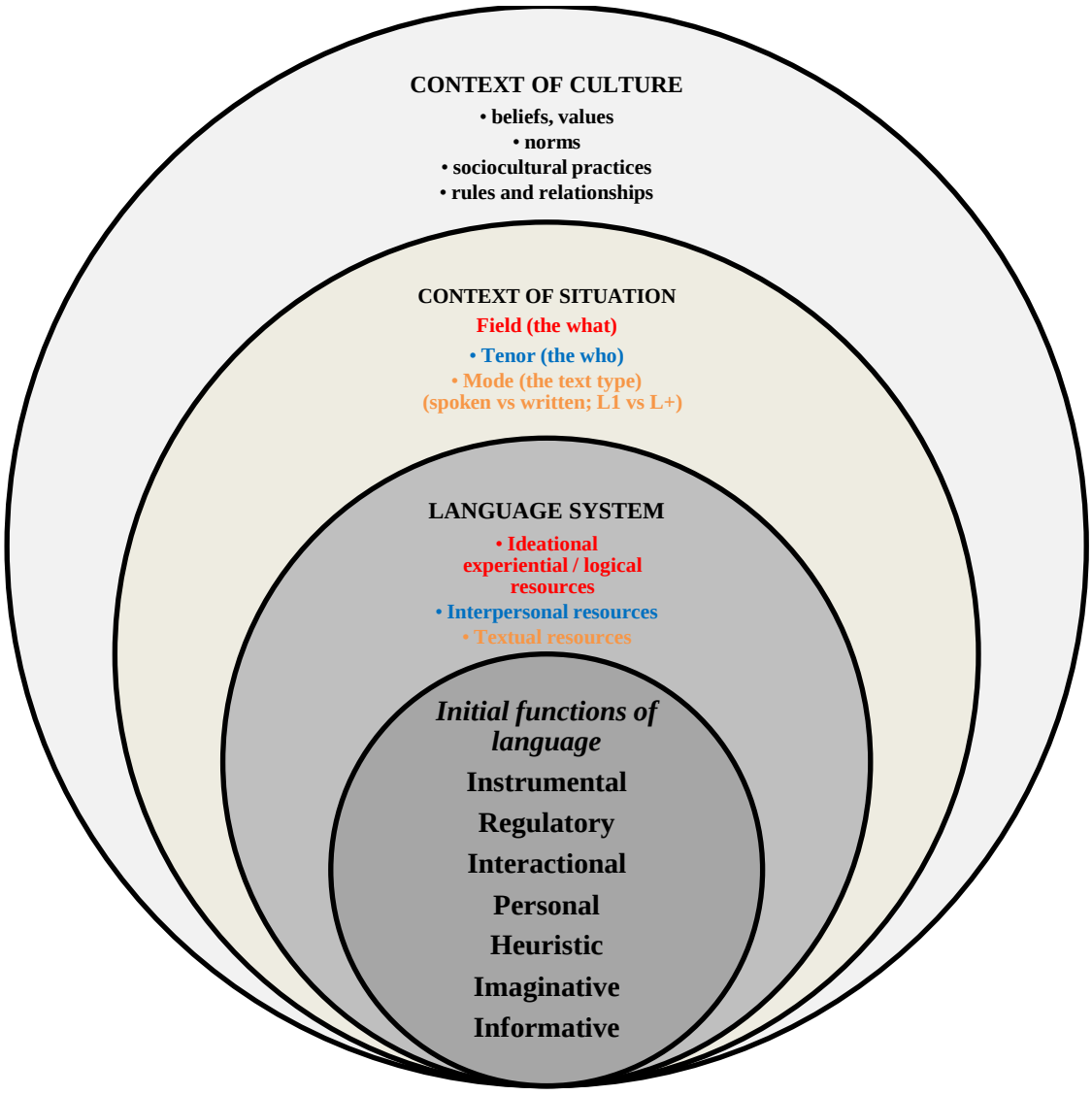


Figure 2-1: The systemic functional linguistics perspective on language use—drawing from concepts presented in the collective works of Halliday (2004) and Halliday and Hasan (1985)

A context can be understood as 'that which surrounds' an act or event such as like speech. However, others define context in association with the Latin root word *contextere*, meaning 'that which weaves together', as well as being the conditions of a system (Cole 2017, pp. 85–87).

> ‘An “act in its context” understood in terms of the weaving metaphor requires a relational interpretation of mind; objects and contexts arise together as part of a single bio-social-cultural process of development.’ (Cole 2017, p. 87).

> ‘The frequency with which metaphors of weaving, threads, ropes, and like conjunction with contextual approaches to human thinking is quite striking.’(Cole 2017, p. 87).

This study highlights the context of culture and context of situation, as well as the social and emotional context in relation to bilingual children’s speech.

The context of situation

The notion of the context of situation originates from ethnographic research (Malinowski 1994). The context of situation, otherwise known as the register, incorporates the *field* (what is going on externally and internally—the content), the *tenor* (how the relationship children have with the people children talk to affects their speech) and the *mode* (the textual component: from spoken to written) (Halliday 2004). In the present study, the mode of spoken utterances was in focus. The continua in **Figure 2-2** represent the field, tenor and mode.

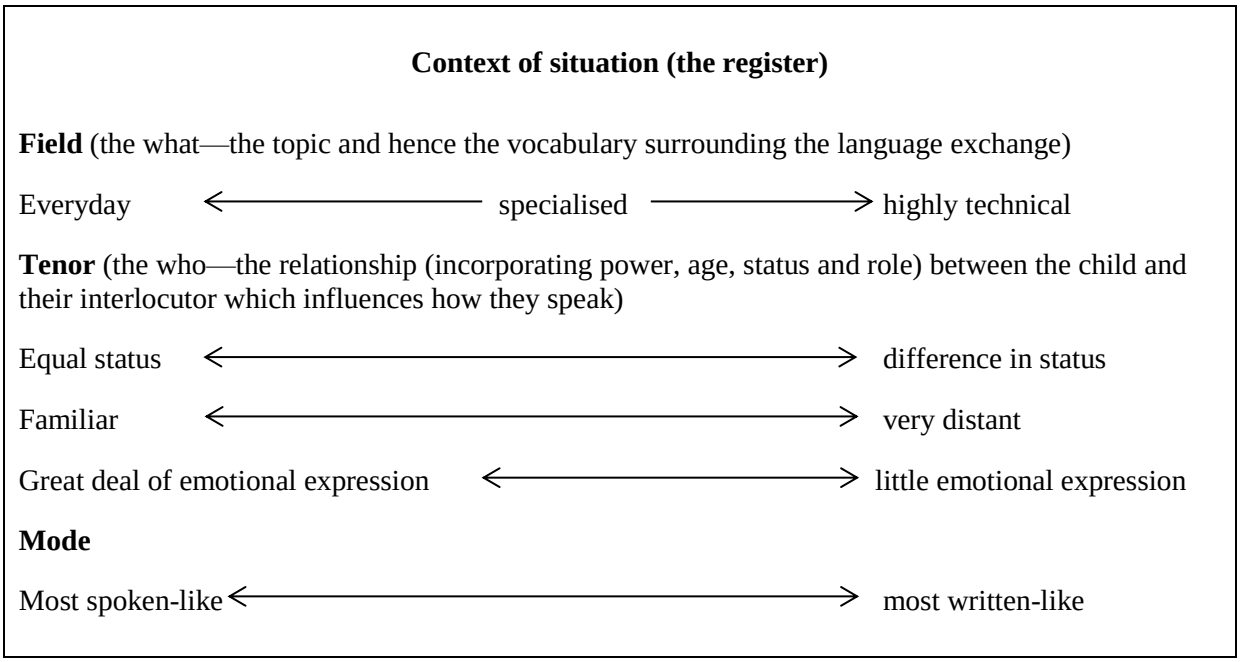


Figure 2-2: Continuums of field, tenor and mode (originating from Halliday (2004): An adaptation of the figure presented by the Department of Education and Children's Services (2010)

Three metafunctions of language have been introduced by Halliday (2004): ideational, interpersonal, and textual. The *ideational metafunction* relates to the field and incorporates ‘the speaker reflecting on [their] environment’, ‘relating to the content of what is said’ (Halliday 2004, 69); the *interpersonal metafunction* relates to the tenor and incorporates ‘the speaker acting on [their] environment’ (Halliday 2004, p. 102) and ‘adopting a role’ (Halliday 2004, 70); and the *textual metafunction*, relates to the mode and the internal

cohesion of the text. The ideational metafunction is divided into: the *experiential* (what is happening outside the person in relation to their circumstance) and the *ideational* or *logical* (what is happening inside the person's mind—their thinking). Although emotions have not been a specific focus in the SFL perspective, the present study explores the relationship between emotions and the context of situation and context of culture. Considerable past research, has been devoted to studying linguistic aspects of bilingual preschoolers utterances in isolation, rather than in context—incorporating language learners' social and emotional worlds. The context of culture, 'the broader background against which the text is to be interpreted' (Halliday & Hasan 1985, p. 46) has, however, been considered.

The context of culture

Halliday (1975, p. iii) argues that: the '*context of culture*', the meaning manifested in the social system, or the environment of 'social man'', influences language use. The context of culture is described as the broader or wider background influencing texts (Halliday & Hasan 1985, pp. 46–47). Influences, such as the practices used in the home, and practices used in the preschool, as well as customs, traditions, and values—perhaps relating to ethnicity, or specific associations with certain community members—impact upon language use in accordance with the context of culture.

In explaining culture, Halliday and Hasan offer that…

> 'People do these things on these occasions and attach these meanings and values to them; this is what culture is.' (Halliday & Hasan 1985, p. 46)

The notion of culture relates to ethnicity, backgrounds, and heritages of people, yet also extends to include more localised views of culture encompassing the rules of the communities people belong to. Culture relates to customs and values practiced within one's home, family and community. Communities, such as preschool communities, with their preschool cultural norms, influence everyday practices, including language use. The notion of 'the context of culture' originates from Malinowski's (1994), ethnographic research with Melanesian tribes in Eastern New Guinea. The context of culture surrounds the entire text and as Malinowski (1994, p. 6) explains, 'things-to-be-expressed changes with the level of culture, with geographical, social and economic conditions…'. Emotional purposes for speaking, however, have not previously been emphasised.

Halliday's initial functions of language

The seven purposes or initial functions of language, proposed by Halliday (2004), are the instrumental function (expressing wants), regulatory function (commanding and requesting), interactional function (using social skills), personal function (talking about oneself), heuristic

function (questioning), imaginative function (role play and singing) and informative function (making statements that carry information). They are presented in more detail in section 2.6 Functional language use.

Prior to the systemic functional linguistics approach to language learning, researchers focused upon universal stage theories, to identify the sequences of learning to speak an additional language. Such studies have not drawn attention to the purposes of speech but rather to the structuring of utterances, telegraphic and formulaic speech and the phenomenon of dilingual discourse.

2.3 Past research on the process of additional language learning

A number of stage theories exist to explain the sequences in the process of additional language learning (Clarke 2009; Cummins 2008; Krashen 1978; Tabors 2008). For instance, Cummins' (1979; 2008) identified two types of proficiency levels in second language learners. These were: basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Cummins suggested that BICS could be acquired in 1-3 years whereas CALP took about 5-7 years according to his study of immigrant students learning French immersion in school. In the present study, early childhood theories on *stages*, or *periods*, of second or additional language learning are presented.

2.3.1 Dilingual discourse

Between the 1970s and 1990s, a great deal of research aimed to identify norms in early childhood EAL progression and methods children used to communicate (Clarke 1996, 2009; Hakuta 1976; Saville-Troike 1987; Tabors 1987, 2008). *Dilingual discourse*', a first language discourse whereby children speak their home language to people who do not understand it, was identified in Saville-Troike's (1987) case study investigation in which children were dressed in two-way microphones. Tabors' (2008, p. 38) also noted dilingual discourse in her study of Leandro, a Portuguese speaker, who communicated (in Portuguese) that he did not want any of the yoghurt a non-Portuguese speaker offered him. Dilingual discourse has been found to be successful on some occasions, such as in the following excerpt, when 'ample non-verbal cues present give meaning to the verbal context' (Saville-Troike 1987, p. 90).

> Child: My Shoelace is loose. (spoken in Mandarin)
>
> Teacher: Here you go. (spoken in English as she ties it)
>
> (Saville-Troike 1987, p. 92)

But it can be successful on other occasions, such as in this next excerpt.

Didi: Teacher, go get water. (spoken in Mandarin)
Teacher: What do you want?
Didi: Drink Water. [‘He shui’ in Mandarin]
Teacher: He shui. Um.
Didi: Teacher, go get water. Drink water. (spoken in Mandarin)

(Saville-Troike 1987, p. 92)

Research has uncovered that when a child realises that the home language is not understood, they may abandon it, and enter *the silent period*, a period identified by Krashen (1982) when children cease to talk but learn by listening and understanding comprehensible input. Not all children encounter the silent period—some continue talking using only the limited English they have acquired to date, sometimes just to themselves—this is p*rivate speech*. Saville-Troike’s (1987, 2012, p. 122) research with a five-year-old Japanese boy provides an example of a child talking to themselves in private speech.

a) ‘I finished. I have finished. I am finished I’m finished’

b) ‘I want. I paper. Paper. Paper. I want paper’.

Private speech may come before public speech or other productive periods of language learning.

2.3.2 Periods and stages of learning to speak English as an additional language

Periods of learning EAL have been the identified by Tabors (1987, 2008), whereas Clarke (1992, 1996, 1999, 2002, 2009, 2011) uses the term *stages*. Both are prominent contributors to research with young children learning EAL. Tabors’ (1987; 2008, p. 16-17) six-month ethnolinguistic study of bilingual preschoolers’ ‘development of competence’ in learning to speak English involved the collection of 106 hours of data in Northern California. She observed children several mornings a week for two years in an English-language early childhood classroom with 23 two years and nine months to five years old, and three educators: two English-only speaking educators and one native Spanish-speaking educator. The children spoke a range of languages at home (Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, Thai, Portuguese, Russian and French). They were followed about as they played and field notes, photographs and audio recordings were collected, although movie-mode footage was not. Tabors’ (1987, 2008) objective to document the process of second language acquisition among children concluded that there were four periods involved in the ‘developmental sequence of English language learning’, as described in **Figure 2-3**.

TABORS' PERIODS	DESCRIPTORS OF SKILL/S
1. 'Home language use'	• The child speaks their first language as if it is understood to non-speakers of their home language.
2. 'Non-Verbal Period'	• The child spectates and develops receptive vocabulary. • They communicate non-verbally (although they may rehearse language quietly to themselves and echo or repeat others in *private speech* (Tabors 2008, p. 48).
3. 'Telegraphic or Formulaic Speech'	• The child communicates verbally in public. • ***Telegraphic*:** The child uses one or few content words to express an entire utterance. • ***Formulaic*:** The child uses unanalysed chunks of words that have been overheard. • The child may use unintelligible filler words to give the impression of a full sentence using English-like sounds or approximations (Tabors 2008, p. 52).
4. 'Productive Language Use'	• The child begins to construct their own sentences with improving grammar and expression over time; they make many mistakes in the beginning.

Figure 2-3: The periods of English language learning (summarised from Tabors 2008)

The labels for Tabors' periods (2008, p. 64) detail the sequence of strategies that children use to communicate in English; she also emphasises that the final three periods are cumulative, meaning the skills children adopt continue to be used as others are added.

Before children develop their productive ability to use sentences, they often communicate through *telegraphic speech* (Tabors 2008). Telegraphic speech, entails using one word utterances to communicate whole thoughts. Vygotsky (1962, p. 126) originally noted, in first language learning research, that a single word can actually represent an entire sentence in the early stages of learning language, and Halliday (2004, p. 4) who researched *protolanguage*—which 'consists of a semantics and phonology (or other expressive means) with no lexicogrammar in between'—similarly noted that one word utterances represent entire meanings. *Formulaic speech*, on the other hand, also studied in depth over the course of a year by Wong Fillmore in 1976 with five Spanish five-and-a-half to eight-year-olds, occurs when a child uses known or rehearsed chunks of language. The 'I want...' formula is a common example. Formulaic speech involves using 'sentence stems' where children can easily substitute different words within their sentence to alter the meaning of their utterance.

An Australia-based explanation of bilingual children's acquisition of English has been presented by Clarke (1992, 1996, 1999, 2002, 2009), who offers a similar four-stage-sequence (as shown in **Figure 2-4**) to Tabors (2008). Clarke's (2011) stages are labelled: '*New to English*', '*Becoming familiar with English*', '*Becoming a confident user of English*', and '*Demonstrated competency as a speaker of English*'. These labels use descriptive terms

to indicate the child's ability to use English; they indicate the stage a child is at rather than which strategy they are using, in contrast to Tabors' (2008) 'periods'. Confidence and competence is highlighted, for example, in the third and fourth stage. Clarke's (1996, p. 1) thesis investigated a small cohort of four Vietnamese-speaking bilingual speakers in a bilingual preschool in Victoria, Australia, over an 11-month time span, to identify, describe and detail the nature of children's EAL language acquisition. The study employed video-recording and attached microphones to children.

CLARKE'S STAGES	An overview of the child's oral language development
1.'New to English'	*This involves:* • a silent period (lasting months to a year) • a non-verbal period • following non-verbal cues and copying others
2.'Becoming familiar with English'	*This involves:* • comprehending more than one can say. • using single word to two word utterances (telegraphic) • using formulas often overheard in the routine (formulaic) • following some verbal instructions
3. 'Becoming a confident user of English'	*This involves:* • increased vocabulary and fluency • participation in social language interactions • displaying an increase in grammatical errors due to an increase in verbal experimentation
4. 'Demonstrated competency as a speaker of English'.	*This involves:* • being able to engage competently in everyday social conversations • better comprehension • taking an active part in conversations

Figure 2-4: The stages of English language learning (summarised from Clarke 2009)

Similarities can be seen between Clarke's (2009) and Tabors' (2008) stages and periods. Tabors' (2008) research additionally highlights several underlying factors which influence children's progress when learning an additional language: *motivation*, *exposure*, and *personality*. She writes:

> 'as long as children are placed in communicative situations in which they can continue their home language or in which they can go without speaking the second language, they may choose not to undertake the difficult task of learning a second language.' (Tabors 2008, p. 76)

The above statement establishes a connection between motivation and social interactions. Social interactions provide children with language exposure. Personality is also explained by

Tabors (2008) as relating to a child being shy vs outgoing. Motivation and personality may therefore be linked to social interactions and emotions.

2.4 Social interactions

In the last half a century, educational research has provided ample support for the assertion that social interactions influence additional language learning (Fassler 1998, 2003; Hirschler 1991, 1994; Soderman & Oshio 2008; Wong Fillmore 1976; Vygotsky 1978). Whilst constructivists focus on the learning of the individual, social constructivists or researchers, who draw from sociocultural theory, focus on the wider lens of cultural influence in the broader social system.

2.4.1 Sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theory (SCT) originates from Vygotsky's cultural-historical theory which emphasises the influences of a child's culture and prior experiences upon their learning. In further explaining, '[t]he internalization of socially rooted and historically developed activities is the distinguishing feature of human psychology' (Vygotsky 1978, p. 57). Through interaction, '[a]n interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological), and then inside the child (intrapsychological)' (Vygotsky 1978, p. 57).

A sociocultural approach to learning draws from psychology (with a focus on cognition) and anthropology (with a focus on culture) (Gregory, Long & Volk 2004). A sociocultural approach focus on

> …the role of the mediator (a teacher, adult, more knowledgeable sibling or peer) in initiating children into new cultural practices or guiding them in the learning of new skills. (Gregory, Long & Volk 2004, p. 7)

SCT sees human learning as largely a social process influenced by the culture of a given society. Rogoff (2003, p. 50) explains that 'the efforts of individuals are not separate from the kinds of activities in which they engage and the kinds of institutions of which they are part'. In order to 'understand children we must be cognisant of the social, cultural and historical practices in which they live and learn' (Hedegaard & Fleer (2008, p. 1). Gregory and Ruby (2011, p. 163), who researched family and community literacies of Bangladeshi families in London, call for studies on peoples' stories to be viewed not only from their personal and interpersonal relationships but also from the cultural, historical and political circumstances in which people live. The context of culture within SFL focuses on the impact of culture specifically on speech, whereas in SCT the attention to culture is a much broader focus in

learning and development. Culture can be seen as practices or as information (Scarino & Liddicoat 2009, p. 19). Bligh (2014), who researched bilingual children's learning of English through peripheral participation, drew from sociocultural theory in connection with a focus on communities of practice. She draws from Wenger's (1998, p. 3) belief that learning occurred 'in the context of our lived experience of participation in the world'.

Further elaboration on sociocultural theory and the use of cultural-institutional, interpersonal and personal lenses of focus (Rogoff 2003) is provided in the methodology chapter. In brief, the cultural-institutional lens draws attention to the artefacts and processes/policies/practices associated with bilingual children's experiences, the interpersonal lens draws attention to the social interactions, and the personal lens draws attention to the child's actions. The following section highlights additional social interactionists' perspectives and details the zone of proximal development, scaffolding, and the influence of peers on learning.

2.4.2 Social interactionist perspectives

A *social interactionist* perspective emphasises the influence of other people on individuals' learning and has been incorporated into a number of research projects on bilingual preschoolers in recent years (e.g. Bligh 2014; Scrafton & Whitington 2015; Shao 2005; UNESCO 2011). Hedegaard and Fleer (2008, p. 1) emphasise that 'we need to be aware of the social situation of children's development'. Social interactions influence children's learning and language use.

Social interactionists highlight that language is a tool or system for 'communication' between people (Vygotsky 1978, p. 113); arguably, 'people do not talk in order to use language, people use language in order to talk' (Scarino & Liddicoat 2009, p. 38). Interactionist theorists including Vygotsky (1962, 1978), Halliday (2004), Painter (2005), Rogoff (2003), Long (1996), Swain (2013) and Gass (1997), view language learning as essentially involving social and purposeful communication, whereas earlier behaviorists and nativists focused more on the internal processes of the brain. Long's (1996, p. 451) *interaction hypothesis*, as with Swain's (2000) *pushed output*, highlights the valuable process of language learners' participation and *negotiation for meaning* with native speakers or with more competent interlocutors. Long (1996, p. 452) proposes that negotiation of meaning through social interactions 'facilitate acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capabilities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways'. Strategies to achieve negotiation for meaning with language learners include '*repetitions*, *extensions*, *reformulations*, *rephrasings*, *expansions* and *recasts*' (Long 1996, p. 452). Long's (1996) recommendations for extending learning relate to Vygotsky's ZPD and MKO concepts (these

are described in the following two sections) as Long focuses on the influence of a more skilled partner who extends a learner. Interestingly, neither Long nor Vygotsky drew attention to the influence of less skilled language partners who support language learning, which raises the question as to whether *less knowledgeable others* (LKOs) impact on bilingual preschoolers' learning of English and if so, how?

The zone of proximal development

According to Vygotsky's *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), learning precedes development and learning is dependent on *more knowledgeable others* (MKOs) or experts who can extend learners' skills (Vygotsky 1978). The ZPD refers to the distance between a child's actual development level and their potential development level which is achieved with the support of a 'more knowledgeable other' (Vygotsky 1962).

> It is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.
> (Vygotsky 1978, p. 86)

The ZPD describes the relationship between a novice and an expert and focuses on the future child, the skills they are soon to attain, rather than solely the child's independent capabilities at the present time (Bodrova & Leong 2007, p. 42). Although the ZPD seems similar to Krashen's i+1, by way of abstract formula to highlight the advancing prompt to extend learning, the two concepts are each rooted in different paradigms (Swain 2011, p. 82). Vygotsky's takes on a social interactionist perspective and focuses on general learning, whereas Krashen's stems more from a nativist position and attends to language input and intake specifically. A number of studies on bilingual children's experiences in learning EAL have drawn from Vygotsky's ZPD and MKO concepts (Bligh 2014; Scrafton & Whitington 2015). As mentioned previously, Vygotsky's research did not consider the supportive influence of novices, or LKOs, as they influence more expert learners. Van Lier (1996), however, emphasised less capable peers when researching older children and adults, by suggesting that:

> Productive work in the ZPD can be accomplished by learners using a variety of different resources, including:
> (a) assistance from capable peers or adults
> (b) interaction with equal peers
> (c) interaction with less capable peers (in accordance with the Roman dictum IJocendo discimus — (we learn by teaching))
> (d) inner resources.
>
> (Van Lier 1996, p. 193)

Edgar Dale (1946) and adaptions of his 'cone of experience' in education, although contested, have also highlighted that learners learn when they do the thing they are learning and when they teacher others (Letrud & Hernes 2016). Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD view suggests that learning is generally enhanced or moved forward by the assistance of someone more experienced. Interactions with LKOs require further investigation in education generally, as well as in the context of bilingual preschoolers.

Scaffolding

Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD and the role of MKOs pre-dates yet complements Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974, p. 90) research on '*scaffolding*', a term used to describe the support adults and other MKOs give learners. 'Scaffolding', as a learning metaphor, literally draws parallels with the beams of support used in building industries during construction—the beams are taken away once built fixtures are strong enough to bear weight on their own. The purpose of scaffolding is to provide support until independent strength is achieved. In education, scaffolding refers to the strong assistance MKOs: parents, teachers, and more capable peers, give learners so that a learner can achieve something that they cannot otherwise do by themselves. The provision of scaffolded support is reduced over time as learners master new skills for themselves. According to Wood, Bruner and Ross (1974, p. 98), scaffolding involves:

- *recruitment* (creating interest for the child)
- *reduction of freedom* (simplifying the task)
- *direction maintenance* (keeping the child motivated)
- *marking critical features* (accentuating certain features)
- *frustration control* (reducing stress); and
- *demonstration* (modelling).

Frustration control is one aspect of scaffolding that draws attention to reducing children's emotional challenges. However, the role of peers in supporting frustration control is an area yet to be explored in research involving bilingual preschoolers and their peers.

2.4.3 Peers and their influence

Numerous studies have consistently found that peers positively influence children's EAL learning, through acts such as modelling competent use of English, and providing conversation (Hirschler 1992, 1994; Fassler 1998, 2003; Olmedo 2003; Palermo & Mikulski 2014; Smith 2006; Soderman & Oshio 2008). A US micro-ethnographic intervention study with five children (Hirschler 1991, 1994) fostered debate on the role of peers by studying the social interactions of three to five-year-old children in a classroom where half were native English speakers and the other two quarters were Khmer and Spanish speakers learning

English. The topic of age-mates' help to second language learners was investigated by collecting audio recordings and field notes. Hirschler (1991, 1994) primarily observed children's natural interactions and then later set up an intervention aimed to increase opportunities for second language learners to interact verbally with their peers.

Strategies to interact with English language learners (ELLs) were incorporated in the intervention phase of Hirschler's (1991, 1994) study. Her study encouraged children to use strategies of: *initiation, re-initiation, slower rate, enunciation, requesting clarification*, and *recasting* and *expansion.* These are similar to Long's (1996) suggestions in negotiation for meaning. The post-intervention result revealed that children increased their initiation with target children, increased their utterances and turn taking, and increased interactions with the Khmer-speaking children after the intervention. Before the intervention, the study found that English native-speaking children initiated interactions mostly with Spanish speakers rather than Khmer speakers, and noted that girls generally initiated conversations more frequently with ELLs than did boys. Hirschler's (1991, 1994) study demonstrated that peers can be encouraged to assist additional language learners by providing more opportunities for language practice and verbal interaction in the target language.

Social and cognitive aspects of language learning were in focus in Wong Fillmore's (1976) study of five Spanish-speaking five-and-a-half to eight-year-old children, over the period of one school year. She enquired about the role of social factors during the language acquisition process. Progress was found to rely on children's ability to establish and maintain social contact with people (Wong Fillmore 1976, p. vii). Another more recent Spanish/English bilingual preschooler study (Palermo & Mikulski 2014), utilised naturalistic observation to research positive peer interactions (sharing, helping and cooperating) and their positive impact on 143 children's expressive language learning of English vocabulary; 18 research assistants were employed to collect and analyse data. Recommendations included teaching bilingual children English phrases to invite others to play with them or to join in with others in order to promote inclusion, particularly those who were excluded due to their limited English proficiency.

Peer talk during board game play was explored in an intervention study by Smith (2006, p. 431) who noted that peers benefit English language learners 'by providing responsive and critical feedback to one another's errors' as well as building on one another's utterances by *repairing, recasting* and *extending* language. This intervention study relates back to the benefits of output mentioned earlier with reference to Swain's research (2000, 2005),

highlighting that productive language invites feedback, provides more practice at speaking the target language, and develops automaticity.

Peer support and its benefits for 'getting into English' in the American urban context was highlighted in Fassler's (1998, p. 379, 2003) research with six focus kindergarteners. The six-month participant observation type study combined field notes and audio recordings in a preschool with 31 ESL speakers and one monolingual English-speaking teacher. The contexts in which focus children came to speak English were documented for children who did not have exposure to proficient native English speakers, other than their teacher. Findings revealed that despite not encountering competent peers who spoke native English, through English as lingua franca, children still made progress. Like Wong Fillmore's work (1976), Fassler's findings demonstrated that '[m]any early uses of English were embedded in children's sociability, their eagerness to communicate and their efforts to cultivate friendships' (1998, p. 390). Both researchers also noted that the friendships developed were based on location arrangements or groupings of children who were seated together, or children who shared the same first languages. Fassler (1998, p. 391) borrowed from Wong Fillmore (1982a), the term, '*isolated islands of first language use*', to describe children's formations of peer relationships based on being able to communicate in a shared home language. With regards to social interactions, Fassler's case study (1998) also reported that children can be more comfortable talking among themselves than with adult educators.

Reports that matched first-language peers tend to play together frequently were made in Clarke's (1996) research with Vietnamese children, and Tabors' (1987, p. 13; 2008, p. 17) research with Korean children (which questioned 'what social groups do the target children become part of?'). This is consistent with Fassler's (1998) findings that children often identified with peers of the same culture and first language. '*Tight groups*' were also noted in Dixon and Fraser's (1986, p. 34) study that indicated that strong first language peer groups remained intact for the first few months of preschool. Scrafton and Whitington's (2015) observational case study, where bilingual children took photographs of their play spaces in a South Australian preschool, found that children with peers who spoke their home language had better access to play than those who did not.

Territorial behaviours of peers were identified in Soderman and Oshio's (2008) research which studied the social and cultural contexts of second language acquisition in young English/Mandarin bilingual children in a US dual immersion program. They collected over 100 two to three-hour observations over the course of a year and found that peers can sometimes be possessive of one another and that girls have more social adjustment issues

than boys. Olmedo's (2003) US research in a bilingual kindergarten with Spanish-English bilinguals identified peers as mediators of language learning, as well as conversational partners who can translate for one another in a bilingual context. Peer relationships also had an important influence upon children's cultural adjustment in Millar's (2011) Australian interview research with Korean five to eight-year-olds and mothers. Mothers reported that 'strong friendship groups were crucial to their children's academic success' (p. 15).

The aforementioned research substantiates general agreement that peer relations make a strong impact on preschoolers' learning by modelling correct English use, sharing use a common language, or providing opportunities for conversation. Alanis (2011, 2013, p. 46) who introduces the term '*bilingual pairing*', recommends that peer interactions in dual language learning environments can also reduce children's fear of making mistakes; this can be related to Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974, p. 98) notion of frustration control and to other research on emotional challenges. Tabors (2008, p. 34) further asserts that 'communicative competence and social competence are inextricably interrelated', while others suggest that peers interact on 'equal footing' (Berk 2012, p. 372) and provide conversational opportunities that would otherwise not be available with adults due to low staff to high child ratios. Peers can be considered as equals, on a level playing field, as opposed to adults where there is a power imbalance (Ascherman 2001, p. 65). Although, contrasts between the influences of adults and peers have been theoretically noted, how different interlocutors influence bilingual preschoolers' productive and purposeful speech requires deeper investigation.

2.4.4 The need for research investigating bilingual preschoolers' social interactions in combination with functional language use and emotions

Few studies have investigated bilingual preschoolers' social interactions (with attention to emotional challenges and functional language) with a range of interlocutors such as:

- bilingually-matched peers
- bilingually-matched educators
- English-only speaking peers
- English-only speaking educators
- more knowledgeable others (MKOs)
- less knowledgeable others (LKOs)
- age-mates; and
- adults

A recent study in Auckland, New Zealand, however, investigated the teacher and peer support of 12 lone speakers of home languages other than English attending early childhood centres (Schofield 2011). Preschoolers were observed in 90 minute snapshots at a time, for approximately six occasions per participant, while field notes and running records were collected over nine months. The number of interactions that all of the focus children had with

teachers and peers were counted and initiators were noted. Five girls were found to interact more with peers than teachers and five boys and two girls were found to interact more with teachers than peers. Girls were hence found to be overall chattier with peers whereas boys were chattier with adults. The study also identified '*special friends*'—regular peers 'whom the participant sought out and specifically chose to play with…' (Schofield 2011, p. 125).

Investigating the experiences of bilingual preschoolers, both those with and without bilingual support, is needed to note how the context of situation impacts on children's language use. Attention to both scenarios could highlight suitable strategies and ways to differentiate approaches for individual children. Past research has commonly drawn attention to the social and emotional struggle of preschoolers when they do not encounter anyone at preschool who speaks their first language (Shao 2005; Tabors 2008). More research is needed to explore bilingual preschoolers' social interactions and emotional challenges in circumstances when children do encounter bilingually-matched peers and educators.

2.5 Emotional challenges

The majority of research involving bilingual children has addressed linguistic and social aspects of language learning, often as separate focuses—emotions have rarely been prioritised. Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2015, p. 73), however, argues that '[e]motional responses are mediated by culture' and impact on language learning. Vygotsky (1962), who studied the relationship between thought and language in early childhood, proposed some credit to emotions when he explained that:

> Thought has its origins in the motivating spheres of consciousness, a sphere that includes our inclinations and needs, our interests and impulses, and our affect and emotions. (Vygotsky 1987, p. 282)

A thorough account of the history of research on emotions incorporating Vygotskian ideas on thought and language is provided by Holodynski (2013).

The current research literature on the topic of emotions is divided here into the following categories:

- research on emotions in general (Darwin 1965; Ekman 1993)
- research on emotions in language learning with mature-aged bilingual populations via interviews and questionnaires incorporating the affective filter, second language speaking anxiety, willingness to communicate and the effect of affect (Krashen & Terrell 1983; Horwitz 2001; MacIntyre 2002, 2003; Swain 2013)

- observational research on general emotional challenges during the preschool experience, noting separation anxiety and other forms of anxiety and shyness in early childhood in general (Bowlby 1973; Glennon & Weisz 1978)

- emotional challenges experienced by young language learners:

    - ethnographic or case study research involving bilingual preschoolers which discuss emotional challenges in final reports (although such studies *did not* intentionally set out to investigate emotional experiences specifically) (Ball 2012; Bligh 2014; Clarke 1996 2011; Dixon & Fraser 1986; Drury 2007; Fassler 1998; Millar 2011; Richard 2007; Tabors 2008)

    - case study and other forms of observational research on bilingual preschoolers that *intentionally* incorporates emotions into research designs (Kang, Haddad, Chen, & Greenberger 2014; Richard 2007; Shao 2005; Strand et al. 2011)

2.5.1 Research on emotions in general

Studies on emotion in education have been slow to emerge. The subjectivity and complexity required when studying emotions provides a possible explanation as to why few researchers have combined a focus on emotions, social interactions and functional language learning in past studies. Swain (2013) notes that emotions are difficult to research and often require tuning into people's own stories. Perhaps the lack of attention to emotions is also due to emotions, in general, being complex to define (Plutchik 2001; Swain 2013). Studying emotions with young bilingual children relies upon interpretation, particularly when children are maturing their ability to express themselves verbally in the language of the researcher. Interpretations or translations also run the risk of being influenced by bias.

Emotions are commonly linked to terms such as '*feelings*', '*affect*' or '*states*' which are deciphered from their arousal in the brain, often in a response to a circumstance, a relationship with an object or person, or to some form of anticipation (Kagan 2007; Holodynski 2013; Leont'ev 2011, Plutchik 2001). Research on the brain indicates that the amygdala, the area responsible for choosing fight or flight, is also responsible for memory, emotion and action. The amygdala 'is involved in a variety of emotional responses, including responding to linguistic threat, facial and vocal expressions of emotion, memory and emotional events…' (Killcross 2000, p. 503). Many researchers consider emotions to be an entity that can be interpreted from expressions communicated through the body and face; they can be both intentionally and unintentionally present like a natural language (Darwin 1965; Ekman 1982; Lange, James & Haupt 1922; Niedenthal, Krauth-Gruber & Ric 2006, p. 5; Plutchik 2001).

Six *basic emotions* were identified in Ekman's (1982, p. 147) research: *sadness* (distress), *fear*, *anger*, *disgust*, *happiness*, and *surprise*. Other researchers such as Plutchik (2001, p. 349) added *trust* and *anticipation* to arrive at eight primary dimensions of emotions: *joy*, *trust*, *fear*, *surprise*, *sadness*, *disgust*, *anger*, and *anticipation*. Plutchik (2001, p. 349) further presents a colour wheel to identify many other emotions that stem from the eight primary emotions. Other experts have added emotions such as *anxiety* or *worry* (Schnoebelen 2012, p. 24).

Emotions have been considered to be universally expressed through facial expressions, as supported by cross-cultural research (Ekman 1982, 1993); they are defined in Ekman and Friesen's (1978) *Facial Action Coding System*. Some argue that '[e]motional expressions are not like words, which differ from culture to culture; they are closer to breathing, which is just part of human nature' (Evans 2001, p. 7). Crying, for example, is considered to be 'the universal expression of distress' (Ekman 1982, p. 153) and 'weeping seems to be the primary and natural expression, as we see in children, of suffering of any kind, whether bodily pain short of extreme agony, or mental distress' (Darwin 1965, p. 155). Anxiety is also identified by referring to facial muscles surrounding the lips, eyes and mouth to produce a frown (Darwin 1965). Emotions can be deciphered through observations, although some experts argue that the interpretation of emotions requires understanding cultures (Koh, Scollon & Wirtz 2013). Every culture has its own vocabulary for naming and describing various emotions and some terms and definitions are untranslatable between languages. Such variation adds to the complexity in studying, interpreting and reporting emotions among multilinguals.

Research in brain-based learning has given much credit to emotions and their impact upon learning. The term *relaxed alertness* (Caine & Caine 1991, p. 134), is used to describe the optimal state for learning which suggests that 'peak performance is impossible without sufficient relaxation'. Experiencing high challenge with low threat is considered crucial—according to Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *Affective Filter Hypothesis*. Krashen's hypotheses, although widely acknowledged in the field of education, have aroused much controversy in the past due to a lack of empirical research (Gregg 1984; Zafar 2009, p. 140). Caine and Caine (1991, pp. 130-131) furthermore express that children who have similar cultural and linguistic prior knowledge to that of school are much less likely to feel threatened; they suggest that 'under threat, students' capacity to perceive and generate new meanings is reduced'. Again, consistent with Krashen's (1978, 1980, 1982, 1987) affective filter hypothesis, negative emotions are seen to hinder language learning, whereas a relaxed state is seen to assist learning.

2.5.2 Research incorporating emotions with language learning

Research drawing attention to emotions in language learning is scarce and experts believe that 'the motivational properties of emotion have been severely underestimated in the language learning literature' (MacIntyre 2002, p. 61). Nevertheless, the present reviewer has not been able to identify research evidence opposing the impact of emotions on language learning. Affective filters, foreign language anxiety and willingness to communicate have been a topic of interest in research with older bilingual populations (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986; Krashen & Terrell 1983; MacIntyre 2002, 2003; Swain 2011, 2013); these topics are yet to be targeted in research involving bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL.

Relationships between emotions and language learning have been identified by Krashen (1978, 1980, 1982, 1987), and Krashen and Terrell's (1983), Affective Filter Hypothesis. This theory drew from Dulay and Burt's (1977) original identification of *affective delimiters*. Krashen's hypothesis proposed that a beneficial emotional state for learning languages existed and suggested that reducing anxiety resulted in more efficient language learning. A high affective filter was argued to block input from being received whereas a low affective filter allowed comprehensible input in. Flowerdew and Miller (2005, pp. 93–94) note that affect, feelings and emotions impact on a learners motivation to listen.

Emotion and cognition are argued to be are interrelated and are seen to influence language learning (Swain 2013). Swain (2011, 2013) presents evidence of a bilingual adult who reflects on her emotional experiences of learning a second language in childhood. Unlike Krashen and Terrell (1983), who focus on the debilitative effects of negative emotions, Swain's research suggests that this may be an overgeneralization—a block may apply in regard to anxiety, but not in regard to embarrassment. Swain (2013) demonstrates that negative emotions can, in some cases, enhance learning by motivating a learner to actively improve in certain areas after an emotional experience of failing. In her interview research presenting a narrative account, Grace, an adult, reminisces that the embarrassment she experienced at age eight before an audience of peers when incorrectly referring to a cucumber as 'aggouri' in Greek. This blunder led Grace to become determined to learn the correct English names of many food items from that moment onward, particularly when she shopped with her mother (Swain 2011, p. 77; 2013, p. 196; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman 2015, p. 75). The negative or undesirable emotion of embarrassment and feeling 'mortified' thus had a positive effect in enhancing Grace's future language learning efforts. Caine and Caine (1991), likewise, posit that emotions can make events more memorable and can thus impact positively upon learning. Grace's experience relates to the amygdala, the section of the brain responsible for fright and flight, memory, emotion, and action.

In many Asian cultures (for example, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Japanese) the concept of losing face has been reported. The concept of losing face is said to originate from Chinese culture and is defined as 'a damaging social event, in which one's action is publicly given notice and negatively judged by others' (Ho, Fu & Ng 2004, p. 70). The experience of losing face is accompanied by emotions associated with unease, anxiousness, feeling inferior, wanting to hide, self-consciousness, and shame, potentially leading to anxiety and embarrassment. This is an example of how emotional responses can be mediated through culture.

Modern research needs to incorporate humanistic approaches to address the challenges of studying emotions within additional language learning. Emotions-considerate research would enable more thorough understandings of bilingual preschoolers' language learning and language use. Humanistic approaches…

> …emphasise the importance of the inner world of the learner and place individuals' thoughts, feelings and emotions at the forefront of all human development. These are aspects of the learning process that are often unjustly neglected, yet they are vitally important if we are to understand human learning in its totality. (Williams & Burden 1997, p. 30)

Humanistic approaches 'see the importance of a learning environment which minimises anxiety and enhances personal security', and focuses on children's wellbeing (Williams & Burden 1997, p. 37).

Foreign language anxiety

Foreign language anxiety stems from an immature ability to communicate in the second language (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986); hence once communicative competence increases, anxiety then decreases. The *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* was created by Horwitz (2001) and Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). Their research on anxiety complements Krashen's view about the negative impact of emotions on language learning. According to Horwitz (2001, p. 112), 'foreign language anxiety' is considered to be a specific *state* anxiety, not necessarily a *trait* anxiety. He defines trait anxiety as a particular continuous personality condition, whereas state anxiety arises in relation to a particular anxiety provoking experience. In state anxiety, specific situations can trigger feelings of apprehension, nervousness, and 'shyness'. A person may not be ordinarily shy in general activities and social situations (Brown 2007, p. 161; Horwitz 2001, p. 113; Spielberger 1983), but may be shy, for example, when speaking in EAL. Hovey, Kim and Seligman (2006), who studied adult ELLs, confirmed issues such as anxiety, depression and stress during language

learning; they also defined state anxiety as caused by an event, such as having to speak an unfamiliar language, and trait anxiety as a general disposition.

Anxiety sufferers display apprehension or avoidance, dread and discomfort and some experts suggest anxiety can be either debilitative or facilitative depending on the circumstance (Brown 2007, p. 162; Swain 2011). Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2015) and Swain (2011, 2013) present that negative emotions can be facilitative of future learning, whereas Krashen and Terrell (1983) and Horwitz (2001) imply that anxiety hinders language learning. Foreign language anxiety can result in withdrawal from speaking, and a reduction in productive language. Withdrawal from speaking is a concern as Swain (2000, 2005) argues that learning a new language is facilitated by productive language and a willingness to communicate.

Willingness to communicate

Willingness to communicate (WTC) was studied in McCroskey's (1992) first language learning research. He recognised WTC as a personality-based trait or predisposition. Having a high WTC derives from having a low anxiety and high perceived competence (Barraclough, Christophel & McCroskey 1988). MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément and Noels (1998) and Dörnyei and MacIntyre (2014) followed up McCroskey's research to incorporate WTC in second language learning research, highlighting motivation to talk. WTC is difficult to differentiate from inability to communicate due to not having proficiency in a new language. However, WTC can be considered to surface as confidence to 'have a go' at speaking, whereas the reverse 'un'willingness to communicate can result in hesitancy, reluctance, or refusals to verbally communicate, even when the vocabulary is known. MacIntyre (2003), who studied French immersion junior high school students, suggested that the WTC increases as a person improves their competence or their ability to communicate. MacIntyre's (2002, p. 67) research also illuminates how 'anxious learners will tend to remain anxious because they tend to withdraw from situations that might increase their proficiency, creating a self-fulfilling prophecy'. In a rare study with young bilingual learners, Clarke (1999, p. 22) reported circumstances when her focus preschoolers' 'willingness to use English and be included in interaction…' and 'reluctance to use English…', avoidance and active refusal to speak in English, impacted on their language learning.

WTC is shaped by culture and context (Barraclough, Christophel & McCroskey 1988, p. 188) according to cross-cultural research that highlights that 'situational variables may impact on a person's willingness to communicate at any given time in any given context'. This view can be likened to the systemic functional linguistics view and the fundamental basis of the context of situation. Situation variables may include who a child is comfortable to interact

with (linking to tenor) and their emotional motivations to speak (affected by the field or circumstance relating to the topic of speech).

2.5.3 General emotional challenges during the preschool experience

It has been reported in the past that parents, educators, and policy-makers have been under the impression that young children are not emotionally affected by anxiety when learning a new language and soak new languages up much like a sponge (Díaz Rico 2008; Tabors 2008). However, a dearth of research also reports that emotional challenges such as shyness, general anxiety and separation anxiety are prevalent for bilingual children (Bligh 2014; Bowlby 1973; Dixon & Fraser 1986; Drury 2007; Glennon & Weisz 1978; Keller, Troesch & Grob 2013; Matthews 2010; Millar 2011; Oades-Sese et al. 2011; Scrafton & Whitington 2015; Shao 2005; Strand et al. 2011; Ren & Wyver 2014), as well as children in general.

Shyness

Shyness can be perceived through social anxiousness, wariness to strangers, uneasiness and discomfort, inhibited or withdrawn behaviours of children in certain social interactions, and can be linked to fear (Asendorpf 2009, pp. 389–390). Research suggests that some children are naturally outgoing and engage in confident language exchanges, whereas other children tend to be more inhibited or 'cautious', or characterised as 'shy' and engage in less social forms of communication in their new language (Tabors 1987, 2008; Wong Fillmore 1976, p. 711). Shyness or self-assurance influences learning opportunities as 'emotional reactions can lead to learning…' (Berk 2013, p. 402). According to Berk (2013), self-conscious emotions appear around the second year of childhood and include embarrassment, shame, and pride—these are emotions which relate to self-evaluation. Emotions are also developed through culture, for example, individualistic cultures may emphasise pride in personal achievement, whereas collectivist cultures may emphasise and value different emotions or personality traits, such as being reserved—a trait that may be misinterpreted as shyness in westernised contexts (Berk 2013, p. 408). High self-esteem is seen to positively influence many aspects of learning, enabling children to take initiative and have the confidence to practise and master new skills (Berk 2012, p. 367). Other emotional factors such as separation anxiety or separation challenges when parents depart preschool while children are cared for by educators may also influence language learning.

Separation challenges

Separation anxiety has been researched by Bowlby (1973) in first language contexts. The anxiety occurs when children are removed from their parents' care. Bowlby (1973) identified actions such as crying for one's mother to indicate a fear response, and notes that postures

such as clinging, attachment, withdrawing, avoidance, cowering, immobility and freezing also indicate fear (Bowlby 1973, pp. 88-90, p. 178). For clinical diagnoses of separation anxiety, symptoms must be present for at least four weeks, as anxiety during separation from caregivers is developmentally normal for young children (Crozier, Gillihan & Powers 2011, p. 7). Bilingual preschoolers who are new to learning EAL experience additional emotional challenges that contribute to separation anxiety. First, the culture of the preschool may be very different to that at home; second, bilingual preschoolers may be unfamiliar with the experience of separating from their primary caregiver (perhaps their extended family members are overseas and they have not experienced being in another's care before preschool); and third, bilingual preschoolers may feel confronted by the English-dominant environment, one with which they have limited experience.

2.5.4 Emotional challenges experienced by young language learners

Observational details of bilingual children's emotional challenges have often been implicitly mentioned within research reports which set out to investigate other aspects of bilingual preschoolers' language learning experiences (Ball 2012; Bligh 2014; Clarke 1996; Drury 2007; Fassler 1998; Millar 2011; Scrafton & Whitington 2015). Investigations which intentionally incorporate emotions at the outset of studies have been gradually emerging (Dixon & Fraser 1986; Kang et al. 2014; Keller, Troesch & Grob 2013; Oades-Sese et al. 2011; Richard 2007; Shao 2005; Strand et al. 2011). Only a small number of researchers have interviewed research participants to seek information on their emotional early childhood experiences (Bligh 2014; Swain 2011). Studies specifically relating emotions to children's functional language use were not found prior to the present study.

Studies on bilingual children which coincidentally mention their emotional experiences

The review of emotionally related content within the research literature on bilingual preschoolers has revealed that many bilingual children, who are new to English, encounter emotional challenges such as shyness, anxieties, and difficulties when separating from parents (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Shao 2005). Such findings have derived from UK and US-based ethnographic case studies. One ethnographic study involving Nazma (an almost four-year-old bilingual Pakistani Pahari speaker in a nursery class) revealed that the child only stopped crying during the fifth week of her transition to nursery (Bligh & Drury 2015, p. 265). Nazma was reported to be 'extremely reluctant to communicate in English' (Bligh & Drury 2015, p. 266) which relates to MacIntyre's (2002, 2003) WTC concept. Nazma's teacher also commented that she had a 'stubborn personality' saying, "She is refusing to speak, knowing it is required of her" (Bligh & Drury 2015, p. 267). After a year of nursery,

Nazma's reception class teacher stated that she, 'hardly ever speaks unless she wants something', drawing attention to functional language—in this case pragmatic language. Nazma was also reported not to look at the teacher when spoken to, indicating potential cultural and emotional influences upon her behaviour.

Another young child, Uzma (a four to five-year-old learning EAL), was observed in Bligh's (2014) participant observation research. Bligh reported emotional experiences such as:

> One morning, after Uzma's mother had left the classroom, Uzma began to cry, and moved apart from the other children. I walked towards her, wiped her tears with a tissue and held her hand whilst I led her to sit close by me on the carpet area. (Bligh 2014, p. 110)

Uzma's crying (a likely response to her sadness or fear) appears to have prompted an adult to spend time with her, and assumedly led to a language exchange during the interaction.

Separation challenges, distress, reticence, isolation and withdrawn behaviours have been mentioned in other case studies on bilingual preschoolers (Ball 2012; Fassler 1998; Millar 2011; Richard 2007). The issue of shyness, for bilingual children, was raised in Scrafton and Whitington's (2015, p. 12) research with children learning EAL in an Adelaide city preschool, in South Australia where a teacher described a focus child as 'shy, plus having separation anxiety from his mother. He has trouble playing with other children'. Shyness and sociability were considered to be important factors for preschoolers' accessibility to socio-dramatic play (Scrafton & Whitington 2015). Shyness, reluctance to speak, separation anxiety, crying and other emotional behaviours, while mentioned within research reports, have rarely been intentionally studied in research involving bilingual preschoolers' purposeful language.

Studies on bilingual children which intentionally investigate aspects of emotion

In studies which have intentionally set out to investigate emotional aspects of bilingual children's experiences, evidence of silent withdrawal, sadness, separation anxiety and general anxiety were found (Dixon & Fraser 1986; Kang et al. 2014). Dixon and Fraser's (1986) observational study in Vancouver investigated the social behaviours of three and four-year-old children in a multicultural classroom with 46% children defined as ESL. Their study asked: 'What are the typical entry behaviours of ESL children?' Findings revealed that children's responses ranged from silent withdrawal and refusal to cooperate to temper tantrums and sobbing uncontrollably, and one child reportedly screamed and undressed on several occasions during the first two weeks of data collection (Dixon & Fraser 1986, p. 34).

Parents also mentioned that they were confused about how to manage their child's separation anxiety.

The relationship between social-emotional well-being, acculturation and limited English language proficiency, has been researched with 2088 Asian and 5268 Hispanic five-year-old children in American schools (Kang et al. 2014). Internalising behaviours such as 'anxiety, sadness, low self-esteem, and loneliness' were analysed, along with interpersonal skills such as 'skills in forming and maintaining friendships, getting along with people who are different [and] expressing feelings in positive ways' (Kang et al. 2014, p. 921). The experience of learning a new language and having a language barrier was referred to as an '*acculturation stressor*' for children (Kang et al. 2014, p. 916), although their emotional vulnerability was not considered permanent. In a cultural comparison, Asian children were found to fare slightly better in internalising behaviours: anxiety, sadness, low self-esteem, and loneliness, than Hispanic children (Kang et al. 2014, p. 925).

Emotions were given precedence in Richard's (2007, p. 31) study investigating the relationship between social-emotional skills and Spanish-speaking preschoolers learning English in Miami. The study reported that 'social-emotional skills were significantly associated with English language proficiency one year later in Spanish-speaking preschoolers'. A suggestion was made that:

> 'to most effectively prepare their students, teachers should aim to build not only cognitive and language skills, but social-emotional skills as well.' (Richard 2007, p. 36)

A three-to-four-year-old Mandarin-speaker who was initially without matched bilingual support while learning EAL was studied by Shao (2005, p. 68) who questioned, 'How does a language minority child manage to survive in an early childhood educational institution where instruction is provided in a language to which he or she has little exposure?' A similar question was asked in Tabors' (1987) thesis, 'How would the non-English-speaking children cope with the social situation without language?' Shao's use of the term, '*survive*' and Tabors' use of '*cope*', indicate anticipation that emotional challenges would be encountered. Another question in Shao's (2005) research queried, 'Does the child encounter particular difficulties in comparison with other native-speaking preschoolers also new to the environment? And what are they?' Her findings reported that after starting preschool, Baobao (the Mandarin speaker) 'would start crying bitterly whenever his parents were out of his sight and would not accept comfort from the teachers' (Shao 2005, p. 90). It took four weeks before he stopped crying (Shao 2005, p. 261)—one week less than Nazma. He also had many 'trials and tribulations' (Shao 2005, p. 226) and experienced 'a very long and difficult adaptation period to the preschool' (Shao 2005, p. 225).

Baobao's educator also wrote:

> 'The beginning of the school year and accompanying separation anxiety was extremely difficult for Baobao. He began crying a soon as he arrived in the morning and continued to cry until it was time to go home. It was very difficult to comfort him. And he would not participate in any activities or even snack. On one occasion he cried so hard that he made himself sick.' (Shao 2005, p. 94)

Shao (2005, p. 184) further explained that '[c]rying was the extreme way used to express his feelings in the beginning stages to show his unwillingness to stay in the preschool and his frustration of not being able to express himself in words'. Shao's ability to speak Mandarin contributed to her research as she was able to build rapport with Baobao and help him settle.

The relationship between social–emotional development and later academic success and English acquisition has been reported by Oades-Sese et al. (2011, p. 747). They reported that temperament factors (e.g. inhibition, negative emotionality, and activity level), emotion regulation, autonomy, and play dimensions (e.g. play interaction, play disconnection, and play disruption) were significantly related to later academic achievement in 207 Hispanic three to five year olds. Their study labelled one group of children as reticent functional bilinguals characterised as temperamentally shy and it was presumed that their shy nature may deprive them of opportunities to develop social and language skills. Children identified as socially competent during preschool were associated with significantly better academic outcomes, two years later, than children who were identified as vulnerable. This study, consistent with the study by Richard (2007, p. 36), recommends that bilingual children may benefit from building social–emotional skills. Proficiency in either language, English or Spanish, was also identified as contributing to social competence, much like the children in the AECD report (2014) who were proficient in English.

Shyness and anxiousness of bilingual preschoolers has been investigated by Strand et al. (2011), who studied 340 Spanish/ English-speaking preschoolers in a Head Start program over six months. Findings suggested that shyness-anxiousness impacted upon children's learning and development of receptive language skills. In the study, children characterised as 'shy' were outperformed by their peers. Keller, Troesch and Grob's (2013, p. 328) research with immigrant preschoolers additionally identifies shyness as a factor which debilitates language production.

A small number of studies have sought adults' recounts of their own experiences of being bilingual during their earlier years of childhood (Bligh 2014; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman 2015); these studies have described emotional reflections of childhood from an adult's perspective. For example, Tamsin, one of Bligh's (2014, p. 69) participants spoke about her

loneliness and isolation in reception class, and also added that she kept on the periphery. Tamsin shared:

> I didn't feel comfortable. I felt alone and isolated. Gestures helped me to understand a little, I started to figure things out, but I didn't understand what it was all about … I knew that this woman was in charge, the teacher, and I remember watching the children playing … I didn't want to speak because this had nothing to do with me. It was too scary for me. I didn't want to draw attention to myself. (Bligh 2014, p. 87)

Shao (2005), on the other hand, illustrates a positive learning outcome as a result of Baobao's crying and suggests that:

> In some early childhood classrooms, children of language minority backgrounds appear to be invisible beings to teachers. If they don't cry aloud, they will be ignored and left all by themselves. (Shao 2005, p. 53)

This finding supports Swain's (2011, 2013) research indicating that emotion can positively impact upon language learning.

The development of confidence is another aspect relating to emotions and is mentioned in Matthews (2010) research detailing a teacher's observations of a Spanish ELL's emotional experience at day care. Developing confidence is also the third stage of Clarke's (2009) stages of English language learning. Matthew's (2010, p. 80) research participant noted that, in the initial stages for her child, 'It was almost like a shyness and then he started coming out. He just started blossoming like a huge flower'. Confidence or outgoingness versus shyness, reticence, reluctance and hesitation are all common attributes mentioned in collections of research with learners of EAL. '[F]eeling sad and lonely' at school was also reported by a seven-year-old child in Millar's (2011) Australian research on Korean children. Millar (2011) also notes that teachers can have difficulty in assessing whether or not children are shy due to subjective interpretations based on their own cultural assumptions.

A review of research on the *Socio-emotional adjustment of Chinese immigrant children in Western Countries* presented by Ren and Wyver (2014, pp. 232–233) highlights that anxiety, loneliness, sadness, shyness, fear, depression, and stress have often been mentioned in studies of both young and older Chinese immigrant children in western countries. They cited Garrett-Peters and Fox's (2007) research which identified that Chinese three to seven-year-olds exhibit more negative emotional expressions than Western children. They wrote…

> When coming to a primarily monolingual society where children need to learn a new language, the association between language competence and social-emotional wellbeing may be more complex. (Ren & Wyver 2014, p. 236)

The issue of '*selective mutism'* (SM) has also been identified in research investigating five-year-old bilingual girl, Suki, a child of Japanese heritage, who experienced a very prolonged

silent period (Bligh 2014, p. 4). Selective mutism is another aspect of language learning incorporating speech pathology and psychology—it occurs when 'a child appears to freeze and be unable to speak' (Bligh 2014, p. 8). Toppelberg, Tabors, Coggins, Lum, and Burger (2005, p. 2) explain that selective mutism is difficult to define for children with language backgrounds other than English as:

> SM is characterized by the DSM-IV as failure of the child to speak in at least one setting while speaking normally in others (Criterion A), which causes significant interference with educational, occupational, or communicative functioning (Criterion B) and lasts for at least 1 month (Criterion C). Limited proficiency in the required language (Criterion D) is one of the exclusion criteria. (Toppelberg et al. 2005, p. 2)

Diagnosing selective mutism in bilingual children is complex, highlighting the need for more research into the range of emotional challenges that might be causal factors.

2.5.5 The need for research exploring bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges in combination with social interactions and functional language use

This literature review section on bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges has illuminated issues relating to emotions such as separation anxiety, shyness, reticence, crying, refusing to speak, freezing, loneliness, temper tantrums, and the possibility of selective mutism. On all these counts, it can be said that emotions influence a child's language use through the context of situation. Understanding how such emotional challenges impact on children's functional language is yet to be explored. Also requiring further investigation is how emotional challenges might differ between children who encounter matched bilingual support and those who do not—especially while experiencing otherwise parallel conditions within the same preschool. Essentially, language is a system of choices which varies according to the context (Derewianka & Jones 2012, p. 36) and such a 'context' can incorporate social, emotional, and functional language influences.

2.6 Functional language use

Halliday (1975, 2004), proposes that the context surrounding a language act influences the language spoken. As shown in **Figure 2-5**, the SFL perspective incorporates children's *ideational*, *interpersonal* and *textual* metafunctions of language, children's contexts of situation (*field*, *tenor* and *mode*), the macrofunctions of language (*pragmatic* and *mathetic*) and the basic, or initial, functions (Halliday 1975, p. 37).

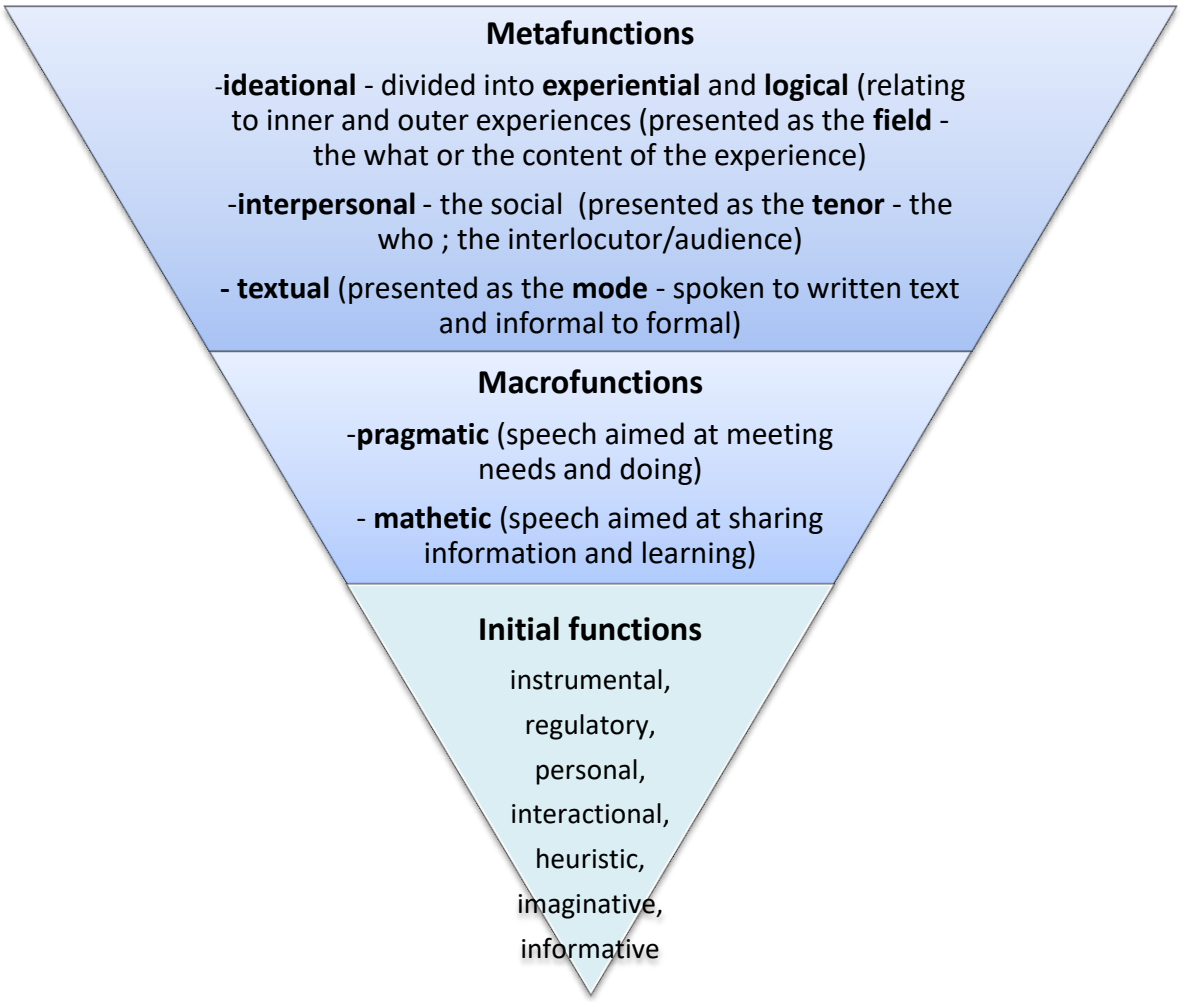


Figure 2-5: Systemic functional linguistics categories of functions

A SFL approach to studying bilingual preschoolers complements a framework based on SCT, as both provide an opportunity to thoroughly understand the context surrounding children's functional language use in relation to culture and social interactions (the interpersonal). Extending the framework to also focus on emotional influences upon language learning may also provide enlightenment.

The presently limited research-based literature incorporating functional language approaches within studies of young children can be divided into:

- original research by Halliday (1975, 1985, 2004) and Painter (1985)
- past observational research identifying other language functions in early childhood contexts, pre- Halliday (Hymes 1974; Kumpulainen & Wray 1997; Piaget 1959; Skinner 1957)
- contemporary observation-based functional language research investigating preschoolers learning EFL (Llinares García 2005, 2006, 2007)
- school children's productive use of the seven language functions (Bluiett 2009); and

- specific research on EAL learners' productive use of the language functions in early childhood (Tarone & Lui 1995).

Some of the detailed results from the aforementioned studies are provided in the following sections, so as to later compare and contrast the findings to the present study. Currently, empirical research investigating the language functions of bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL is lacking and only a few researchers of young bilingual children have employed Halliday's (2004) seven *initial* functions of language.

2.6.1 Halliday's initial functions of language

Halliday contributed to social interactionists' ideas through a study of his son, Nigel, as he learned English as a first language from 12 days of age until turning two years and seven months. In his research, Halliday (1975) focused on the functional purpose of Nigel's social utterances, and his protolanguage. Halliday (2004, p. 277) writes '[f]or the child, all language is doing something: in other words, it has meaning'. Halliday's (2004, p. 19) approach to studying language, similarly to Vygotsky's, views language as semiotic—'a system of signs that carry meaning' (involving both 'content and expression')—as well as systemic—'language as a network of systems for making meaning' (Harris 2009, p. 18). Halliday investigated what Nigel did with language and stressed 'that the child isn't just a passive recipient of language, but an active participant in the processes that develop it' (Cattell 2007, p. 132)—an idea that resonates with Swain's valuing of productive language and active participation in speaking. Halliday (2004, p. 270) asserts that '[t]he child knows what language is because [s/he] knows what language does'. Language serves a purpose. Rogoff (2003, p. 287) also supports the purposeful view of language by arguing that words provide children with meanings to express themselves. Whilst Halliday (1973, 1975, 2004) did not study children's additional language learning, his founding of the seven initial language functions (Halliday 1969) are suitable for application with EAL preschoolers, as EAL learners often use approximations to communicate, as do younger children. Halliday's (1975, p. 21) seven initial functions fundamentally seek to categorise the purpose of children's speech.

Figure 2-6 details the seven initial functions of language proposed by Halliday (2004). The first, '*instrumental*' function, enables children to express their needs and wants. The second, '*regulatory*' function, serves a purpose to regulate others, make commands or request assistance. The third, '*interactional*' function, represents language which has a pragmatic purpose (such as greetings, courtesies and manners). The fourth, '*personal*' function, entails children talking about themselves. The fifth, '*heuristic*' function, occurs when children seek information by inquiring and questioning. The sixth, '*imaginative*' function is identified

when children speak during pretend role-play or make-believe acts such as performing or singing; and the seventh, '*informative*' function, involves children making statements to inform others (Halliday 1975, p. 37).

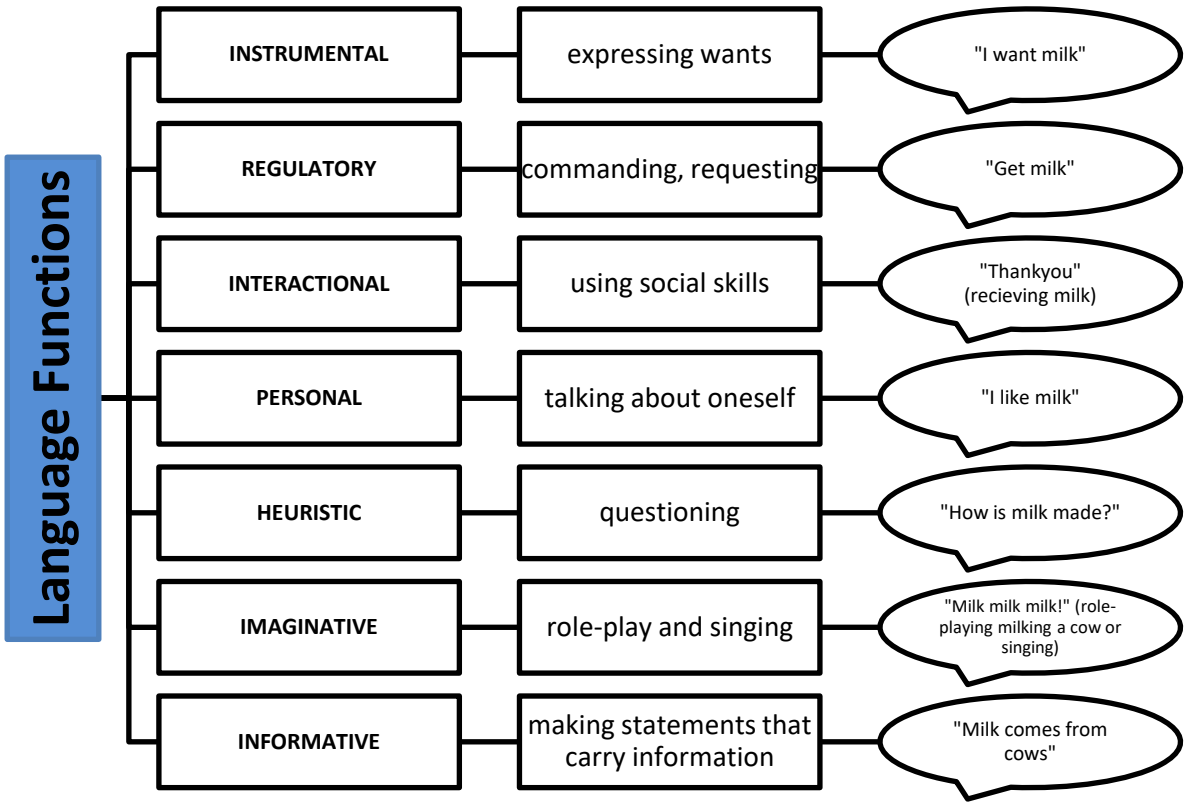


Figure 2-6: Halliday's seven language functions (adapted from Halliday 2004, p. 277)

Halliday's seven initial functions can be divided into two categories of macrofunctions: '*pragmatic*' and '*mathetic*' (Painter 1985, p. 17). '*Pragmatic functions*' are considered to be the earliest emerging utterances as they focus on satisfying immediate survival needs; they include requesting and seeking assistance (Halliday 1985). '*Mathetic functions*', on the other hand, are considered to develop later as they relate to more social and cognitive forms of language used in discussions. Painter (1985, p. 21), who also studied her son, Hal, aged 9 months to two years, explains that mathetic-type speech is 'an instrument of learning' which involves information exchanges when children make statements and ask questions. It is recommended that children have a balanced ability to express the many functions of language in order to be competent language users (Fellowes & Oakley 2014).

Prior to Halliday's initial functions, some earlier functions of language were proposed by Piaget (1959), a cognitivist, constructivist, empiricist and Swiss developmental psychologist, who studied young children learning their first language through naturalistic inquiry. Resulting from his observations of Lev and Pie (six-year-old boys) at Maison des Petits de

l'Institut Rousseau, Piaget (1959) proposed two types of speech functions: '*egocentric speech*' (talking to oneself) and '*socialised speech*' (talking with others) (Ginsburg & Opper 1969, p. 87). Piaget (1959, pp. 9-11) also identified several sub-functions of language which were:

1) repetition 2) monologue 3) dual or collective monologue

*Note: the first three derive from the 'egocentric' category

4) adapted information 5) commands/requests/threats 6) questions 7) answers

*Note: the last four derive from the 'socialised' category

Some of Piaget's functions, such as '*questions'* and '*commands'* align with Halliday's initial functions (such as the *heuristic* and *regulatory* function) whereas others, such as the seventh function, '*answers*', extend upon Halliday's initial functions, and are also considered in the present study.

Functions of language were only lightly discussed by behaviorist Skinner (1959). His 'verbal operants' of speech included echoic behaviour (copying), mands (commands), tact (short for contact meaning socialising language in describing and naming things), interverbals (discourse or social pragmatics) and autoclictic (language for thinking). Behaviorists and nativists generally paid more attention to the form of language, rather than the function of language.

2.6.2 Functional language research in bilingual early childhood settings

The main contribution of past research and literature on bilingual preschoolers has concentrated on the form or linguistic progression of EAL learners rather than functions (Clarke 2011; Krashen & Terrell 1983; Saville-Troike 1987; Tabors 2008; Wong Fillmore 1976). However, Ambrosio et al. (2015) recently analysed the language functions of 32 seven-year-olds, 14 of which were bilingual Filipino/English speakers, 11 English-only speakers, six Filipino speakers and one an English/French/Filipino trilingual. Two lessons were recorded on tablet and camera, and then coded using the 16 functions of language adopted from Kumpulainen and Wray (1997, p. 8): *informative, interrogative, responsive, organizational, judgmental, argumentational, compositional, reproductional, experiential, expositional, hypothetical, external thinking, imaginative, heuristic, affectional,* and *intentional*. One lesson was a writing activity about their best experience in grade two, and a drawing activity. Findings revealed the *informative* function to be the most common, coded in 21% of utterances, whereas the *heuristic* function was one of the least common with 0% or zero codings (Ambrosio et al. 2015, p. 110). The limitation of the study was that it did not collect data over a prolonged period or during the various routines of the early childhood

setting. Another limitation for present purposes is that their research took place in a school-based setting rather than a preschool, as did Wong Fillmore's (1982b) research incorporating language functions with older children.

Five-year-old children's language use has been analysed by Llinares García (2005, 2007) who employed Halliday's (2004) language functions in an EFL context in Madrid. She analysed videos of children's and teachers' talk, in both first (L1=Spanish) and second (L2=English) language exchanges (see Llinares García 2007, p. 44 for results). There were two groups in her study: Group A was the experimental group who experienced an intervention designed for the teacher to implement some activities and role-plays that prompted the pupils' functional discourse initiations; and Group B was the control group which carried on with their usual sessions. In follow up to her initial data collection to identify functions, Llinares García (2007, p. 41) also conducted experimental research and video-recorded, in total, four one-hour-sessions of preschoolers from three to five years of age. She set up the experimental group (Group A) to engage in intervention activities that were specifically aimed at encouraging the children's use of six language functions (imaginative was omitted). In the heuristic category, children were encouraged to ask questions in order to guess what an object that was hidden in a box could be. In the regulatory activity, the teacher pretended to need help and encouraged instruction from children on how to put on a jumper prompting them to provide instruction about the organisation of things in a picture. She hypothesised that after practising the six language functions in the experimental sessions, the experimental group of children would improve in their frequency of functional productive language. Both regulatory and informative functions were discovered to be the most frequent functions compared to the other functions, in both the experimental Group A (who had scaffolding) and the control Group B.

The frequency counts of *informative* functions were larger in group A, the experimental group (n=100), compared to group B, the control group (n=35), after having had the intentional teaching to support them. *Heuristic* utterances were third and fourth in frequency for all groups, with only 15 or 16 counts in English for each group. The *interactional* and *instrumental* functions were identified as the least commonly expressed function in both groups A and B, as well as for both languages: Spanish and EFL. Results of the study supported the hypothesis that children's functional uses of language could be increased through practice and that intentional teaching scaffolds could encourage this. As mentioned, the findings were based on a total of four hours of footage, and the long term effects, following the four hours total of focus sessions were not determined. In relation to the heuristic language function, findings revealed that the group without the intervention, Group

B, asked slightly more questions in both languages than Group A, the intervention group that was intended to encourage six of Halliday's language functions. The teacher's intentional teaching practices appeared not to increase heuristic questioning. More research is warranted in order to explore ways to increase heuristic questioning.

Another study by Llinares García (2005) investigated and quantified children and educators' use of Halliday's language functions over several school year levels. The *imaginative* function was again excluded from this study; however, no reason is given as to why. Data was collected over 15 sessions and Llinares García made the 'assumption that the functions used by the children would heavily rely on the use made by the teachers' (Llinares García 2005, p. 14). Figures for the results are shown in Llinares García (2005, pp. 14–15) article. Findings from Llinares García's (2005) study revealed that teachers often produced *regulatory*, *feedback* and *heuristic* functions; meaning that the educators often questioned and directed children. Children, on the other hand, expressed the *personal* function more often, followed by *informative* and *regulatory* functions. *Heuristic*, *instrumental* and *interactional* functions were communicated the least.

A comparison study by Llinares and Pastrana (2013) compared teacher directed whole-class discussions with student directed group-work and involved 75 seven-year-olds. The study reported that during teacher-directed whole-class discussions, the informative function was expressed in 72.8% of utterances of children, followed by personal in 22.8% and heuristic in only 3.7% of the time during whole-class discussions. Few to none of the students' utterances were *regulatory*, *instrumental* and *instructional* during teacher directed discussions, although the teacher's dialogue was noted to be commonly *regulatory* and *heuristic*. In contrast to group discussions, the functions of the children's language during peer group-work were 29.5% *informative,* 30% *personal* and a higher 12.5% *heuristic* (Llinares & Pastrana 2013, p. 86). There were also many more *regulatory* functions expressed during child-initiated group work at 23.4%. This is detailed in the figure in Llinares and Pastrana (2013, p. 86). It can be extrapolated from this study that social interactions during peer group work may invite different functions to be expressed than those invited during whole class discussions led by a teacher.

In Schofield's (2011, p. 136) study, involving preschoolers who were asked to carry an Mp3 audio recorders to capture productive language, it was noted that 'eleven of the twelve participants used combinations of directions, questions and comments to gain peers (*sic*) attention'. An older, yet relevant, first study by Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler (1992) in the US analysed pre-kindergarten to grade one children using a conceptual framework drawing

from Vygotsky and Halliday's theories of social interaction and the seven functions of language. Their three-year-study delivered percentages of language function use by four focus children (unfortunately it is not mentioned as to whether they were English monolinguals or bilinguals), so a normative reading suggests that they were first language speakers). The study involved analysis of over 36 hours of audio and video recordings; needless to say the long duration of study strengthens the validity of the results compared to Llinares García's (2007) four hours of study. The findings are detailed in a table in Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler (1992, p. 166).

The children in Thomas et al.'s (1992) study asked a lot of *heuristic* questions during preschool. Garry, Seth and Polly asked a large proportion of questions (the *heuristic* function), whereas Robbie asked fewer. Children also expressed *regulatory* phrases and *instrumental* expressions often, although the personal function appeared to be less common than Llinares García (2005, 2007). *Informative* statements were more common for Robbie than the other three children. The children's contexts of situation surrounding their language use, was, however, unreported.

A more recent preschool-based study in America, identified as an English-as-a-first language context, investigated a socio-dramatic play context of children's language use. This study, by Bluiett (2009), analysed 21 children's utterances using Halliday's seven language functions, from 11 weeks of data collection. The researcher visited the children's service three times each week, for two hours per visit, and collected snapshots of children's pretend play. Bluiett's (2009) study was again based on a Vygotskian framework. She reported the findings in a graph (Bluiett 2009, p. 102) which indicated that the *informative* function was high in frequency, followed by *interactional*, *regulatory*, *imaginative*, *personal*, *heuristic* then *instrumental* utterances. Given that the data was collected from socio-dramatic play, it did not represent all the routines of the preschool day; however, questioning was again reported to be minimal.

Questioning was noted in Tarone and Lui's (1995) study which investigated a bilingual six-year-old's spoken language. They reported that the formulation of questions in English depended on with whom the child interacted. They also reported the child as less willing to ask questions in front of his teacher and more likely to ask questions in the home and with peers; they did not, however, incorporate Halliday's (2004) language functions into their analysis.

Assertions (which can be considered to relate to the category of informative language) and requests (which relate to regulatory) were found to be commonly spoken by Spanish/English

bilingual children in kindergarten to second grade Spanish immersion classes (Christoffersen 2015, p. 63). This doctorate study incorporated communicative analysis of 12 hours of audio-recorded data and drew from 'communicative function' theory as defined by Hymes (1974) in his 'ethnography of speaking' methodology. Hymes (1974) functions comprise: *playing, positioning, evaluating/complaining, commanding/reprimanding, thanking/apologizing, joking, requesting, requesting information* and *assertions*.

Other coding schemes such as Dore, Gearhart and Newman's (1978) functions of: *requestives, assertives, performatives, responsives, regulatives, expressives and imitations*, along with *uninterpretables* were used for coding Tabors' (1987) data. Tabors' (1987, pp. 46-49) results, illustrated in a table (p. 123), identified that *assertives*, or informing utterances (such as describing or identifying) were commonly expressed and ranged between 14.5–36.2%. *Responsives,* answering questions, were also commonly communicated and ranged between 17.1–21.6%. *Requestives*, a combination of questions and requests, were less common and ranged between 0–10.3% and *regulatives*, attention getters, ranged from 8.7–30.4%.

The combinations of functional language studies by Bluiett (2009), Llinares García (2005, 2007, 2007), Llinares and Pastrana (2013), Christoffersen (2015), Tabors (1987), and Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler (1992) reveal consensus that *informative* and *regulatory* functions are commonly expressed in both bilingual EFL preschoolers, and first language preschoolers' speech. Some studies, however, demonstrate the *personal* and *interactional* functions are also common. *Heuristic*-type questions were a function commonly found to be expressed by educators rather than children, although questions were asked more often by children in Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler's (1992) study. The majority of other studies found that children rarely asked heuristic-type questions. Whether bilingual children in Australian preschools follow this same trend, is unknown. Hence, the present study analyses the functional language of three-to five-year-olds in an Australian preschool and reports on the most common and least common functions expressed by preschoolers.

2.6.3 The need for research investigating bilingual preschoolers' functional language use

As highlighted throughout the literature review, functional language research is still beginning to surface in research involving bilingual preschoolers who are learning to speak EAL—particularly in Australia's multicultural context, but also in other global EAL contexts. Past studies have contributed some information in infant, toddler and preschool English-as-a-first-language contexts; Spanish/English EFL five-year-old and seven-year-old contexts; and Filipino/English bilingual contexts. Few investigations have, however,

concurred that certain functions seem to be more commonly verbalised than others. Identifying the language functions that are least commonly expressed by bilingual children may indicate areas which require support in preschool language programs. Such research may indicate gaps in their language learning, or alternatively the limitations of the language learning context offered to support children. Identification of the more common language functions may indicate the strengths bilingual preschoolers hold and the affordances of preschool language learning environments. A study combining focus on functional language use, alongside social interactions and emotional challenges, may identify how the interpersonal and personal context impacts upon bilingual children's opportunities for rehearsing language productively and purposefully. The present study has the potential to indicate areas where bilingual preschoolers might benefit from explicit and intentional teaching support in order to practise functions of language which may be lacking in their spoken English.

2.7 Synthesising the research on social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language

One way forward for future research is to investigate the language functions of bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL, using a systemic functional linguistics approach, with attention to bilingual preschoolers' context of culture and context of situation. A study also drawing from SCT, which gives attention to children's personal, interpersonal and cultural-institutional context, could also illuminate how emotional challenges and social interactions impact upon children's language use. Analysing the context of situation brings attention to the field (the topic spoken about, or the circumstance prompting the speech), which can be influenced by social-emotional aspects of children's experiences. The context of situation also draws attention to the tenor (the relationship between bilingual children and their interlocutors); this is also influenced by the power, age, roles and status of the individuals sharing dialogue, and relates to the interpersonal lens of SCT. It is possible that certain tenor might lead to the emergence of certain emotions during interactions and this may affect children's speech. Bilingual preschoolers interact with a range of people—parents, peers and educators—yet it is the educators' role to intentionally facilitate social, emotional, and purposeful language experiences that will support bilingual preschoolers' learning of EAL. At the same time, educators serve a role in protecting preschoolers' retention of their first language, the language of their family. There is much for educators to consider when implementing strategies that support bilingual preschoolers.

What stands out strongly, in both SCT and SFL literature, is that the 'context' influences how children use and develop language—particularly the cultural context and social context. What

appears to be lacking, however, in both conceptual frameworks, is explicit attention to the emotional context and the influence of emotions, as shown in **Figure 2-7**.

Figure 2-7: The context influencing language learning and language use which currently lacks explicit attention to emotions

2.8 Educators' strategies for supporting bilingual language learners

Whilst the previous literature review section focused upon theories surrounding language learners' experiences, this section reviews research more specific to educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL. Reviewing educators' strategies, as reported in research and practitioner literature, serves to provide orientation to the cultural context of preschool, with regards to educators' pedagogies and practices, and particularly highlights the interpersonal and cultural-institutional lens of focus drawn from the SCT conceptual framework.

In this section, attention is first drawn to critical and post-structuralist theories (explained in Nolan & Raban 2015) and the values of society. This focus serves to note how societal values can impact upon educators' approaches to educating bilingual preschoolers. The second section refers to interview, observational, and questionnaire research, involving mostly mainstream educators to identify educators' recommendations and practices to support bilingual children. The recommendations are then divided into strategies addressing functional language, social interactions and emotional challenges to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL. The final section reiterates the need for more research to identify strategies from various educators working at preschools (particularly those who implement bilingual support programs) to support bilingual preschoolers learning EAL.

2.8.1 Society's cultural impact on bilingual preschoolers' language education

A positive or negative view of bilingualism can either facilitate or restrict opportunities for bilinguals to speak both their first language and EAL. Such views are influenced by the culture of a society. Society and culture have different meanings: society refers to 'a group of people sharing a community and culture'; whereas, culture refers to 'the shared behaviors and beliefs of these people, and includes material and nonmaterial elements' or 'shared beliefs, values and practices' (Griffiths et al. 2017, p. 68–69). Educators' and children's lifestyle choices concerning their use of, and support for languages, are impacted by the norms and values of the society and communities they live in. Wong Fillmore (1976, p. 13) posits that 'Children, even at age five, are aware of pressure to conform to community linguistic norms'.

In the early childhood industry, a contentious issue relating to the study of bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, is how much emphasis educators should direct towards the teaching English, and how much emphasis should be concentrated on retaining bilingual children's first language skills. The issue of valuing, maintaining, and incorporating bilingual children's first languages in education systems, has been raised by Jones Díaz (2007, p. 3) who, in her case study of 25 primary-school-aged children, 29 family members and 34

educators, explored ‘how bilingual children negotiated the use of their home language amidst a backdrop of dominant English-speaking hegemonic relationships and social fields’. Jones Díaz’s (2007) Sydney-based research drew from constructs developed by sociologist Bourdieu (1991) on *cultural* and *linguistic capital*. According to Bourdieu (1991, p. 67), the linguistic capital of society has been ignored by interactionists’ perspectives.

In society, ‘utterances receive their value (and their sense) only in their relation to a market…’ (Bourdieu 1991, p. 67). The term ‘*market*’ draws attention to skills that have value in society—such as speaking certain languages. In Australia, about 77% of people speak ‘only’ English, the single national language, hence Australia’s bilingual speakers are a minority population (NSW Government, Department of Education 2015). Being a linguistic minority can be problematic as there may be less social opportunities to retain first languages and sense their value by others (such as educators or peers at preschool). Bourdieu’s (1991) notion of *habitus* refers to the values and dispositions that afford people to respond to cultural norms and contexts (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 207). A concerning issue is that if a ‘market’, or value, is underrepresented, for a child to use and continue developing their first language, then they may lose their language.

The notion of cultural and linguistic capital, and habitus, has been raised by Robinson and Jones Díaz (2006) who studied the bilingual context of preschoolers who are learning EAL. Academics present that, ‘English is the language of power’, in Australian society and note that home languages often succumb to socio-political forces and power relationships (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 208; Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 105). In Australia, the linguistic capital of many of the home languages, spoken by bilingual families, is considered to be constrained by and negotiated against the backdrop of the more dominant form of capital—English (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 208). Researchers and educators are recommended to challenge discourses driven by monolingual constructions of literacy and learning environments that consistently privilege or prioritise English at the expense of other languages (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 208).

In the 1950s and 1960s, research painted a picture of the bilingual child as ‘needy’ and having a ‘deficit’, or having ‘additional needs’ (Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 115). The idea of bilingual children having a deficit has led to educators prioritising society’s dominant language over others. Nowadays, many defend the importance that children learning EAL are not viewed from a deficit-type perspective, as they bring with them their own unique *funds of knowledge* and first language skills (González, Moll & Amanti 2005; Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006). Whilst educators may still be concerned that bilingual children are ‘lagging’ or

'falling behind' their monolingual peers, experts suggest the importance of gathering a more complete picture of children's full range of vocabulary and language by taking into account their knowledge in both of their languages (Marchman, Fernald & Hurtado 2010, p. 837). Whilst learning a new language is observed to be socially, emotionally and linguistically challenging (Clarke 2009; Shao 2005; Tabors 2008), bilingual children are not necessarily lacking in social, emotional, and linguistic skills in general. An English only context may not reveal the social, emotional, and linguistic capabilities a child has in their first language context.

The term '*funds of knowledge'* endorses that '[p]eople are competent, they have knowledge, and their life experiences have given them that knowledge' (González, Moll & Amanti 2005, p. x). González, Moll and Amanti's (2005) notion of the funds of knowledge, relates to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1962, 1978)—a theory that takes into account children's prior and broader experiences. Both notions defend that skills from the first language provide a foundation for the learning of other languages. Vygotsky (1962) posits:

> Success in learning a foreign language is contingent on a certain degree of maturity in the native language. The child can transfer to the new language the system of meanings he already possesses in his own. The reverse is also true – a foreign language facilitates mastering the higher forms of the native language. The child learns to see his language as one particular system among many, to view its phenomenon under more general categories, and this leads to awareness of his linguistic operations. (Vygotsky 1962, p. 110)

Researchers also acknowledge that many competencies, developed by a child (during their previous cultural and linguistic experiences of learning their first language) can be transferred to the additional learning of English (Lake & Pappamihiel 2003). Over the past few decades, research has reported concerns of *subtractive bilingualism*—the gradual loss of a person's first language speaking ability once a second language is introduced (Dopke 1992). In Australia, Molyneux (2009, p. 106) has reported primary students' 'decreased use of home languages and increased use of English over the duration of their schooling'. Other researchers have also highlighted issues concerning the loss of the first language as a result of introducing schooling in only English (Lambert 1975; Pucinischi 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas 1981; Wong Fillmore 1991).

Changes in children's use of home languages and practices offered by preschools (in regards to first language use) have been researched by Wong Fillmore (1991) who performed a national survey with 1,100 families from linguistic minorities whose children were attending preschool. Over 50% of respondents reported a negative change—that is a drop in the use of the home language. Jones Díaz's (2007, p. 309) research also confirmed that 12 educators

believed their children were losing their home language due to English. Detrimental effects reported in association with children's struggle to maintain their first language include the breakdown of communication between family and community members; the loss of traditions, culture and values which are passed down through the heritage language; and the decline in children's ability to express themselves clearly to others (Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke 2000, p. 32). Several decades ago, there was a general misconception in education and speech pathology that parents should drop the home language in effort to support society's more valued and powerful English language (Clarke 2009). These days, increasing value is placed upon the valuable skill of *balanced bilingualism* (Plessis & Louw 2008).

Embracing and promoting bilingualism, and accommodating bilingual speakers in assessment and programming, has been supported by professionals such as linguists, researchers, educationalists, and speech pathologists, over more recent years (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007; Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 121). Positive outcomes of bilingualism have been presented in Bialystok's (2011) research which involved neuroimaging experiments of executive control tasks with six and eight-year-olds and adults. Such studies have determined several benefits of bilingualism: increased *cognitive flexibility*; improved *meta-linguistic awareness* (an understanding of how languages work); increased *divergent thinking* (the ability to problem solving in multiple ways); and advanced *executive control* (the ability to switch tasks, when compared with monolinguals) (Bialystok, Moreno & Hermanto 2011). It is furthermore endorsed that use of the first language positively contributes to children's social and emotional wellbeing and gives children an opportunity to communicate confidently within their cultural-linguistic community; there are many economic and societal advantages of bilingualism (Crosse 2007, p. 45).

The concept of *balanced bilingualism* has been explained by Cummins (2001, p. 171) using the analogy of a bicycle. He promotes that 'when your wheels are nicely balanced and fully inflated you'll go farther', as opposed to having one wheel (being monolingual), or having a big and little wheel (being more dominant in one language). A balanced bilingual refers to 'someone whose mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent' (Wei 2000, p. 4) and someone who develops a similar level of proficiency in both languages (Wong 2016). It is recommended that children develop their ability to use both languages competently, without English dominating and reducing the other language (Tabors, Páez & Heise-Baigorria 2008). Valuing bilingualism as an asset has led to the emergence of the term '*additive bilingualism*', promoted in research and literature (Clarke 2009; Copple & Bredekamp 2009; Crosse 2007, Jones Díaz 1997; Díaz-Rico 2008; de Courcy 2010; Richards 2007; Tabors 2008). Additive bilingualism occurs when children retain their speaking ability in their first language while

gaining additional skills in another language. The acronym, EAL for English as an additional language is becoming commonplace over ESL or English as a second language. Mariela M Páez in her forward to Tabors' (2008, p. xii) text, '*One Child, Two Languages*' endorses the 'additive perspective' by highlighting that 'children's first language can serve as the foundation for learning English'. Wei (2000, p. 4) further defines additive bilinguals are 'someone whose two languages combine in a complementary and enriching fashion'.

In summary, educators' awareness of and value for the benefits of bilingualism influence the strategies they use to support bilingual children.

2.8.2 Educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers

Having an understanding of the stages of EAL learning in preschool is crucial for educators who support them (Bezdicek 2008; Lake & Pappamihiel 2003), especially considering that research has uncovered that additional language acquisition is a distinct process with unique characteristics which differ from first language acquisition (Saville-Troike 2012). Teachers are hence recommended to differentiate their practice for culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) children.

The Australian curriculum, assessment and reporting authority (ACARA 2011) has published the *'English as an Additional Language or Dialect Resource: Overview of EAL/D Learning Progression'*. This resource is aimed at the school years, not preschool. Currently, an official Australian preschool document directed at EAL/D learners in the preschool years does not exist. The Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority, however, offers free internet access to Clarke's (2009, 2011) two documents: '*Supporting children learning English as a second language in the early years (birth to six years)*' and '*Learning English as an additional language in the early years (birth to six years) resource booklet*'.

Few published studies have involved various early childhood professionals, inclusive of bilingual early childhood workers, to compile strategies for supporting bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL (Adair 2011; Ball 2012; Milne & Clarke 1993). The majority of studies research mainstream teachers and emphasise the teaching of English (Cabezas 2012; Matthews 2010). One recent Melbourne-based study interviewed several experienced educators in Australia who worked with children learning EAL (Cabezas & Rouse 2014, p. 63); however, findings suggested that many teachers focused on experiential and intuitive approaches when planning to teach bilingual children, rather than any formal training or theoretical understandings of EAL learning.

A Sydney-based study in early childhood settings sent out questionnaires to educators asking several question about the bilingual support available for children (Jones Díaz 2007). The study asked whether children used their home languages, and what strategies educators used to encourage children to speak their home language. Scrafton and Whitington's (2015) South Australian study interviewed one teacher and an early childhood worker-bilingual (ECWB) for 15-30 minutes to identify strategies that the educators employed to support CALD children. The main purpose of their study, however, was to observe children to determine their accessibility to socio-dramatic play; hence the focus on educators' strategies was limited. A second component of Clarke's (1996, p. 9) thesis aimed to identify the role of adults, especially the teacher, in supporting children learning English. She achieved this by observing rather than interviewing educators.

Across many past studies, the emphasis has been on supporting the teaching of English, rather than the teaching of bilinguals—with a dual emphasis on retaining the first language and adding the English. The dominating focus on English teaching reflects past attitudes in Australia, and other English-dominant nations, and highlights the power of the linguistic capital of English. Little recent academic research to date has conducted case studies in Australian to investigate recommended strategies and demonstrated practices for supporting bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL while also maintaining and promoting use of their first languages in preschool (Clarke 1996; Jones Díaz 2007). Some New Zealand-based research has begun to tackle this issue, however (Schofield 2011).

Forty-eight educators (half being teachers and half being teacher assistants, inclusive of six Spanish bilingual teachers and eight Spanish bilingual teacher assistants) participated in the Hardin et al. (2010, p. 25) study in Northern Carolina. Educators were asked 'What strategies do you use or have you used to meet the needs of English language learner (ELL) students?' In Facella, Rampino and Shea's (2005) research in Massachusetts, 20 teacher interviews from pre-kindergarten to grade two were conducted to determine common strategies for supporting English language learners (ELLs). In this study, two open ended questions were asked of teachers: the first investigated what strategies teachers found to be effective in promoting language acquisition with their English language learner students, and the second question queried why they felt these strategies worked. Little was said about supporting the first languages in the studies.

Qualified mainstream teachers have commonly been invited to recommend strategies for supporting bilingual preschool learners; these teachers are often English-only speakers, i.e. monolingual (Ellis 2002). Often the teachers have a limited amount of formal training in

educating bilingual preschoolers. Bilingual educators, with first-hand experiences of teaching bilingual preschoolers as well as learning EAL themselves, are suitable advisors to share their knowledge and suggestions of innovative strategies to support bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL. The benefit of preschoolers' interacting with bilingually-matched educators has been advised by several researchers (Clarke 2011, Gort & Pontier 2013; Jones Díaz 1997, Tabors 2008). Multilingual learning has been promoted for some time (Edwards 1996). The notion of *translanguaging*—utlising a speaker's full linguistic repertoire—has emerged in recent years to describe and promote children's use of their multiple languages at school and the encouragement required from educators to do so (García & Wei 2014). Translanguaging has been researched in the US and has been implemented in preschools during shared book reading (Pontier & Gort 2016). Research on *polylingual learning*—using multiple languages—in after-school clubs with kindergarten to grade five dual language learners in Los Angeles has promoted multilingual learning (Gutierrez, Bien, Selland & Pierce 2011, p. 233). The after-school program aimed to sustain children's home languages by encouraging children to use of their full 'linguistic toolkits'. Montague and Meza-Zaragosa (1999, p. 295) further state that 'to show all of the children that the hesitant quiet native Spanish speaker can actually speak quite fluidly in their home language is tremendously important for all involved in the classroom'.

Little research has investigated the interactions between bilingually-matched educators and bilingual preschoolers by observing their segregated small group sessions in addition to interviewing bilingual educators about their practices (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007); mostly mainstream educators have offered comment (Clarke 1996; Shao 2005). Some exceptions, however, include Benz (2015) who researched bilingual educators' practices in a Sydney-based English/German bilingual childcare centre; Sager (2015, p. 164) who also involved Spanish-speaking teacher's aides who contributed that they were not given a voice on pedagogical duties; and Adair (2011) who sought the opinions of immigrant preschool teachers. Adair (2011, p. 56) advocates that 'the rationale for stronger and broader inclusion of immigrant teachers' voices can be applied to many other aspects of early childhood teacher education'.

Playgroup practices to support bilingual learners have been studied in Australia by Morgan, Chodkiewicz and Jones Díaz (2013). Their study employed a participatory ethnographic intervention and introduced a set of strategies to address the cultural and linguistic diversity of the communities by: 1) involving bilingual staff, 2) talking about the importance of language, 3) providing opportunities to use both home and English languages 4) introducing selected bilingual texts and cultural resources, supporting home literacies, and 5) enhancing

opportunities for cross-cultural interactions. The recommendations of the study promoted offering play and literary resources as well as human resources in children's first languages.

Seven bilingual and four monolingual educators were interviewed and participated in focus groups in Ball's (2012) investigation in Auckland, New Zealand which questioned, 'What teaching strategies are used to meet the language and learning needs of young children with diverse languages and literacies?' Findings supported the role of bilingual staff in giving voice to bilingual children by speaking in their home language, although some educators admitted that once the children developed a good command of English, they felt it was no longer necessary to use the home language with them (Ball 2012, p. 90). Ball (2012) also reported that some educators were unaware of the benefit of continuing home language use.

It is timely for preschool-based bilingual support educators to contribute suggestions for educating bilingual learners, considering they possess specialised first-hand knowledge of the process of bilingualism themselves, and can offer empathetic suggestions to support social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language. Presently, specialists who are specifically trained in teaching bilingual preschoolers are rare in Australia; hence, limited research has incorporated expert EAL-educators' advice on practices to support bilingual children.

The majority of suggestions for supporting bilingual preschoolers learning EAL tend to relate to supporting comprehensible input by: using gestures and providing visual clues (props, hands on materials and multisensory approaches), using repetition, holding contextual conversations, and expanding and extending children's talk (Hardin et al. 2010; Facella, Rampino & Shea 2005; Tabors 2008, p. 91-91). Clarke (2009, 2011) and Siraj-Blatchford and Clarke (2000, p. 50) also recommended strategies such as talking to children as if they understand (even when they do not respond verbally themselves), and providing ample time for children to reply. Little research, however, has focused upon educators' support for the range of language functions, which is the focus of the present study.

Strategies addressing functional language use

A review of the limited research emphasising strategies to support various functions of language has recommended:

- scaffolding productive speech
- using sensitive questioning
- fostering children's opportunities to question
- encouraging singing
- facilitating dramatic play; and
- involving children in conversations.

Scaffolding productive speech

It is advocated that 'teachers need to recognise the importance of intentionally targeting the language output of children who are learning English as a second language' (Anthony 2008, p. 472). To learn an additional language, it is crucial that children experience opportunities to use their voices and experiment with their new language. There are two opinions regarding the educator's role to support children who speak very little EAL and demonstrate reluctance in talking. One belief is that such children should be left to naturally gain English skills from immersion and exposure (drawing from Krashen and Terrell's (1983) emphasis on input), and that educators should be patient until the child shows they are ready to talk without pressure (Díaz-Rico 2008; Levine & McCloskey 2009). The second belief recommended by numerous experts is that productive language plays a strong role during the language learning process (Anthony 2008; Brown 2007; Gass & Mackey 2006; Swain 2005). Tabors (2008, p. 94) furthermore recommends that eventually educators need to '*up the ante'* and no longer accept non-verbal responses from children (such as when a child requests assistance with something), and that educators should insist on verbalisations, even if only through one word usage. Barone and Xu (2008, p. 94) also suggest that when educators feel that a child has enough vocabulary, educators should pause and wait for children to make an attempt to verbally communicate.

Researchers recommend that teachers should balance direct questioning with natural and authentic, communicative opportunities within sustained shared conversations (Clarke 2009, p. 25, Montague & Meza-Zaragosa 1999; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke 2000). It is argued that natural language is 'language that is retained longer' (Montague & Meza-Zaragoda 1999, p. 289). Conversations can prompt use of the personal function, although bilingual children who are new to English may find sustained shared conversations challenging due to not yet being capable of communicating effectively using their newly developing vocabularies. In conversations, teachers are recommended to focus on the meaning rather than the form; they are swayed from correcting students in order to keep the flow of the conversation going, rather than place pressure on the grammatical accuracy (Clarke 2002). Educators are recommended to rephrase the correct form in responses and to model correct grammar subtly (Clarke 2009; Tabors 2008). Studies show that 'a child's motivation to use a new language may be impeded as a result of his/her awareness of being corrected' (Wong Kwok Shing 2006, p. 286).

Recasts have been studied by Tsybina, Girolametto, Weitzman and Greenberg (2006). Recasts involve the educator replying to children's utterances and providing syntactic, morphological, or semantic revisions of the children's talk while maintaining a reference to

their central meaning (Nelson, Welsh, Camarata, Butkovsky & Camarata 1995; Chen & Klein 2001). *Expansion* is also another technique suggested to extend children's English by extending upon what a child has said to offer additional information and vocabulary.

Sensitive questioning

Sensitive questioning is supported by first language research (Blank, Rose and Berlin 1978, 1978b) on the *levels of analysis / levels of questioning* (see **Table 2-1**). The levels of questioning offer insight into understanding the different types of questions educators ask of preschoolers (Hay & Fielding-Barnsley 2012).

Table 2-1: Marion Blank's levels of questioning - adapted from Blank, Rose and Berlin (1978) and Hay and Fielding-Barnsley (2012)

Level of questioning	Examples
1. Matching perception • **Locating**	*Where is the bear?*
2. Selective analysis of perception • **Classification**	*What is this?* *Are they the same?*
3. Reordering perception • **re-organising, predicting**	*What happened?* *What might happen next?*
4. Reasoning about perception • **explanation, abstraction, inference**	*Why are they not the same?* *Why did Mr Magee fall?*

In 2011, Farndale (2011) applied the levels of questioning to an action research project for the Department for Education and Child Development at a South Australian, Adelaide city preschool, to explore ways to question bilingual three to five-year-old children to promote their productive EAL language. Farndale (2011) collaborated with a director, preschool teacher and several bilingual staff and the study revealed that when interacting with bilingual preschoolers who are new to English, the act of simplifying the levels of questions, posed at bilingual preschoolers, enhanced a child's ability to understand the question and respond productively in English. Higher levels of questioning were found to be too complicated for the bilingual preschoolers—who were new to EAL—due to potential difficulties in comprehending what was being asked of them, or challenges to formulate an English response (in the case of the more analytical questions).

Matching questioning techniques to the different stages of EAL learners' language development is also suggested by Grognet, Jameson, Franco and Derrick-Mescua (2000, cited in Levine & McCloskey 2009, p. 101). Montague and Meza-Zaragosa (1999) researched elicited responses and questioning in a Spanish-English bilingual classroom where children had the option of responding to questions in either of their languages. Findings

revealed that accepting a response, in the child's language of choice, encouraged children to speak up more often.

Teachers have been found to often ask questions in research with EFL five-year-olds (Llinares García 2005, p. 15; 2006; Llinares García & Trillo 2007, p. 207). Schofield's (2011, p. 93) participant research involving 12 bilingual four-year-old children and educators identified that more than 30% of initiated interactions by educators were in the form of questioning; they also offered that numerous types of questions can be asked of children to encourage their learning. The recommendation to elicit an English language response from bilingual children via sensitive questioning has also been noted researched by Drury (2009, p. 17) and Díaz Rico (2008). Díaz-Rico (2008) also highlights the need to match questioning types to students' proficiency levels and again suggests that educators need to offer more wait time after posing questions which require more critical thinking in the child's response. Tabors (1987) notes that the responses elicited from children by educators' questions often result in one-word answers where children name things, as is the case in closed questions. In Siraj-Blatchford and Manni's (2008, p. 5) research, based on 1967 adult questions randomly sampled from the total of 5808 questions that were collected during four half-day observations from 12 preschool settings, closed questions were found to be asked 94.5% of the time and open-ended questions were asked only 5.5% of the time.

Ethnographic researchers note that the nature of asking questions is culturally influenced—questions serve different purposes and are used differently by various cultures (Rogoff 2003). There are different motivations for educators who question children, for example, some questions are asked to examine children (they are not conversational but rather aimed at assessing children's skills), whereas others are asked to ignite thought and curiosity and are part of a natural conversation. Teachers' language use has also been researched by Tabors, Consuelo, Lilia, Páez and Wolf (2009). Whilst teachers' questioning is apparently common, teachers' provision of opportunities for bilingual children to formulate their own questions was not found in many studies.

Fostering opportunities for children to ask questions for themselves

Experts recommend that in general, 'schools should encourage and develop children's ability to ask questions' as 'questions are a mediator for both communication and thinking' (Havigerová & Burešova 2014, p. 63). In Australian culture, it is a common assumption that young children ask many questions (Fellowes & Oakley 2014, p. 305) and that children are 'adept at asking and responding to questions' (Davis & Torr 2016, p. 98). However, studies have rarely investigated bilingual preschoolers questioning. Questions appear during the

early preschool years and different question types develop in a sequence (Berk 2013, p. 387). Research by Chouinard (2007, p. 42) highlights that the majority of questions that children ask aim to 'gather information about the world'.

The value of children's questions and suggestions of how to support young children to ask productive questions is presented by Birbili (2017, p. 12) who notes that children need to feel safe to ask questions. Children often begin questioning by using rising intonation in order to convert an utterance into a yes/no question; they later use wh- constructions ('what', 'where' and 'who') and proceed to ask 'how', 'why' and 'when' questions (Berk 2013, p 388 cites de Villiers 2000). Spada and Lightbown (1993, p. 61, cited in Clarke's thesis in 1996) also developed a progression for question asking. Evidently, little research has investigated bilingual children's frequency of questioning. What we do know is that different cultures engage in different practices with regards to questioning, and in some cultures, questioning a teacher is considered culturally unacceptable (Abbott 1980, p. 5). The practice of encouraging bilingual children to sing, however, seems more prevalent in early childhood.

Encouraging singing

Music and singing provides beneficial opportunities for practising and learning language, as found in several studies (e.g. Bird 2007; Clarke 1996; Miranda 2011, Paquette & Rieg 2008; Priester 2011; Shin 2010). In Shao's (2005, p. 194) case study, the question 'What kinds of classroom activities have the potential to invite language minority children into interaction, and in turn, stimulate their language use and learning?' was asked, and responses included circle-time, singing, and dancing. For some children, that the act of singing can reduce anxiety and can increase a child's willingness to communicate (Priester 2011, p. 8). Clarke (1996, p. 265) reported that singing had a positive effect in assisting preschooler, Thoa, in his 'entry into English'. Singing has also been reported to aid stutterers and foreign language anxiety sufferers (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986, p. 127). The '*musical din*', the term used to describe the '*song stuck in my head*' phenomenon, is argued to support language learning as it leads to children subconsciously practising new words (Priester 2011, p. 8). Singing and chants encourage children to attempt speaking in a less threatening way, and afford vocal opportunities for children when they do not yet have the proficiency to express their inner thoughts in their new language (Bird 2007; Priester 2011). Group-time singing is particularly endorsed for assisting less outgoing or anxious language learners who are shy (Beaty & Pratt 2011, p. 71; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986, p. 126). Singing can rouse the imagination, as with dramatic play—another strategy recommended in research to support bilingual learners.

Facilitating dramatic play

Western-based literature suggests that preschoolers often engage in imaginative role-play between the ages of three and five (Berk 2012). The imaginative function is also listed in Halliday's (2004) seven initial language functions. The positive influences of socio-dramatic play upon children's EAL learning has been promoted in Scrafton and Whitington's (2015) research. They recommend that educators make themselves 'available to support culturally and linguistically diverse children to access [socio-dramatic] play, particularly those not participating' such as children displaying teacher-reported shyness (Scrafton & Whitington 2015, p. 12). Other researchers such as Rieg and Paquette (2009) and Li (2012) endorse the implementation of drama programs for children learning EAL and children learning their heritage language/s.

Strategies addressing social interactions

Much research this millennium has focused on social-based strategies that educators 'suggest' in interviews and questionnaires to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL (Facella, Rampino & Shea 2005). Little research has observed early childhood professionals, particularly bilingual educators, as they interact with children to identify the social strategies they implement (Clarke 1996), how these relate to the interpersonal lens of focus in SCT, and how the tenor shapes language within the context of situation. Social-based strategies to support bilingual preschoolers include:

- providing bilingually-matched educators
- arranging peers into groups
- bilingual pairing; and
- inviting and welcoming parental involvement.

Providing bilingually-matched educators

A 'major factor in supporting young bilingual children in the early years is the employment of bilingual staff to work in all areas of the program' (Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke 2000, p. 37). In 1991-1993, Milne and Clarke (1993) researched bilingual early childhood centers in Victoria, Australia and have since advocated for bilingual education on behalf of young Australians in order to support maintenance of first languages and to bridge the learning of the second. Bilingual educators play a vital role in extending valuing and respecting the primary language, supporting home language maintenance, and promoting balanced bilingualism (Bezdicek 2008; Calderón, Slavin & Sánchez 2011). Lugo-Neris, Jackson and Goldstein's (2010) research with Spanish-English bilinguals found that gains in vocabulary were increased when the first language was utilised to support the teaching of vocabulary in

the second language (L2). August, Carlo, Dressler and Snow (2005) also support this same finding.

A bilingual teaching assistant can be a ‘mediator of language and culture’ (Drury 2007, p. 76) as observed during four-year-old Nazma’s interactions with Mussarat, her bilingual teaching assistant who told Nazma the story of ‘*The Very Hungry Caterpillar’* in the Pahari language. Mussarat valued Nazma’s first language and its contribution to her understanding in her additional language, English. Whilst few studies have focused upon bilingual assistants, other studies have focused upon peer support for getting into English.

Arranging peer groups and intentionally partnering children

Few investigations into preschoolers’ experiences of learning EAL have investigated intentional and strategic arrangements of peers, although school-based studies have investigated bilingual pairing (Alanis 2011). Hirschler (1991, 1994) and Fassler (1998, 2003) are two of the few researchers who have specifically investigated peer interactions of preschool-aged children. Bilingual experts such as Smidt (2008, pp. 78–79) suggest that silent children 'should be invited to speak in their first language to one another’. Drury (2007) also highlights that same language friends assist enculturation and extend opportunities for further development and maintenance of home languages. English-native-speaking-peers, or English-as lingua franca-peers, on the other hand, provide opportunities for ELLs to rehearse and extend their EAL skills.

In general, little previous literature has emphasised the act of preschool teachers intentionally arranging peers (Scrafton & Whitington 2015). Although, Clarke’s (1996, p. 264) thesis highlighted that some children needed more encouragement to participate in English-speaking peer groups as they often opted to play with their home language peers.

Promoting parental involvement

A number of studies have researched parental involvement as a means of supporting EAL learners (Harper & Pelletier 2010; Pucinischi 2008). The early childhood educators, interviewed in Cabezas and Rouse’s (2014) Australian study, recommended encouraging parents to speak their home languages to their children. Contemporary research highlights that parents should not be coerced into abandoning children’s first languages, a malpractice which occurred in many children’s services in the past (Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 108). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (2016), Article 30, states:

> Children have the right to learn and use the language and customs of their families, whether or not these are shared by the majority of the people in the country where they live, as long as this does not harm others.

Inviting parents to visit preschools and teach songs, cook, play games and read stories using children's first languages is also recommended through research (Clarke 2009, 2011). Although Harper and Pelletier's (2010) Canadian study found that communication between teachers and the ELLs' parents was less common, due to language barriers. Interpreters and translator are recommended to be utilised in children's services to support communication and reduce frustration (Clarke 2009).

Having bilingual texts available at playgroups and preschool is one strategy recommended to invite parents to read with children in their home languages (Morgan, Chodkiewicz & Jones Díaz 2013). Providing bilingual resources is also promoted in the *Early Years Learning Framework for Australia* (EYLF 2009 p. 41), which encourages educators to 'provide a literacy-enriched environment including displaying print in home languages and Standard Australian English'. Literature in early childhood settings, even monolingual settings, should consist of a range of texts from other cultures and written in different languages (Harris 2007, p. 160). Such literature provides children with a sense of value for their first language or other languages.

Strategies addressing emotional challenges

Emotion-based strategies for supporting bilingual preschoolers do not seem to be commonly reported in research. Facella, Rampino and Shea's (2005, p. 211) research is one of few studies that sought strategies for engaging learners emotionally. Two emotion-based strategies which have been recommended in the literature to support bilingual preschoolers as they transition to communicating in EAL are reducing anxiety and developing trust.

Reducing anxiety

With regards to anxiety, Díaz-Rico (2008, p. 71) writes:

> 'Teachers need to be aware that learning a second language is difficult for young children as well as adults. Helping children to feel socially comfortable reduces unwanted forms of anxiety and assists acquisition'.

Anxiety was also mentioned in Shao's (2005) study of Baobao. Shao (2005, p. 228) highlighted that having an adult who spoke Baobao's first language 'eased his anxiety and helped him to adjust...' Tabors (2008, p. 96) suggests that providing a safe haven for children to escape to, and retreat in, alleviates the constant pressure and exhaustion that results from foreign or new language learning contexts, and that predictable routines ease anxiety. Emotions-considerate researchers further suggest that:

> Educators have two options when dealing with anxious students: Firstly, they can help them cope with the existing anxiety provoking situation and secondly they can make the learning context less stressful. (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986, p. 131)

Bligh (2014, p. 104) states that 'the significance of the affective during the silent period has not been addressed in relation to the 'caring' role of the early years teacher/practitioner, and the level of empathy required in supporting bilingual learning' emphasises that more information on bilingual children's emotional experiences and educators' support is required in future studies. She continues…

> Although there has been no attempt to address factors relating to 'feelings of isolation' the 'affective' and 'cultural discontinuity' within the silent period; further investigations into practitioner/teacher's professional capabilities in addressing these significant issues might 'throw light' on the impact of positive and negative factors throughout the silent period. (Bligh 2014, p. 114)

Bligh (2014, p. 83) did, however, refer to Lave and Wegner's (1998) research and her participant, Suki (a five-year-old Japanese girl), who required 'lessened intensity', 'lessened risk', and 'lessened cost of error' to support her to speak.

Developing Trust

The strategy of developing trust has only recently been given attention in research investigating educators' support for EAL learners. Scrafton and Whitington (2015, p. 12), for example, recently noted, *trust,* as an important aspect when forming relationships with children. Plutchik (2001) considered trust to be one of the primary emotions; however, little academic research has intentionally investigated strategies that educators recommend to support bilingual preschoolers to develop trust while they learn to speak EAL in preschool.

2.8.3 The need for research identifying additional strategies to support bilingual preschoolers

More recommendations are needed to identify strategies educators can adapt to:

- support bilingual preschoolers' functional language
- facilitate different social interactions; and
- Support bilingual children in emotional ways.

The present study, therefore, observes various educators' practices in action and invites them to recommend strategies to support bilingual children's learning.

2.9 Summary of the literature review

The review of the literature has identified numerous theoretical perspectives and concepts concerning bilingual children as they learn EAL. A common theme among the theories and concepts is that they contribute towards describing the context surrounding, or sub-contexts

weaving together to influence, bilingual preschoolers' language use. The contexts include the cultural context (for example, the family and preschool's cultural-institutional practices), the social context (interactions with peers and educators—those more or less knowledgeable), the emotional context (the effects of affect, the connection between emotions and cognition, anxiety and willingness to communicate, confidence, and apprehension) and the context of situation (the field—what is going on during dialogue and the tenor—who is involved and how the relationship between interlocutors influences speech). Social interactions, functional language use and emotions have often been studied separately; however, this study explores the interplay between cultural, social, and emotional contexts, while analysing bilingual children's functional language.

The issues raised during the review of the literatures have established that bilingual educators have been minimally involved in research; emotions have often been excluded at the outset of studies; and that the functions of the language expressed by bilingual preschoolers have rarely been analysed in depth (in relation to children's context of situation). The second part of the literature review has identified numerous presently reported strategies to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL; however, more strategies are sought. The next step forward is to continue to qualitatively investigate bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use so as to identify educators' practices and suggestions to support young bilingual learners. The following Chapter Three, *The Methodology*, proceeds to detail the multi-method, interpretive case study design developed to investigate this topic further.

3. The Methodology

3.1 Introduction

It was argued in the literature review, that in order to thoroughly understand the experiences of bilingual preschoolers learning English as an additional language (EAL), so as to identify strategies to support bilingual children, contemporary research needs to embark upon richly descriptive and illustrative qualitative investigations in context. Such investigations need to explore preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, to extend current understandings in the field. This methodology chapter, therefore, provides the rationale for applying an interpretivist research paradigm, incorporating a combination of conceptual frameworks, drawing from: social interactionist perspectives, emotions-inclusive research approaches, and systemic functional linguistics (SFL), to implement the present case study.

The research approach, paradigm and selection of a case study approach, incorporating ethnographic techniques, are detailed in this chapter. Research preparations, such as ethical considerations, and purposive site and participant recruitment procedures, are also addressed. The timeline of the study is then presented, before detailing the nature of participant observation. This is followed by an explanation of the data collection methods such as observations (documented through field notes, audio recordings, movie-mode recordings, and photographs), interviews and spontaneous conversations (documented through audio recordings and field notes), questionnaires, and the collection of documents and work samples. Details of data storage processes, and the use of NVivo, are also provided. An explanation of the data analysis procedures ensues, to detail reflective journaling (which served to combine data collection with early analysis) and to explain the *a priori* coding process used to analyse children's functional language. Thematic analysis procedures and memoing are also explained to detail how children's social interactions and emotional challenges were interpreted and coded, and related to children's functional language use. A critique of the trustworthiness of the study follows, drawing attention to triangulation, the 'multiple' approach, and the benefits of prolonged engagement. The biography of the

researcher, a human instrument of data collection, is also presented, to demonstrate integrity and acknowledge the researcher's sociocultural impact upon the study. The chapter concludes by acknowledging the boundaries of the study, by presenting the limitations.

3.1.1 The research questions

The two *research questions* (RG) that guided the study explored the context surrounding bilingual preschoolers' oral language and asked:

1. What social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?
2. What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

The three sub-questions in the *social* category (1.1) focusing on the children's experiences asked:

1.1.1 With whom do bilingual preschoolers interact regularly at preschool?

1.1.2 What languages do bilingual preschoolers speak during these interactions?

1.1.3 What language learning opportunities do the various social interactions afford?

The sub-question in the *emotional* category (1.2) focusing on the children's experiences asked:

1.2.1 What emotional challenges are encountered by bilingual preschoolers who are in the early stages of learning to communicate in EAL?

1.2.2 How are emotional challenges incorporated into children's context of situation and how do they influence children's productive language learning?

The various sub-questions for the *functional language* category focusing on the children's experiences (1.3) included:

1.3.1 What are the frequencies of bilingual preschoolers' functional language—*instrumental, regulatory, personal, interactional, heuristic, imaginative*, and *informative*—when speaking EAL at preschool?

1.3.2 Which language functions are most and least commonly expressed?

And finally, the final question concerning the children's experiences asked:

1.4 How can children's functional language use be explained in relation to each individual child's context?

The second primary question in the study, investigating the *educators' strategies* to support preschoolers as they learned EAL, was further categorised to identify and compile:

2.1 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' social interaction

2.2 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges

2.3 Strategies that address bilingual preschoolers' functional language use

3.2 The research approach

The present study drew from an interpretivist paradigm incorporating several conceptual frameworks. The paradigm, or framework of the study, influenced the selection of corresponding data collection methods and analysis procedures. The research paradigm related to the aims and objectives of the research—to investigate children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. The epistemological, conceptual, and methodological frameworks guiding the present investigation are demonstrated in **Figure 3-1** which presents the overview of the study.

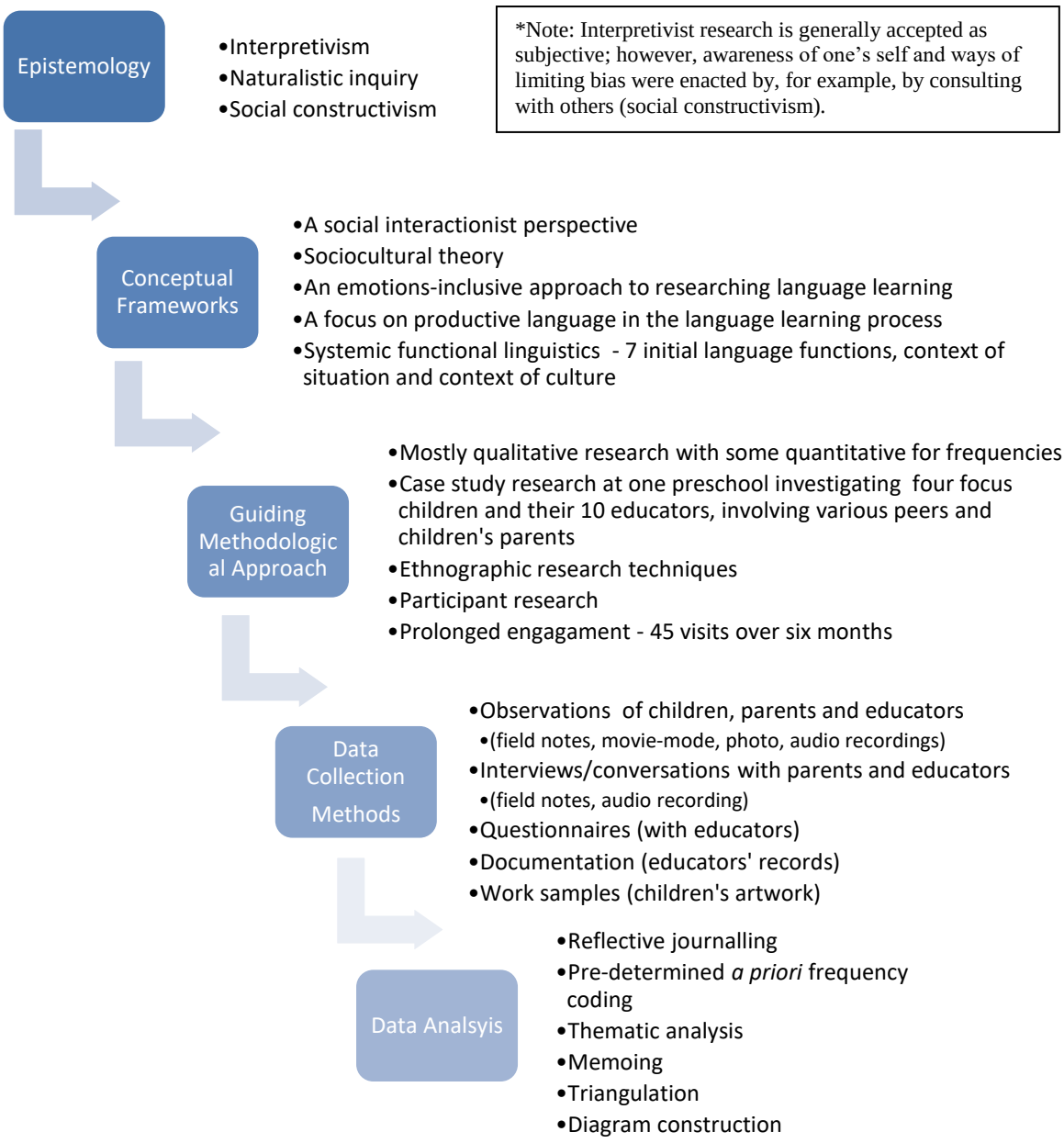


Figure 3-1: An overview of the study

3.2.1 The paradigm

A paradigm is a 'comprehensive belief-system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field' (Willis 2007, p. 8). An essential aspect is 'the nature of truth (ontology) and what it means to know (epistemology)' (Willis 2007, p. 8). An *interpretivist* research paradigm, incorporating humanistic experience guided the study.

> Interpretivism opposes the positivism's ontological view that there is one reality, external to the mind, and capable of being studied in parts. Instead, interpretivism proposes a relativist world of multiple realities that are constructed and co-constructed by the mind(s) and required to be studied as a whole. Rather than the objective facts that are measured by the researcher, interpretivist epistemology seeks out subjective beliefs that are co-created between the researcher and the researched…
> (Lincoln & Guba 2013, p. 88)

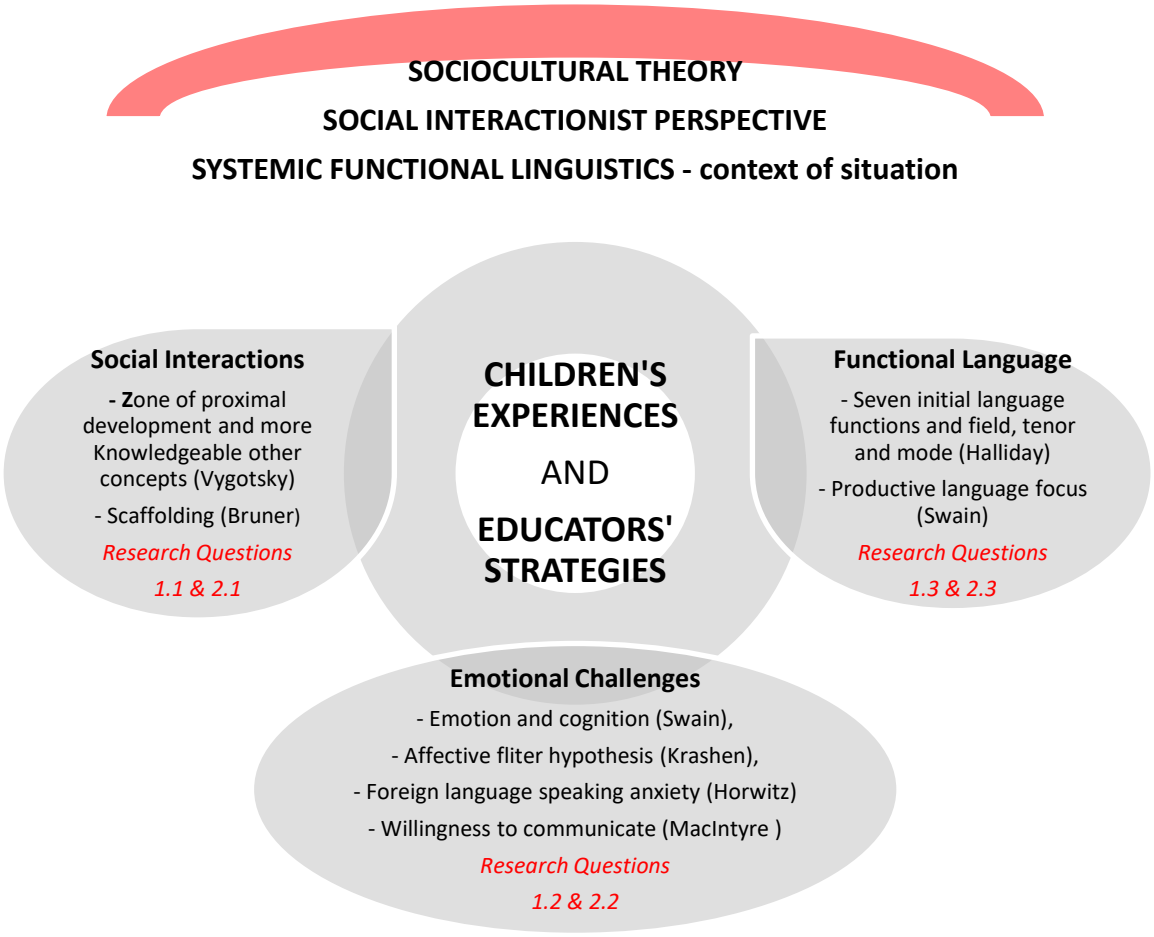
The present study involved a predominantly *qualitative* approach. Qualitative approaches typically involve narrative data (Teddie & Tashakkori 2009, p. 22) and have detailed, in-depth, and descriptive qualities to answer the broader 'what' and 'how' questions, such as questions 1.1, 1.2 and 1.4 in this study. Qualitative research is exploratory and inductive and sets out to answer questions which require details (Teddie & Tashakkori 2009, p. 6). Qualitative research often aims to describe a phenomenon in detail, whereas quantitative research typically collects numeric data and is deductive—the researcher knows what they are looking for and they count it (Teddie & Tashakkori 2009, p.22). When a question seeks an answer of frequencies or regularity, how often, or how many, most or least—a quantity is sought. Such was the case for question 1.3 investigating children's use of seven pre-determined functions of language and question 1.1.1 With whom do preschoolers interact regularly? When mixing data collection methods, 'the use of whatever methodological tools are required to answer the research questions under study' is advocated (Teddie & Tashakkori 2009, p. 7). The present study was predominantly qualitative due to the need to interpret the data, detail, describe and explain it; hence the interpretive paradigm was drawn upon.

An interpretive epistemology in a *naturalistic* preschool setting, framed the investigation in order to capture four bilingual children's experiences as they learned EAL and identify ten educators' recommended and implemented strategies for supporting bilingual children's learning. Interpretivist approaches require a researcher to embrace subjectivity, build relationships with participants and become immersed in the context (Jones & Watt 2010, p. 17). In interpretivist research, context is crucial whereas positivist research 'ignores context and attempts to establish generalities independent of setting' (Given 2008, p. 660). The interpretive approach 'has influenced the development of the social sciences and has helped

our understanding of the contemporary social world to a great extent' (Chowdhury 2014, p. 432). The interpretive ideology, which 'emphasizes social interaction as the basis for knowledge' (O'Donoghue 2007, p 9), was selected to reach a thorough understanding of the children's and educators' lives, as a result of observation and probed questioning in interviews, conversations and questionnaires. These social 'negotiations for meaning' (through social constructivism) were achieved by watching participants intensively, in their natural environment, to make sense of their behaviours, actions, events, and experiences. The study also asked educators and parents about their own versions of their natural experiences. Naturalistic research has often been conducted in research involving bilingual three to five year olds, in order to capture and understand their everyday experiences (Bligh 2014; Clarke 1996; Drury 2007, 2013; Jones Díaz 2007; Shao 2005; Tabors 2008). During interpretive research, bias and subjectivity are often perceived as problematic; however, Yin (2009, 2012, p. 35) argues that this does not necessarily diminish the value of interpretive research providing precautionary measures are set up to minimise such concerns. One precautionary measure is drawing from established conceptual frameworks in order to strengthen research.

3.2.2 Conceptual frameworks

'Reliance on theoretical concepts to guide design and data collection remains one of the most important strategies for doing successful case studies', as argued by Yin (2012, p. 27). In **Figure 3-2**, the umbrella of conceptual frameworks, including *sociocultural theory*, *social interactionism* and *systemic functional linguistics' context of situation*, provided overarching influences upon the present study. Concepts from previous research, relating to bilingual learners' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, were also incorporated into the research design.



* *Research Question 1.4* combines all three conceptual frameworks to explore how children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use interrelate.

Figure 3-2: The conceptual frameworks in relation to the research questions

The present case study was guided by ***sociocultural theory*** (SCT), which argues that children's social and cultural histories are highly influential upon their development (Vygotsky 1978). Vygotsky's approach to language learning and teaching acknowledges the influence of children's prior social and cultural historical experiences—children's home life and their cultural ways of living and being (Fellowes & Oakley 2014). SCT has commonalities with SFL's context of culture—both identify the influence of culture. SCT emphasises the impact of culture in learning and SFL emphasises the impact of culture in communication. Parallels can be also be drawn between SCT's interpersonal focus upon peers and MKOs and SFL's interpersonal metafunction and focus on the tenor within the context of situation. Both emphasise social interaction. While SCT theorists (e.g. Vygotsky 1987; Rogoff 2003) and SFL theorists (Halliday 2004; Malinoski 1994; Painter 1985, 2005) draw attention to culture and social interaction, they only somewhat acknowledge the influence of emotions upon language use and language learning. Neither explicitly or specifically incorporates emotions into their conceptualisations of language development or

language use; hence, additional theories of emotion are also incorporated into the present study on language use. Several researchers have recently incorporated SCT into studies with bilingual preschoolers (Bligh 2014; Bligh & Drury 2015; Drury 2007, p. vii; Morgan & Chodkiewicz 2009; Robertson, Drury & Cable 2014; UNESCO 2011; Shao 2005). SCT places precedence on the relationships, interactions and cultures of people (Fleer & Richardson 2004).With regards to SCT, learning is shaped by children's participation in the everyday cultural practices and traditions that are part of the communities in which they live (Bezdicek & García 2012, p. 172).

Research drawing from Vygotsky's SCT involves observing children through three lenses: *personal, interpersonal,* and *cultural-institutional,* in order to gain a thorough understanding of children in interconnection with their world (Fleer & Richardson 2004 p. 26). Rogoff (2003, pp. 52–62) elaborates on the three lenses by giving an example of how a photographic image of a child can be analysed according to each of the lenses. Fleer and Richardson (2004, pp. 24–26) also offer further explanation on sociocultural observations and the three lenses using photographic images. In observing through a personal lens, a researcher/observer might focus on a child's immediate actions as a solitary individual (for example, they may only draw attention to what a child says rather than to whom they speak), an observer might also focus on each individual person included in an image (but not on their interaction or the relationships between the people). Using an interpersonal lens of focus, attention is given to the relationship and interactions between a child and the persons with whom they interact. Their roles, age, power, and status might be noted as well as how they support or scaffold or respond to each other. This interpersonal lens of SCT can be likened to the context of situation and the aspect of the tenor as both focus on the social interaction. Finally, in applying a cultural-institutional lens of focus, a researcher might draw attention to the cultural activities, policies, practices, and the routines involved in a children's service that may impact on a child's actions and relationships.

Alternative approaches to SCT, by researchers such as Matthews (2010), have drawn from culturally relevant pedagogy to observe educators' strategies more closely. Morgan, Chodkiewicz and Jones Díaz (2013), on the other hand, employed a 'sociolinguistic' approach to their study, although they still referred to Fleer and Richardson's (2004) sociocultural approach to researching children. The impact of being guided by the sociocultural theoretical perspective, in this study, led to comprehensive details being collected to thoroughly describe and understand the wider context influencing the focus preschoolers' personal lives and how this impacted upon their language learning in the preschool context. The inclusion of sociocultural theory reinforces Ary's (2010, p. 455) claim

that '[t]he greatest advantage of the case study is the possibility of depth; it seeks to understand the whole case study in the totality of the environment'.

Consistent with Vygotsky's SCT, the present study incorporated a ***social interactionist*** perspective, to merge the study of language learning with social aspects of human experience. The current study aimed to identify: the people whom often took part in interactions with the focus children (RQ1.1.1), the languages focus preschoolers spoke in interactions (RQ1.1.2) the social strategies that educators' suggested and implemented to support bilingual children (RQ2.1), and also served to document: the influences, or affordances, of such peer and educator relationships upon bilingual children's language use (RQs 1.4). The study additionally incorporated the Vygotskian concept of the ***zone of proximal development*** (ZPD) and the construct of the ***more knowledgeable other*** (MKO), described in Vygotsky's words as…

> '… the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.'
> (Vygotsky 1978, p. 86)

MKOs in this study included parents, early childhood educators and any peers who were more advanced in their English-speaking abilities than the four focus children of the study. Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974, p. 98) concept of scaffolding, or providing learning support through processes such as recruitment (creating interest for a child), reducing freedom (simplifying a task), maintaining direction (keeping a child motivated), marking critical features (accentuating certain features of a task), controlling frustration (reducing stress) and demonstrating (modelling), were later reflected upon during the study. The study involved critical reflection on the role of MKOs and other children—children who were not MKOs. It was also noted how other 'others' assisted focus children to extend their current independent abilities, as 'novice' EAL speakers, towards their future potential abilities, as more 'expert' speakers (Vygotsky 1978).

An ***emotions-inclusive approach*** to researching language learners was incorporated into the study to identify: various emotional challenges that were encountered by children learning EAL at preschool (RQ 1.2.1), how emotions related to the context of situation, and context of culture (RQ 2.2), how educators supported children's emotional experiences (RQ 2.3), and how emotions related to children's functional language use (RQ 1.4). As argued in the literature review, emotions have been often ignored in past research, and in paradigms and pedagogies framing studies of language learning, particularly learning EAL (Swain 2013, p. 4). The emotions-considerate aspect of the present study also drew from the notion of the

affective filter hypothesis, which originated from Krashen and Terrell's (1983) previously popularised monitor model on second language learning. This study, however, did not hold the assumption that negative emotions impede on learning, as per Krashen's affective filter hypothesis. The present study integrated Swain's (2013) contemporary approach to studying language and acknowledged that emotion-related factors can impact on language learning in positive ways to prompt future learning. An age appropriate early childhood theory, combining emotions and bilingual preschoolers, was not found prior to conducting the present study, hence the present study drew from research studying emotions with older populations of language learners.

As mentioned in the literature review, emotions are a complex topic to study as the identification of emotions relies on interpretations of observed body language, speech, and individuals' reports. Darwin (1965) and Ekman (1993), however, defend that some emotional facial expressions *are* universal for humans, despite cultural influences. Conversely, recent research by Yan, Andrews and Young (2016, p. 423), comparing 'white British' and Chinese adults in their recognition of facial expressions, debates that this universality may have been overestimated; their research found that both cultures were 'slightly more accurate with whole-face images of their own ethnic group'. When possible, bilingual educators were sought, in the present study, to interpret emotional circumstances and children's gestures. Facial expressions and body language were captured in photographs, movie-mode recordings, and field notes, and were interpreted, analysed, and attributed to certain emotions. Some emotional behaviours and events were repeatedly noticed and were linked to known concepts such as ***foreign language speaking anxiety*** (Horwitz 2001) and language learners' ***willingness to communicate*** (MacIntrye 2002). The concepts used in this study derive from studies with older participants, due to conceptual understandings of bilingual children's emotional experiences of language learning being presently scarce—much like studies of bilingual preschoolers' functional use of EAL.

The functional language component of this study drew from ***systemic functional linguistics*** (SFL). The notion of the ***'context of situation'*** formed part of the umbrella framework (previously presented in **Figure 3-2**) for analysing the social, emotional, and functional language aspects of the study. Integrating the context of situation drew attention to: the ***field*** (the contextual details that prompted the language exchange, the topic and subject matter of speech), and the ***tenor*** (the relationships between children and their interlocutors, and how such relationships impact on speech). In the present study, the spoken ***mode*** was in focus, rather than the written mode of communication (although several pictorial forms of communication were incorporated into data collection). Attention to field and tenor occurred

throughout the study, to explore the relationship between preschoolers' social-emotional circumstances and their functional language experience (RQ 1.4).

The functional language aspect of the study also concentrated on children's production of Halliday's (2004) ***seven initial language functions*—**to instruct, regulate, interact, speak about their personal selves, question, inform, and imagine in children's English utterances. This served to answer RQ 1.3, 2.3 and 1.4. Children's first language speech was also recorded (to answer RQ 1.2.2 & 1.4). Precise transcriptions of children's first language utterances were often not possible, due to the constraints of the linguistic capital of the researcher and the unavailability of full-time interpreters. Occurrences of focus preschoolers' first language speech were quantified; however, accurate transcription of the majority of children's first language speech was not possible.

In this study, utterances were defined as children's uninterrupted chains of spoken language, but they also included forms of telegraphic (Tabors 2008) or one word speech. Investigating children's functional motivations for speaking EAL aimed to identify which language functions children were regularly producing at preschool and whether any were scarce (RQ 1.3). The rationale for using Halliday's (2004) seven language functions is that Halliday's functions offer a simplified process for classifying initial functions, compared to other more elaborate functional language classifications used in other research (Hymes 1974; Kumpulainen & Wray 1997). The focus on productive speech, rather than receptive learning, drew from Gass and Mackey (2006) and Swain's (2005) valuing of output in the process of language learning. The study's objective was to investigate the utterances children said aloud, rather than the language children receptively understood.

3.2.3 The case study

In order to investigate the experiences of bilingual children learning EAL, so as to identify strategies which educators suggest and implement to support bilingual children's social interaction, emotional challenges, and functional language use, a six-month ***case study*** in one preschool (20 minutes north of Adelaide, South Australia), with four focus children (involving their parents) and ten focus educators, was undertaken. **Figure 3-3** provides an illustration of the case—the preschool, the focus preschoolers, their educators, parents, and peers.

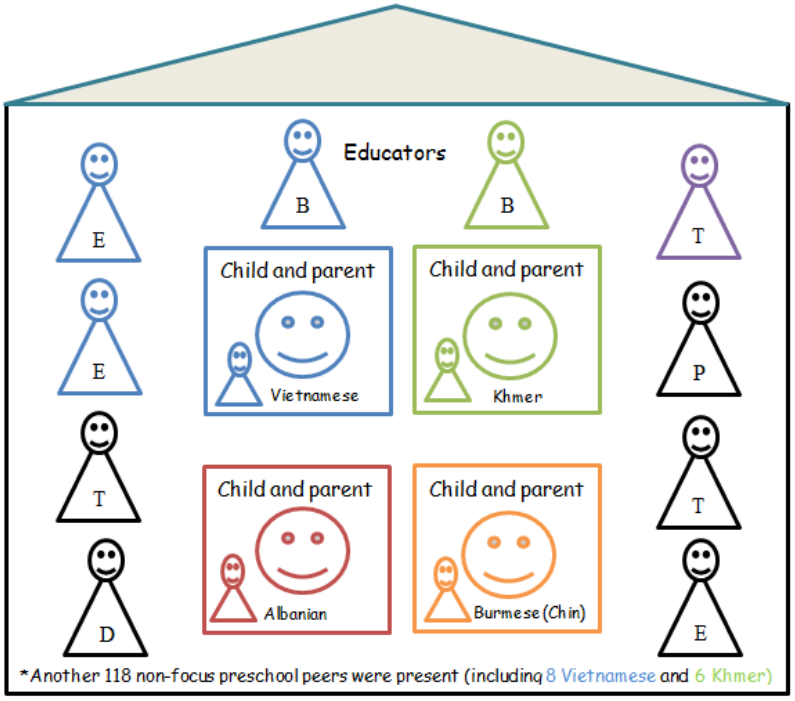


Figure 3-3 The multi-participant, single-site case study

In **Figure 3-3**, the participants, coded in **blue**, spoke **Vietnamese;** those in **green** spoke **Khmer;** those in **red** spoke **Albanian;** those is **orange** spoke **Burmese (Chin)**; those in **purple** spoke **Tagalog**; and those in **black** spoke **only English**. All adults spoke English and all four focus children were in the early stages of speaking EAL. There were also another 118 preschool peers present who interacted among the focus preschoolers in the study. Eight preschool peers spoke **Vietnamese** and six spoke **Khmer**; others peers spoke languages other than English and many peers spoke English. Educators consisted of: a director (D), teachers (T), early childhood workers (E), early childhood workers-bilingual support (B), and a language and communication preschool support educator (P). Participants are detailed in **Table 3-1**.

Table 3-1: Details of participants

PARTICIPANTS	DETAILS	LANGUAGES
Educators (n=10)	Director	English only
	Teacher	English only
	Teacher	English only
	Teacher	Tagalog/English
	ECW	English only
	ECW	Vietnamese/English/Chinese/French
	ECW	Vietnamese/English
	Bilingual Support ECWB	Khmer/English/Chinese (Mandarin)
	Bilingual Support ECWB	Vietnamese
	Language and Communication Support	English only
Focus Children (n=4)	Patty	Vietnamese/English
	Shaun	Khmer/English
	Limi	Albanian/English
	Van Van	Burmese-Chin/English
Parents (n=4)	Patty's Mother	Vietnamese/English
	Shaun's Mother	Khmer/English
	Limi's Mother	Albanian/English
	Van Van's Mother	Burmese-Chin/English
Other children (n=118)	Numerous preschoolers (3–5 year olds) interacted with the focus children and some occasional care children (2–4 year olds) *Some were bilingual some were English monolingual.	Vietnamese, Khmer, Mandarin, Persian, Gujarati, English

A case study, incorporating ***ethnographic*** techniques, was selected to obtain in depth, detailed, and descriptive information of children's naturalistic experiences as well as educators' strategies to support them. The experiences and educators' strategies, or practices, in focus related to children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. Ethnography has been defined differently from past to present. Traditionally emphasised as writing about culture, methods of data collection in ethnography have expanded to now be described as 'the art and science of describing a group or culture' (Given 2008, p. 288). Culture can be seen to include the practices of groups of people (Scarino & Liddicoat 2009, p. 19). In education, Gregory (2005, p. xviii) explains that ethnographic research describes the context and environment, group membership, specific social interactions, and the product of those interactions—the learning. Ethnography involves direct and sustained contact with people in the context of their daily lives (fieldwork) to understand the human experience (O'Reilly 2009, p. 3)—in this case study, the group of people included educators and children within a preschool with some bilingual support. Observation is a key ethnographic technique (O'Reilly 2009, p. 3) and participant observation is the most basic requirement (Conteh 2005a, p. 103).

Observation was central in this study, in addition to collecting data concerning educators' opinions. Educators' opinions were solely exercised in the AEDI (2009); detailed observations were not sourced. Witnessing the preschoolers' experiences and educators'

practices first-hand in the present study enabled many factors of the social-emotional and functional language context to be considered. I decided not to interview older participants about their early childhood experiences as bilingual preschoolers—this was applied by Swain (2011, 2013) in the past. I was concerned that older participants' reflections would be limited by informants' probable vague memories of their childhood. I also preferred not to intervene and affect focus children's natural play and actions at the present preschool by interrogating children in interviews or casual conversations. I also considered that focus children's limited understanding of expression of English would impact on the clarity of their contributions. From an interpretive standpoint, I wanted to note what I saw and heard children experiencing in order to gain the children's perspective.

A secondary aim of the study was to identify practices, and seek recommendations, from a variety of educators who supported the four bilingual children in the early stages of learning EAL. Again, I wanted to achieve this through observation, as well as verbal inquiry with preschool educators. Close collegial involvement with the adult research participants was desired to achieve a depth of understanding about how educators supported bilingual preschoolers (RQ 2); hence, ethnographic techniques were utilised.

The term, ***ethnographic case study***, is used to describe a study that incorporates attributes from both case study research and ethnographic research, extending beyond the traditional idea of ethnography: writing about a culture (Walters 2007, p. 96). It is argued that case studies draw together naturalistic, holistic and ethnographic research methods (Stake 1995). Case studies provide comprehensive information due to their potential to investigate a small sample of participants who are relational to a larger population in society. In summary, '[a] case study is an in-depth, small-scale, empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context.' (Yin 2009, pp. 17-18). The strength of a case study can be defended by its potential to provide rich, descriptive details on complex issues (Ary 2010, p. 253; Crowe, Cresswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery & Sheikh 2011, p. 100; Fraenkel & Wallen 2009; Miles & Huberman 2002; Yin 2009). Case studies also enable deep probing, close observations, and thorough attention to many unpredictable variables (Timmons & Cairns 2010). Gathering a variety of information is one benefit of the case study approach and case studies are also purposeful for answering descriptive questions (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 427). Case studies achieve empirical data which captures first-hand observations of people and their experiences; case studies enable researchers to study multi-faceted variables of events, as well as note unpredictable happenings, complex social behaviours, and idiosyncrasies of individuals over time (Crowe et al. 2011; Punch 2009; Yin 2009).

Several past studies, involving bilingual children, have described their research as ethnographic (for example Bligh & Drury 2015; Hirschler, 1991, 1994; Matthews 2010; Morgan, Chodkiewicz & Jones Díaz 2013; Toohey 2000), whereas others have reported their implementation of a case study (Fassler 1998; Matthews 2010; Restuningrum 2015; Shao 2005). White, Drew and Hay (2009, p 21) compare the intricacies of both ethnography and case studies and suggests that although they do have similarities, ethnography tends to include the ***researcher as an instrument of data collection***, whereas case studies can exclude or ignore the researcher. When the researcher is an instrument of data collection (Denzin & Lincoln 2003; Fusch, Fusch & Ness 2017; Xu & Storr 2012), the data is mediated through them and hence it is appropriate that the researcher describe themselves and identify any biases. In the present study, the researcher was considered an instrument of data collection; hence, the biography of the researcher is provided towards the end of this chapter, in section on Trustworthiness.

Among researchers, differing opinions surround the delineation between ethnography and case study research (Stake 1995; Yin 2009). Matthews (2010, p. 36), Walters (2007, p. 96), and Fusch, Fusch and Ness (2017) blend the term ***ethnographic case study***, to define the combination of aspects of ethnography and case study research. This term was considered in the present study; however, the study identifies overall as a case study which incorporates techniques which have derived from ethnographic research.

The value of using ethnographic techniques, when studying bilingual preschoolers, is defended by Safford and Drury (2013, p. 78) who summarise that…

> Researchers utlise ethnographic methodologies to observe, interview, record, listen to and interact with bilingual children, their families and their communities; they also invite bilingual community workers to participate in and support the research as informants, interpreters and mediators.

Bilingual community workers and other educators were recruited in the present study as part of the research preparations.

3.3 Research preparations

The research preparations for the present study involved obtaining university ethics and departmental research approvals, selecting a site, recruiting participants and seeking consent.

3.3.1 Ethics and departmental research approvals

Ethics approval was granted from the University of South Australia's Human Ethics Committee to undertake the case study. The application adhered to the guidelines set out in

the *Australian code for the responsible conduct of research* (Australian Government 2007a) and *National statement on ethical conduct in human research* (Australian Government 2007b). Additional permission to undertake research was obtained from the Department for Education and Child Development (DECD) by following the *Guidelines and Application to Conduct Research in the Department for Education and Child Development* (DECD 2012). A condition of the two approvals required that informed consent be sought from every participant involved in the project, either directly or indirectly (see appendix 1 for information sheets and appendix 2 for consent forms for all participants).

Talent release forms were also sought from research participants at completion of the study, to seek their permission to use certain photographs and movie-mode recordings in the thesis and other publications (see appendix 3 for a sample of the talent release form). Participants had the opportunity to view images prior to granting their consent and also received thumbnail sheets of numerous photographs which included themselves or their children—the faces of other peers were blurred to protect other children from identification. Participants were ensured that pseudonyms would be used for reporting individuals' names, so to further protect their right to confidentiality and ensure anonymity (Hartas 2010, p. 120). The pseudonym, Gumtree Preschool, also replaced the site's actual name.

3.3.2 Site selection

The present study employed a *purposive sampling* technique to select a suitable case study site (Yin 2009). The first criterion was that the selected preschool had preschoolers attending who were in the early stages of learning EAL. Focus preschoolers were required to be experiencing the *non-verbal period* or the *telegraphic and formulaic speech* period of EAL learning (see **Figure 2-3** citing Tabors 2008). Potential focus children needed to be classed as '*new to English'* or '*becoming familiar with English'* (see **Figure 2-4** citing Clarke 2009) or incipient bilinguals (Diebold 1961, p. 99) who were newly exposed to English and developing into emergent bilinguals who recently started to use English.

The second recruitment criterion for the preschool site was that the preschool be considered 'exemplary' in their practice of supporting ELLs, considering that the key to purposive sampling is to 'select a sample from which most can be learned' (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 429). It was preferred that the preschool offered some bilingual support, as the presence of bilingual support was considered to be beneficial to bilingual children's additional language learning (Bligh 2014; Clarke 2009; Drury 2015; Tabors 2008). Having bilingual educators available to offer their opinions also strengthened the validity of interpretations, as culturally appropriate interpretations were able to be sought. The

availability of bilingual educators also provided the opportunity to capture the experiences of focus children, both children who received bilingual support and children who did not receive bilingual support, at the same setting.

To assist with the purposive selection, a meeting was set up with the Bilingual Manager who worked for the Department for Education and Child Development (DECD) in order to seek her recommendations for a suitable case study site. The Bilingual Manager's role involved staffing *Early Childhood Workers-bilingual* (ECWBs), in South Australian preschools. The program aimed to promote the maintenance of children's home languages in order to support three to five-year-olds' transitioning from home to preschool, as well as to assist communication between educators and families. The Bilingual Manager was familiar with many South Australian preschool sites where *culturally and linguistically diverse* (CALD) children were enrolled and she regularly received feedback from multiple ECWBs about different preschool site's programs and practices. The Bilingual Manager made the suggestion of researching Gumtree Preschool, a preschool located within a community of Vietnamese and Khmer speakers. She noted there were several bilingual educators employed at the service to support numerous Asian languages.

In addition to seeking recommendation from the Bilingual Manager, an additional meeting was set up with the Northern District's Early Childhood Consultant for the DECD. The consultant was also asked to recommend a preschool site using the same criteria. Again, Gumtree Preschool was identified as the first choice, unbeknownst to the consultant that it had also been recommended by the state's Bilingual Manager. The corresponding suggestion thus confirmed Gumtree Preschool as the purposive site for the present case study. Further details are provided in Chapter Four, *Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies*.

Following Gumtree Preschool's recommendation, I was later invited by the Early Childhood Consultant to attend the northern district's EAL preschool hub group meeting in 2012. These meetings occurred twice a year and focused on supporting bilingual preschool learners. Gaining entry, developing trust, and being introduced to the community by the right person is a valued ethnographic technique which was implemented in this case study (Fetterman 2010, p. 36). During the first visit to one of the meetings, I approached the director of Gumtree Preschool and informed her about the study. The director was then invited to participate in the project and to provide consent on behalf of the preschool site. I later introduced myself and the research project to other educators at Gumtree Preschool.

3.3.3. Participant selection and consent processes

Permissions to take part in the study were sought from a variety of participants: the preschool director, teachers, early childhood workers (ECWs), and various other educators, four focus children, focus children's parents, and all other children enrolled at Gumtree Preschool.

Educators

The study invited participation from a total of 21 preschool staff employed within the larger organisation. As noted in the following excerpt…

> 'Case study has the potential to engage participants in the research process. This is both a political and epistemological point. It signals a potential shift in power base of who controls knowledge and recognizes the importance of co-constructing perceived reality through the relationships and joint understanding we create in the field. It also provides an opportunity for researchers to take a self-reflexive approach to understanding the case for themselves.' (Simons 2009, p. 23)

Ten preschool educators participated more closely in the study; they included a variety of English-only, bilingual, and multilingual speakers who held roles as teachers, ECWs, ECWBs, language and communication support workers, and administration staff who regularly worked at the preschool. For more information on the educators' profiles see Chapter Four, *Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies*.

Educators' consents were sought at the beginning of 2013, during the first staff meeting at the commencement of the school year. Information sheets and consent forms accompanied a short presentation of the research brief to inform participants of the characteristics of the study. The participants were ensured that the aim of the study was not to judge the educators' abilities to support bilingual preschoolers as they learning EAL, but rather the intention was to learn from their practices and recommendations. The educators were further informed that their preschool had been recommended by leadership and other members of the education department due to being regarded an exemplary location to learn about the experience of and support for bilingual preschoolers.

Focus preschoolers and their parents

Four focus children were selected for the case study, after being nominated by several of their educators. The recruitment of a small sample of four focus preschoolers enabled extensive and richly descriptive qualitative data to be collected on each individual's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language. Many studies of bilingual children have closely investigated individual children, for example, Shao (2005) investigated one Mandarin speaking child; Clarke (1996) investigated four preschoolers and Tabors (2008) also four

preschoolers and Wong Fillmore (1976) studied five. Matthews (2010), meanwhile, studied 14 ELLs.

The four focus preschoolers selected in this study were identified as experiencing the early stages of learning EAL and were using little or no English to communicate. Patty (a Vietnamese/English bilingual) and Shaun (a Khmer/English bilingual) were allocated bilingual support in Vietnamese and Khmer, whereas Limi (an Albanian/English bilingual) and Van Van (a Burmese (Chin dialect)/English bilingual) were not as bilingual support was not available. Only .1% (n18) of the preschools' local population identified as Burmese and .3% (59) as Albanian, compared to 3.1% (n558) Khmer and 6.3% (n1140) Vietnamese (SBS 2014). The allocation of matched bilingual staff served to meet the needs of the children from majority *language backgrounds other than English* (LBOTE) populations, at Gumtree Preschool (see Chapter Four, *Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies* for details on the language spoken by the focus children in the study). Details of the individual profiles of the four focus children, and descriptions of their prior exposure to the English language, are presented in Chapter Five, *The Children's Experiences*, section 5.2 The focus children's profiles.

The parents of the four focus preschoolers were provided with information sheets and consent forms, to permit both their own participation and their child's participation in the study. The forms detailed the project's scope, focus, and the nature of the audio-visual data being collected. The information sheet informed the parents of the researchers' obligation to disclose any suspected concerns of children abuse, as per the mandatory reporting requirements of being a registered teacher (Burton & Bartlett 2009). All participants of the study received English versions of the information and consent forms, as well as my own a verbal explanation. Some families received information and consent forms in their first languages, in cases where the parents' English competency was limited and professional translation services were available (see appendix 4 for translations). The study was also explained to parents with the support of bilingual preschool staff to ensure comprehension was achieved. Hartas (2010), Duff (2007), and Gass and Mackey (2005) alert researchers to the need to ensure proper informed consent is obtained, particularly in the case of participants for whom English is an additional language. Translations incurred a fee of A$1062, which was funded by UniSA's research fund.

All other preschooler peers

The families of the Gumtree Preschool community were informed of the research project within the first publication of the 2013 preschool newsletter, as shown in **Figure 3-4**.

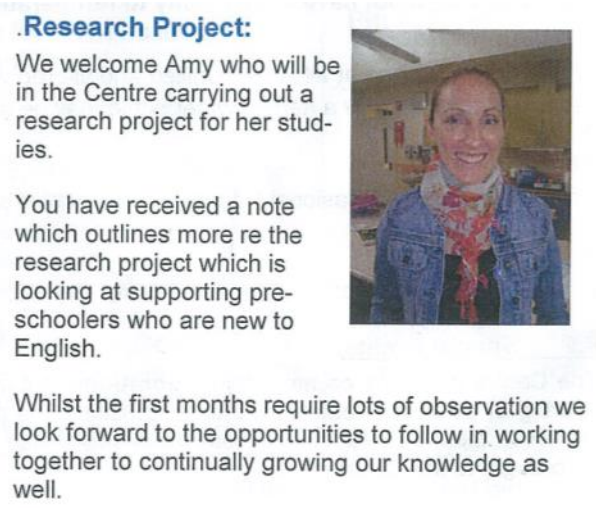


Figure 3-4: Research information in Gumtree Preschool's newsletter

Information packs and consent forms were delivered to all the families in children's communication pockets. Consents were returned by a primary caregivers of all children enrolled at the preschool thanks to administrative staff also assisted in this matter. The entire preschool community was advised that photographic and movie-mode footage would be collected during preschool sessions in order to collect data for the study. One hundred and seventeen signed consents were collected over several weeks, with some families requiring reminders and follow up. Only two preschoolers' caregivers elected not to consent to their child's participation in the study and provided personal reasons for their decisions. The option not to participate was respected and it was ensured that the two children were not captured in photographs or movie-mode recordings during the study. A list recording the names of children whose families had consented was carried on person to track who could be captured in visual forms of data during the earlier weeks of data collection. The timeline of the study follows.

3.3.4 The timeline of the study

Case studies offer 'the ability to trace changes over time' (Yin 2009, p. 145); hence, the study spanned six months. The present case study commenced in January, during the first term of 2013, and ceased at the end of the second term mid-year 2013 in July (as presented in **Figure 3-5**).

2013	Term One	BREAK	Term Two
Dates	29 Jan - 12 Apr *(11 weeks)*	*2 weeks*	29 Apr - 5 Jul *(10 weeks)*

Figure 3-5: Data collection dates

There are four terms in the school year in Australia and the year begins in January/February, following a six-week holiday period. Data collection spanned 21 weeks in total and the preschool was visited two or three days a week for approximately seven hours during each visit. The first term was an 11 week term and the second term was a 10 week term. A two-week holiday break separated the data collection periods, and this provided valuable time to reflect on the data and recuperate from the heavy demands of observing. During the holiday break, data from term one was preliminarily organised, imported and partially analysed on NVivo to prepare for analysis.

There were two phases of the study. The first phase solely concentrated on capturing the children's experiences for the first five weeks of data collection and spanned until week 21, whereas the second phase started to incorporate the educators' strategies from week six and spanned until week 21, as shown in **Figure 3-6**.

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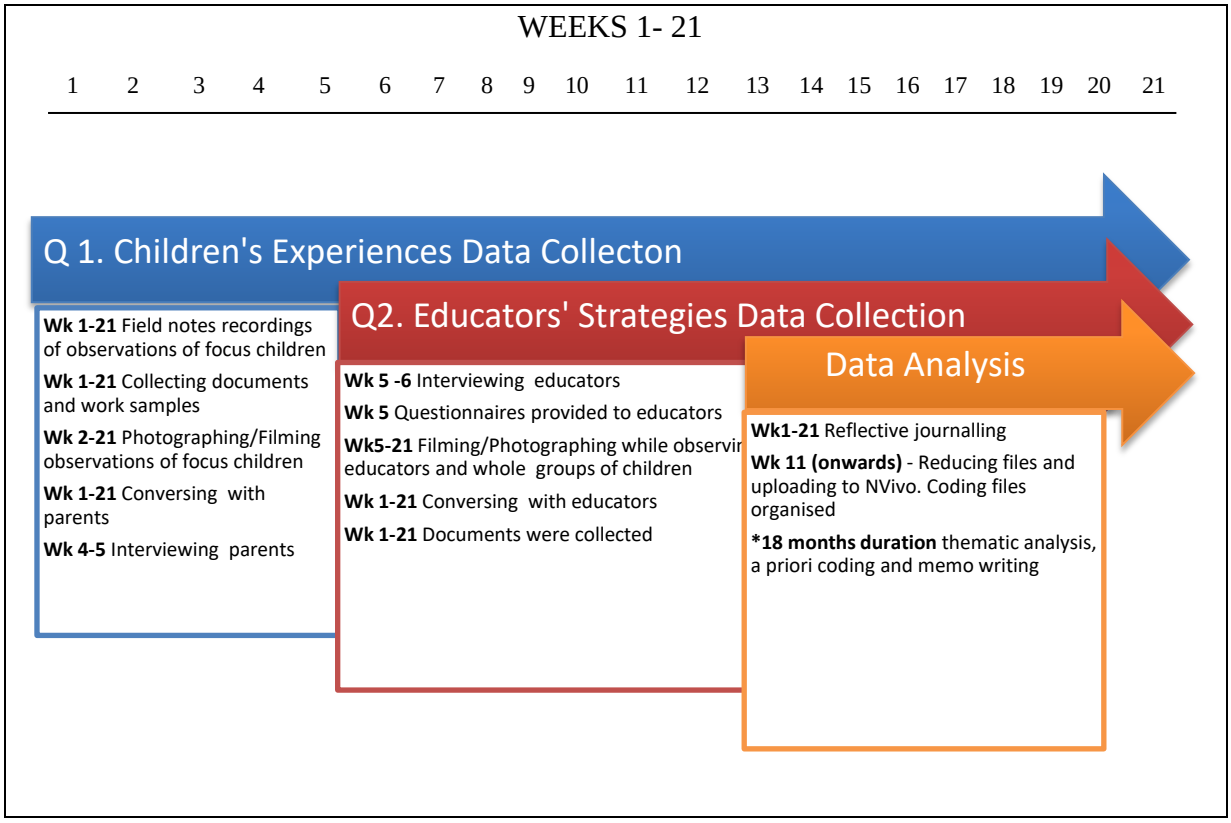


Figure 3-6: The case study's timeline – questions, phases, data collection, and analysis

The second data collection phase overlapped the continuation of the first. A partial pilot study took place prior to data collection.

Piloting the study

Pilot studies are recommended to be employed prior to conducting the official research, as a means to rehearse and fine-tune data collection techniques, prior to undertaking an actual study (Murray & Lawrence 2000). However, due to time constraints, and the preschool's six week closure over the school holidays, it was not feasible to perform a full-scale pilot study at the site, prior to commencement of the actual project. It was imperative that the study began at the start of the preschool year, at the outset of the national 'once a year preschool intake', in order to capture the experience of newly enrolled bilingual preschoolers. Many of the study's data collection techniques (filming, photographing, and recording children's utterances) had been established, and refined, during my own previous 2011 action research project, involving ten bilingual preschoolers at another South Australian preschool. A full scale pilot study was hence not considered necessary. The present study's parent interview procedure was trialed prior to data collection with bilingual parents, at another playgroup setting, to review the interview questions that sought information about bilingual children's sociocultural and historical profiles. Other data collection procedures had been refined.

3.4 Data collection procedures

This section on data collection procedures details the participant research approach, the methods of data collection, and the techniques used for recording the data.

3.4.1 Participant observation

Participant observation is a necessary ethnographic technique that was implemented in this case study (Given 2008, p. 290; Conteh 2005a). Data was collected via *participant observation*, meaning the researcher was present at the preschool site observing the children and educators. Establishing *rapport*, and building 'an open and trusting relationship' with the participants, was considered crucial in this study, in order to protect the naturalistic context (Babbie 2011, p. 339; Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009). Rapport was developed during preparation visits on several occasions prior to the beginning of the preschool year. I volunteered and assisted to set up the preschool in the aim to create familiarity with educators and develop a sense of trust, relatedness, and reciprocity—the balancing the act of giving and receiving by offering some form of compensation towards human participants who volunteer their own energy and time when contributing to research (Babbie 2011).

Participant research has been employed in various case studies involving bilingual children (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Jones Díaz 2007; Fassler 1996; Shao 200; Tabors 2008). The positioning of the participant-observer requires careful consideration in case study research (Greene 2014). Participant-observers need to take into consideration the impact their presence has on the nature of the case study being investigated; this is known as '*observer effect*' (Fraenkel & Wallen 2009, p. 443) or '*reactivity*' (Lee 2000, p. 47). In case studies, 'the participant observer is fully immersed in the research setting to get close to those studied as a way of understanding what their experiences and activities mean to them' (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 408). In this study, my role was that of an 'insider' (Greene 2014; Punch 2009, p. 45). During some circumstances, I was '*overt*' and easily identified (for instance, the educators knew they were being observed), whereas at other times my presence was '*covert*', and the focus child participants were generally unaware that they were being watched (Fraenkel & Wallen 2009, p. 411; O'Reilly 2009, p. 9).

In this study, I took on a '*privileged, active observer*' (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 409) role as researcher, meaning that I had the privilege of stepping in and out of preschool interactions to collect and record data. I did not instruct, or co-ordinate, the children, or take on a teacher's role at the site as this study was not a form of practitioner research whereby a teacher researches their own students. The privileged, active observational type of research style was selected due to its advantage in allowing a researcher to purely observe, relatively uninterrupted, without teaching and assessment commitments. I was therefore free from many distractions and interruptions as I collected data.

At the commencement of data collection, focus children and educators were initially observed from several metres distance. Only field notes were recorded at the outset of the study (thus ethnographic techniques were incorporated). I positioned myself four or more metres away, in the initial days of data collection, to minimise interruption to children's naturalistic play and educators' teaching sessions. Cameras were later introduced during the third data collection week to first establish children's familiarity with the researcher. Some researchers, such as Bligh (2014), have expressed concern that videoing can be invasive when researching children and thus prefer to use paper forms of ethnography to handwrite field notes. In this study, however, other measures were taken to minimise intrusion to children's play and educators' practices by being discreet. After making the transition to audio-visual recording, the zoom function of the camera was often employed from some distance away. Closer proximity was gradually achieved over time, once children and educators were more familiar with having a researcher on site. In Tabors' (2008) research, children were asked to carry Mini Mouse back packs with microphones planted inside them,

and in Drury's (2007) research radio-microphones were clipped to children's collars and light weight transmitters were clipped onto their belt. Although these techniques are beneficial for reducing the need for researchers to follow children in close range, they were undesired for the current study. The present study endeavored not to draw attention to the four focus children, or to stigmatise them by dressing them differently, or in such a way that could obstruct their play and movement during the six hours of observations each day for six months. In Drury's (2007, p. 21) study, Samia demanded to, '*take it off*", in reference to her microphone/transmitter. Considering the length of the present study, intervening with children's dress was not selected. Entering the field gradually with photographic and movie-mode devices was preferred, so to capture multiple facets of children's naturalistic experiences. Fortunately, children were already familiar with iPads and cameras being used by their preschool educators who frequently photographed children throughout the day. Several focus children also stated that they had iPads at home; hence taking photographs less likely intervened with children's natural behaviours. The invasion of data collection was kept to a minimum.

3.4.2 Data collection methods

The present study employed several data collection methods to: capture observations of children and educators; record verbal and written contributions from parents and educators; and collect documents and work samples, to answer the two central research questions.

1. What social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?

2. What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

Eisenhardt (2012, p. 13) asserts that 'theory-building researchers typically combine multiple data collection methods in order to more thoroughly understand a given phenomenon'. The diagram in **Figure 3-7** illustrates the various types of data collection methods used to research bilingual children's experiences and educators' strategies to support their learning.

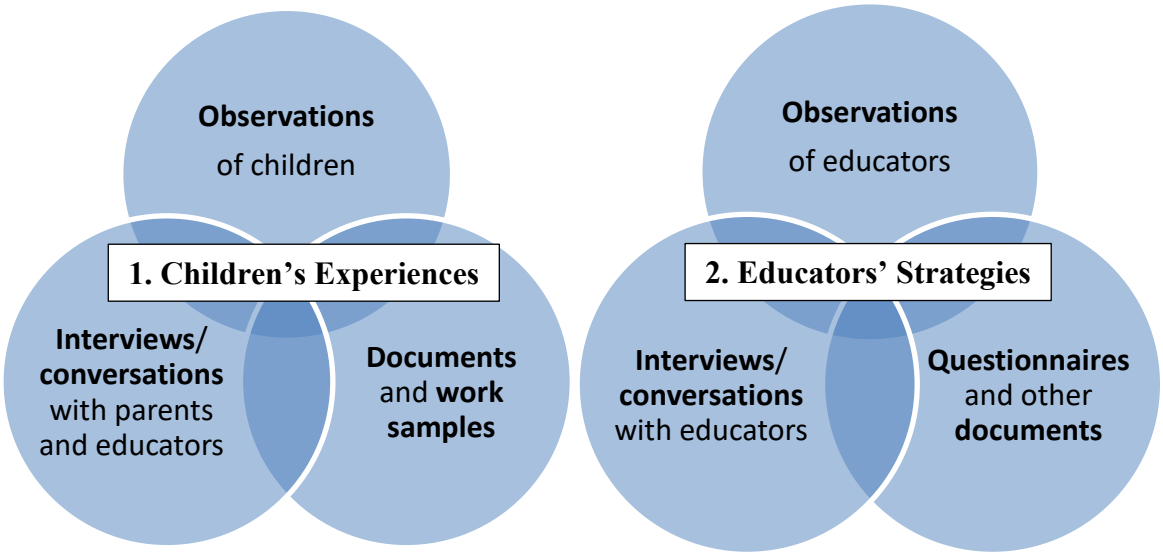


Figure 3-7: Data collection methods

Data on the preschoolers' experiences

The first question, *What social, emotional, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?,* was primarily addressed by collecting observations and audio recordings of the focus children during their preschool interactions, and secondarily addressed by seeking insights from informants: educators, focus children's parents, and parents of focus children's peers. The preschool was visited two to three days each week. Some children attended sessions on a full day, Monday, and full day, Wednesday, plus a fortnightly Friday morning session, whereas others attended sessions on a full day, Tuesday, and a full day ,Thursday, plus the alternate Friday morning session. In the first term, three children were observed on Thursdays in frequent rotations of approximately 10-20 minutes a time during a total seven-hour visit. Rotating the recording times between individuals, in short five-minute snapshots, served to divide attention more evenly among the focus preschoolers. Rotating snapshots of movie-mode recordings also reduced intrusion to children's natural play. Intrusion would have been problematic had children been constantly followed around for longer periods of time. In the first term, only one child was observed on Wednesdays; however, in the second term one focus child swapped to enroll into the Monday/Wednesday session. During the first term, there was more time to observe educators on Wednesdays, conduct interviews, hold conversation and retrieve documentation.

Data on educators' strategies

The second question, *What strategies do various educators' recommend and implement to support bilingual preschoolers learning EAL?,* was primarily addressed by observing

educators closely during week 6–21 and by interviewing, conversing with and collecting questionnaire responses from educators. Clarke's (1996) and Tabors' (2008) studies also combined attention to children's experiences and educators' practices. Cabezas and Rouse (2014) interviewed four teachers for one hour each on their strategies; and Scrafton and Whitington (2015) interviewed a few educators and ECWBs in their study, for 15-30 minutes each. Facella Rampino and Shea (2005) also interviewed 20 educators (but did not observe their practices). Robertson, Drury and Cable's (2014) case study involved two bilingual practitioners who were recorded and interviewed in one single day. The present study involved multiple educators over a six-month period.

Involving bilingual support educators

Bilingual support and first language maintenance was valued in this case study; hence, the Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking educators' practices were observed during their interactions with the focus children. Khmer and Vietnamese bilingual literacy group sessions, lasting 15-20 minutes, were attended and observed each week. Bilingual educators' interactions with focus children were also observed during preschoolers' playtimes. The observations served to identify the social interaction, emotional challenges, and functional language strategies used by bilingual educators to support the bilingual preschoolers who were learning EAL.

In summary, the key methods of data collection in the study were: observations, interviews and conversations, questionnaires, and the collection of documents.

Observations

Observations assist 'to improve the understanding of individuals, relationships, social groups and culture' (Greig, Taylor & MacKay 2013, p. 148). Detailed observations capture body language, facial expressions, gestures, interactions, friendships, and verbal communications (Angrosino & Mays de Perez 2003; Denscombe 2010). In the present study, observation involved recording something seen and/or heard. In Bligh's (2014) ethnographic research with EAL learners, field note observations recorded various non-verbal behaviours such as movement, eye contact, waiting, pausing, tone of voice, volume ,and speed, sound symbols such as grunting 'Ah' and mumbling, silence, posture and stance, and clothing.

Audio-visual technologies (Flewitt 2006, p. 25) were utilised to record observations in the present study to provide insights into young children's interactions (RQ1.1), their emotional behaviours (RQ1.2), the purpose of their communicative language (RQ1.3), and how the three aspects interrelate (RQ1.4). Observational research is effective for exploring the experiences of people who are less articulate (for example, preschoolers learning EAL). Observations are valuable in circumstances when interviews between a researcher and a

focus participant are not plausible due to children's maturing ability to accurately report their own internal states and bilingual children's developing EAL speaking skills (Glennon & Weisz 1978). Interpreters would have been necessary in order to obtain children's self-reports; however, interpreters were not available for all of the languages of the children in this study. Selecting observational research methods enabled a comprehensive picture of the research location to be detailed and provided rich descriptions of events and people. In the present study, there were more than 100 preschoolers to familiarise with hence, capturing observations digitally was necessary to enable later identification of focus children's regular peers.

Observations were deliberately balanced between inside and outside play, due to the Department for Children, Schools and Families (2007, p. 13) suggesting that children often make five times as many utterances when they are outdoors, than when they are inside. Scrafton and Whitington's (2015, p. 12) research on bilingual preschoolers also noted that bilingual children preferred outside spaces for 70% of the time when given the choice of play spaces to photograph. In this study, observations were conducted during a variety of activities and daily routines. Past studies previously collected data during few learning sessions (Llinares García 2005, 2007) or only during dramatic play settings (Bluiett's 2009) to investigate children's functional language use. The collection of observations in this study aimed to represent a child's full day at preschool.

Research by Simons (2009, p. 55) and Glennon and Weisz (1978) offers that through observations one can tell who is anxious by noting certain behaviours, such as finger sucking. A child's culture was taken into account when interpreting observations hence bilingual educators were often called upon for their opinions to enhance interpretive validity. Interpretive validity concerns understanding what objects, events and behaviours mean to the people who engaged in them, and include aspects of 'intention, cognition, affect, belief and evaluation' according to other 'participants' perspectives' (Maxwell 2002, p. 48). Informants offered contributions during interviews, spontaneous conversations, and when responding to questionnaires, to support observations.

Interviews and ongoing conversations

Interviewing 'is an important way for the researcher to check the accuracy of—to verify or refute—the impressions he or she has gained through observation' (Fraenkel & Wallen 2009, p. 446). Recordings of interviews provided a secondary source of information from key informants who were qualified to offer their opinions (Denscombe 2010). During interviews educators were questioned about their thoughts on the bilingual children's experiences (RQ1)

and their own educational strategies to support bilingual children (RQ2). Contributions from bilingual educators were also intentionally sought out in order to collect culturally relevant Vietnamese and Khmer perspectives on the focus children's experiences and bilingual educators' practices. Formal interviews took place in the staff room, and ongoing conversations occurred in children's playing spaces. Spontaneous conversations were also invited to promote a relaxed, less-threatening context to encourage openness (Rubin & Rubin 2004).

Conversations can achieve a richer dataset. Engaging in conversations was a common ethnographic technique that was implemented in this case study (Given 2008, p.291; Hartas 2010, p. 230; O'Reilly 2009, p. 14). The benefit of casual conversations was that the educators could respond immediately to queries about events that they had recently witnessed; instantaneous probing was therefore enabled (Gillham 2000, p. 63). The conversational style encouraged collegiality as participants were welcome to initiate dialogue themselves, and take ownership over the research. Educators were also asked about their own identities and cultural linguistic heritage. Co-constructed meanings and collaborative outcomes resulted from the participants' conversational input with educators (Simons 2009, p. 44; Denscombe 2010).

Four *semi-structured formal interviews* were also completed with the focus preschoolers' parents, during the first five weeks of term one. Parent interviews obtained: a historical account of the focus children's cultural and linguistic heritage, children's prior and present exposure to their home languages and English, and any previous experiences that the children had encountered in other children's services prior to preschool. Parent interviews also sought information regarding the types of activities parents exposed their children to in order to support their children's EAL and first language learning. Parent interviews were held at the preschool with Limi, and Van Van's parents, as they were often present in the mornings and afternoons when dropping off and collecting their children. Patty and Shaun's parents were interviewed by phone, due to the phone being more convenient, while young infant siblings were napping at home. Interviews also gained insights from parents about the emotional challenges their children encountered at preschool (RQ 1.2).

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were distributed during the fifth week of the project to ten educators of diverse roles: the director, three teachers, three ECWs, two ECWBs and a speech and language support educator. *Questionnaires* were employed with educators to gather information about the strategies educators recommended (RQ2), as shown in **Figure 3-8**.

Researchers such as Jones Díaz (2007) implemented questionnaires and uncovered recommendations from 30 educators for supporting Spanish-speaking bilingual preschoolers in Sydney-based early childhood and school settings.

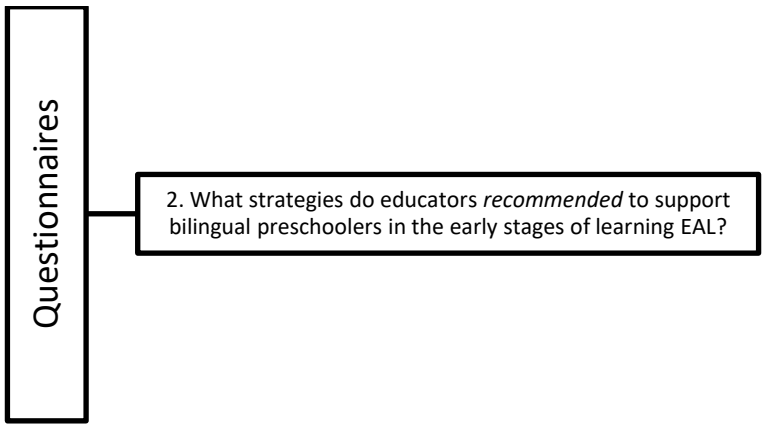


Figure 3-8: The research questions answered by questionnaires

Educators' suggestions were sought because teachers are considered to be great innovators of good practice (Baumfield 2008). The questionnaires asked educators to list up to ten strategies they recommended to support bilingual children in the early stages of learning to speak EAL, who were new to English and not currently speaking English, or speaking very little English. Suggestions were recorded in handwriting on an A4 sheet of paper by each educator. Educators were offered two weeks to complete the task, to provide time for deliberation. Responses were recorded at a time and place of convenience to the educators, hence distractions were avoided. When the questionnaires were returned, any unclear or ambiguous recommendations of strategies were clarified in conversations with the respondents before being typed up.

Collecting documents

In addition to observations, interviews, and questionnaires, documents, stored in the preschools' files, were sought. Permission to photocopy or photograph documents, such as enrolment records, children's portfolios, assessment records, and the preschool's own data collection records on children, was granted by the director. Documents contribute to report on the profiles of the children (Basit 2010). Enrolment records, provided information pertaining to children's sociocultural and historical profiles by noting: children's ages, place of birth, the birth place of their parents, the languages spoken in the home and their proficiency, and the presence of siblings or extended family members at home. The '*teacher's record of oral language and literacy learning'* assessment (Dickinson, McCable & Sprague 2001), an assessment tool completed by educators for each focus child, was collected. This record contributed understandings of focus children's oral language abilities

such as their ‘willingness to start a conversation’ and ‘ask questions’. Documentation about the preschool program and annual report was also requested to further identify strategies that educators implemented (or planned to implement) in order to support bilingual preschoolers’ learning. See **Figure 3-9**.

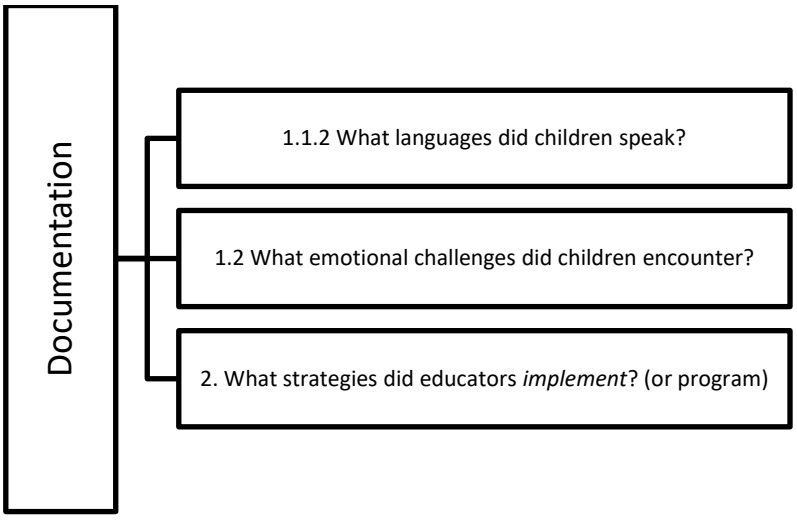


Figure 3-9: The research questions answered by documentation

Other processes and tools for documenting observations, interviews, and conversations are provided in the following section.

Recording the data

Field notes were used to record observations and interviews. Field notes provided ‘a record of the researcher’s understandings of the lives, people and events that [were] the focus of the research’ (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 410). Field notes consisted of running records, jottings, anecdotal records and short transcripts of children’s utterances, social interactions, and emotional challenges. Field notes were recorded throughout the study, and solely during the first weeks of data collection. The questions answered via field notes are presented in **Figure 3-10**.

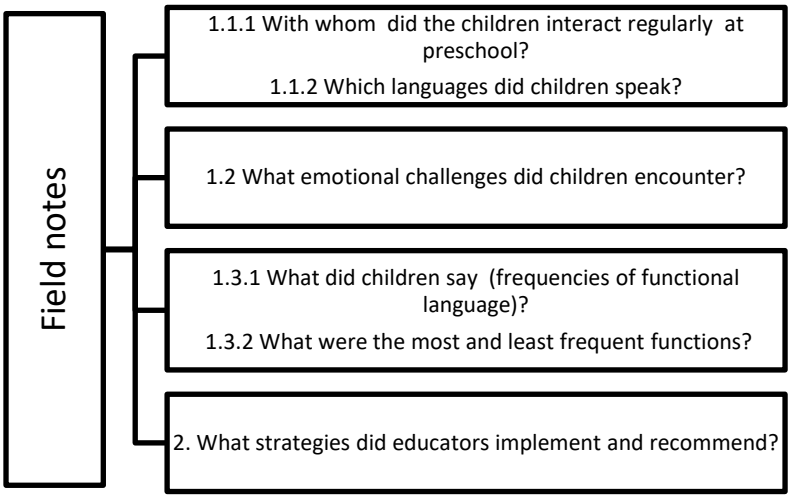


Figure 3-10: The research questions answered by field notes

Field notes were discreetly typed, immediately following or during observations, on a Samsung Galaxy smart phone. Familiarity with the hand held QWERTY touch-type keyboard resulted in prompt recording that was easier than balancing a pen on paper while moving around. According to Denscombe (2010, p. 204), 'The human memory is not only selective but also frail'; hence, speed and accuracy was an added benefit of writing field notes on a smart phone. Another benefit of typing, compared to handwriting, was that extra details could be anecdotally added to sections of the text after live observations. A third advantage of the smart phone was that field notes were always legible and were promptly sent to a private email address for preliminary storage, before being transferred to NVivo. The emailing process safeguarded confidential storage in a password protected digital form. Recording participants' exact words was a challenge when writing field notes, hence other audio recording options such as movie-mode recording were also employed. Educators were sometimes asked to confirm the accuracy of utterances recorded in field notes to ensure the correct wording and meaning was reported. Such spontaneous member-checks, in the form of conversations, assisted to optimize the validity of the data (Given 2008, p. 501).

Movie-mode recordings recorded observations of children and educators. Observations offer 'insights into aspects of communicative behaviours previously unaccounted for in early year's education research' (Flewitt 2006, p. 25) and capture 'a great deal of detail' (Lee 2000, p. 53). Visual researchers record many human senses, visible objects, actions, and interactions, to gather meaning from observations (Margolis & Zunjarward 2018, p. 607). Movie-mode recordings served to answer the following questions in **Figure 3-11**.

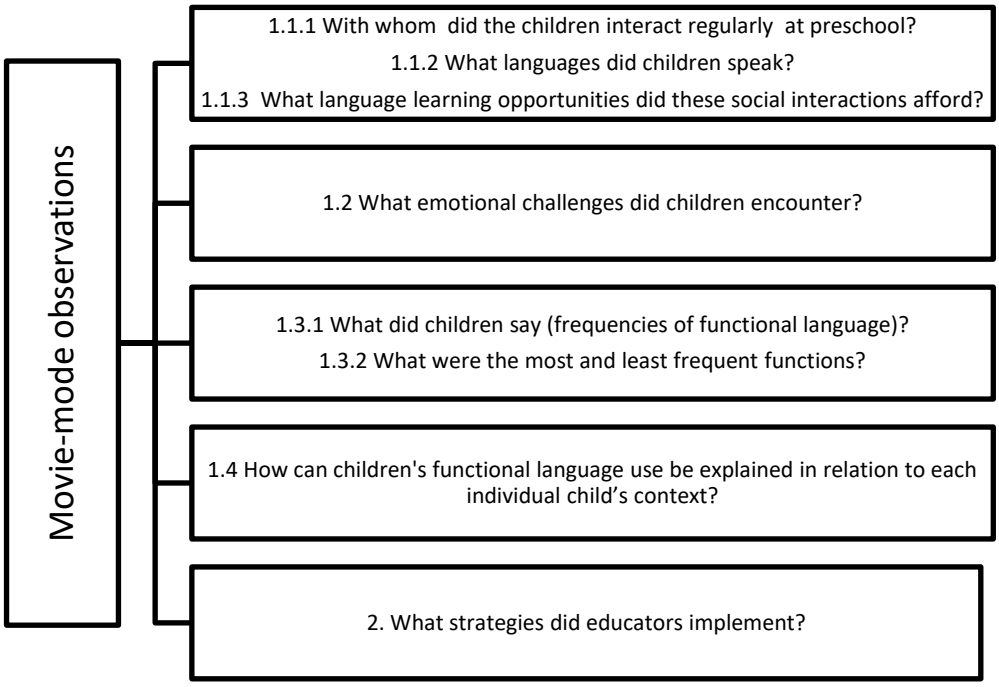


Figure 3-11: The research questions answered by movie-mode observations

Movie-mode recordings captured the sequence of social activities (in approximate five-minute snapshots), preserved records for repeated scrutiny during play back, and enabled sections of footage to be paused in order to focus on specific details during analysis (Heath, Hindmarsh & Luff 2010, p. 5-6). Paused movie-mode images could be copied, pasted, and collated into the memos in preparation for reports. Movie-mode recordings were particularly useful for 'observing participants whose language skills [were] still developing' as they detailed gestural content and other features that assisted to accurately transcribe utterances (Simons 2009, p. 61). Movie-mode footage captured the movements of gestures, facial expressions and body language—to contribute to support the identification of emotional challenges.

Some researchers consider visual footage to be intrusive. In Bligh's (2014, p. 59) study, for example, 'the use of photographic and video recording methods for the observation of young children's behaviours was considered as an unnecessarily invasive means through which to gather data'. In the present study, movie-mode recordings were deemed a necessary component for capturing and later confirming social-emotional interpretations of visual content with informants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000). Movie-mode or 'video' recording has been conducted in other studies with bilingual children (Jones Díaz 2007).

Movie-mode recordings syncronise both visual and audible data and achieve descriptive validity by capturing live events (Maxwell 2002, p. 45). Movie-mode recordings enable participants' to be identified, and children's exact utterances to be verified at a later time. Lip

reading is possible when reviewing movie-mode recordings to determine children's functional language use. The recordings of contextual clues also assist when transcribing ambiguous audio communication. Photographs also collect contextual information.

Photographs recorded observations and documentation. Photographs, like movie-mode recordings, were available for repeated review (Prosser 1998). They assisted to identify peers and educators who regularly interacted with the focus preschoolers. The preschool's own collections of photographs were also retrieved (as permitted by the director) from the educators' computer files to identify with whom the focus children interacted on days when the researcher was absent. Photographic images served to answer the following questions in **Figure 3-12**.

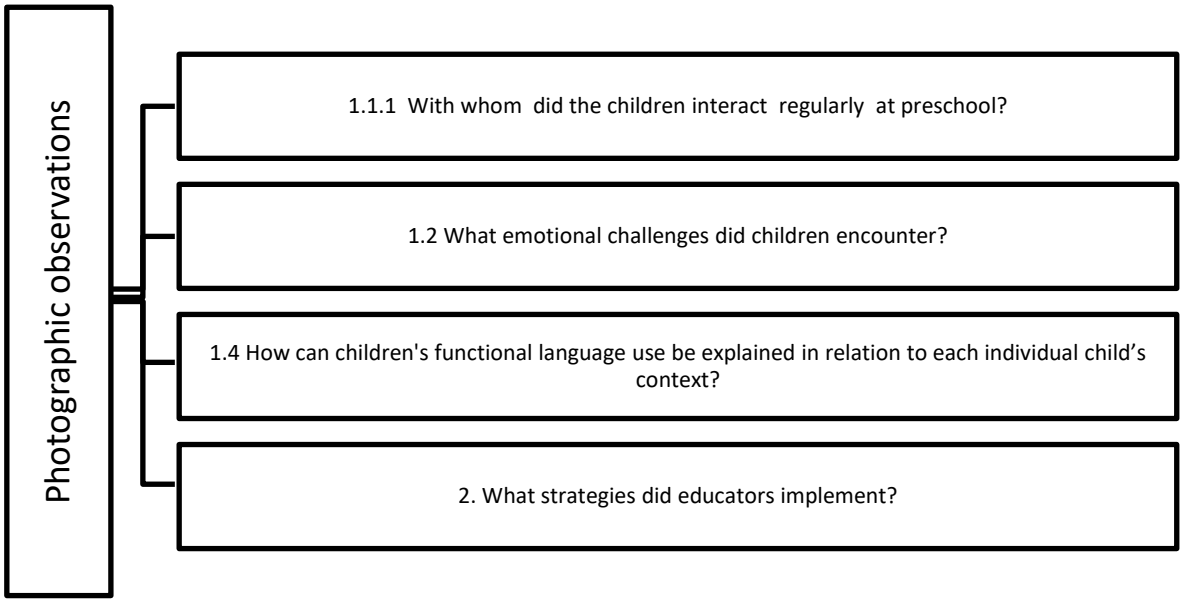


Figure 3-12: The research questions answered by photographic observations

Photographs captured the emotional expressions of children, their body language, gestures, mannerisms, tears, and other factors leading to identify emotional challenges. Events illustrating children's distress were sensitively and subtly captured from a distance, providing an educator was present to assist any upset child. Children were not photographed or filmed when distressed if they were unsupported. I considered it an ethical responsibility to ensure that children received care from educators prior to being filmed in vulnerable circumstances. I also decided that highly emotional visual content would not be published in the findings report in order to act sensitively and respectfully towards the young children who in later years may not appreciate such images being made available to the public. Educators assisted to identify peers in photographs when their names were unknown to the researcher. Photographic images also captured visual and contextual details of educators' strategies, although they did not record their voices.

Audio recordings recorded interviews and ongoing conversations with educators and parents. Staff meetings and curriculum planning sessions were also discreetly audio recorded by holding the audio device under to table so not disturb educators' from responding naturally during discussions. Permission was granted to audio record meetings at the outset of the study. Audio recording also discreetly captured focus children's and educators' utterances, in both English and first languages, to complement observations made during play and group-time. Audio recordings supported the identification of focus preschoolers' regular peers and educators as well as the languages children and educators used.

An advantage of audio recording was that a researcher did not need to be present once the device was set up to record children's interactions. However, a disadvantage was that voices and utterances were sometimes difficult to comprehend and transcribe due to challenging accents, mispronunciations, and the noisy preschool environment. My previous preschool teaching experience had fortunately refined my skills in deciphering bilingual preschool-aged children's utterances. One drawback of audio recording was that transcribing was time consuming, and the lack of visual, gestural or contextual supports limited the accuracy of translations (Simons 2009, p. 52). Audios were best transcribed shortly after an event; however, immediate transcription was not always possible.

A summary of the questions answered via audio recordings, accompanying observations interviews, and casual conversations, is displayed in **Figure 3-13**.

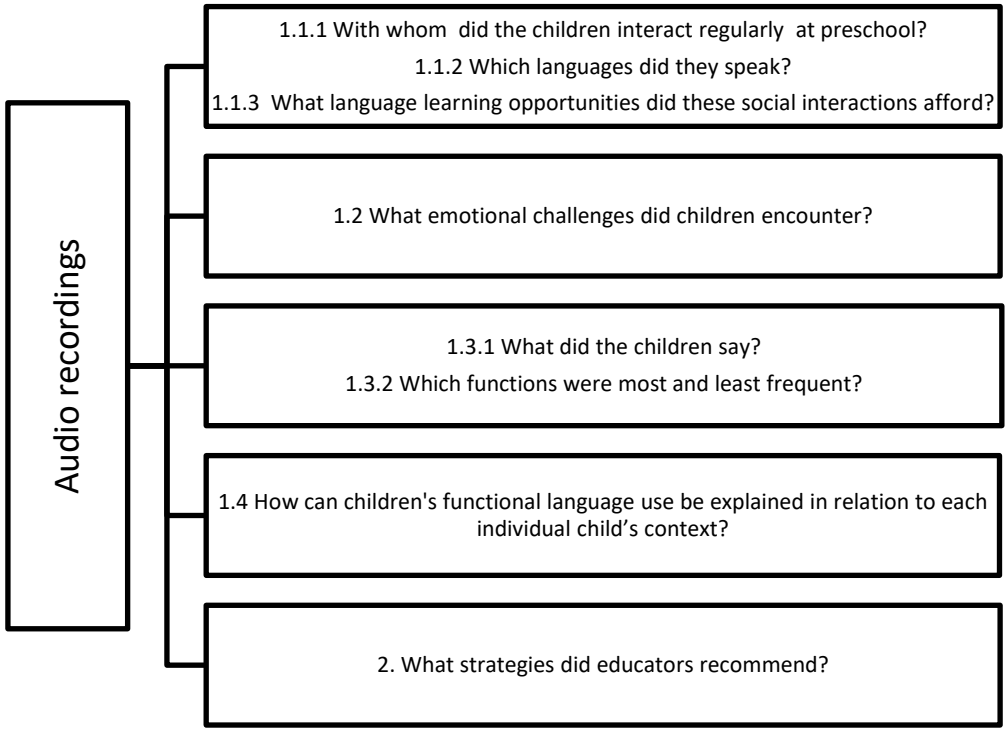


Figure 3-13: The research questions answered by audio records

Another way to collect information on children's social interactions and utterances was through work samples.

Work samples, such as children's artworks, were photocopied to source information from children about themselves. One child drew his 'best friend', for example, and other drawings often accompanied transcriptions of children's speech. Work samples contributed to answer the following questions in **Figure 3-14**.

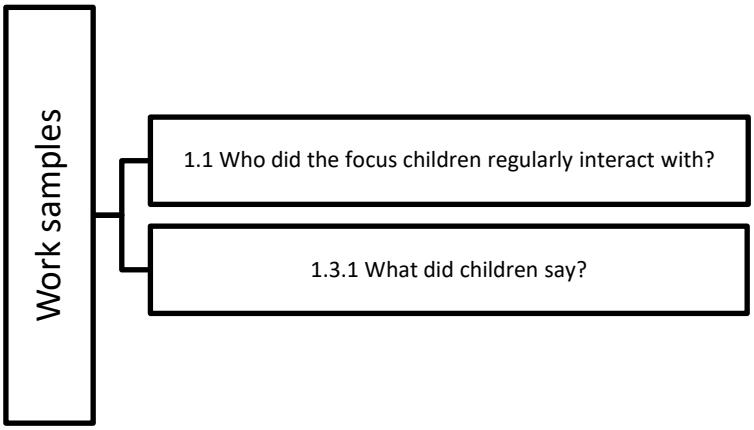


Figure 3-14: The research questions answered by collecting work samples

It is apparent that there were many methods and practices for recording data on children's experiences and educators' strategies in the present study; therefore, a lot of equipment was necessary.

Research equipment

A belted waist bag, containing: a smart phone, audio recorder, two cameras, spare batteries, spare SD cards (for recording images and movie-mode footage) a pen, and paper, was carried during the six months of data collection. The pen and paper provided a backup option in case technological failure occurred when using the smart phone. The smart phone provided additional back up for audio recording, photographing, and movie-mode recording, such as during one incident when sand was playfully thrown by a preschooler at one of the cameras—consequently destroying it. On several occasions, disturbances such as flat batteries and reaching full storage capacity in the SD card storage occurred, resulting in temporary interruptions to recording. The back-up of the smart phone promptly resolved these inconveniences. Another benefit of using multiple camera devices was that they could all be employed simultaneously. Sometimes one device was used for photographing while another was used for movie-mode recording. Sometimes different events were recorded at the same time, and at other times, two cameras were used to record the same event from different

angles—one showing the child and the other showing the educator. The use of multiple cameras enabled more data to be captured by the single researcher.

Cameras were sometimes concealed in a shelf and positioned towards children at play, whereas other times they were placed discreetly on the researcher's knee during group-times. From the knee position, the screen could be viewed, and the lens could be accurately zoomed to enable subtly recordings of children and educators. In this position, the camera was less conspicuous than if it were held higher to the eye.

The mobility of the camera was an essential component in the research design, as children moved constantly from place to place while playing at their leisure. The presence of a researcher on site was a necessity for data collection.

3.5 Data organisation and analysis procedures

3.5.1 Data storage

Data was securely stored on a password protected university computer, on a private hard disk drive that was locked up in a filing cabinet, in the same location as paper documentation. The office was security patrolled office, at the University of South Australia. Data was also kept on person at all times when in transit. During the preschool term break, data was transferred to NVivo 10 software for storage and was manually analysed using NVivo's coding procedures. Original files exceeded 152GB hence Movie-mode footage was later converted to smaller files to maximise storage on NVivo.

Storing data categorically is crucial in complex research, so that it is able to be retrieved efficiently (Yin 2009, p. 120). Data was, therefore, organised and categorised into heading folders on the NVivo program as shown in **Figure 3-15**. The first step in preparing data for analysis is cataloging (Heath, Hindmarsh & Luff 2010, p. 62); hence, the main folders on NVivo were titled with participant headings: focus children, educators (with sub-categories: director, teacher, ECW, ECWB, language and communication support staff, and parents. Smaller folders collapsed out from the participant type folders and were titled with individuals' names (in pseudonym). The imported data was further divided into classifications of types among the different participants: field notes, audios, photographs, movie-mode recordings, and interviews. Movie-mode recordings were further divided into term one and term two files.

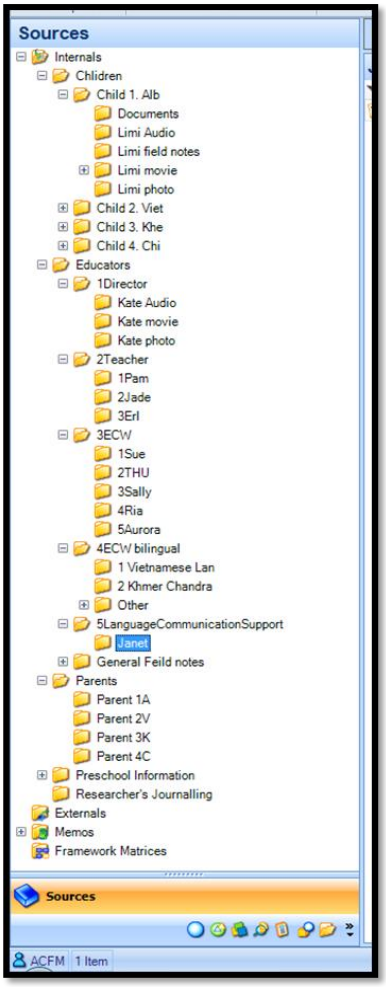


Figure 3-15: Sources of data .

Transcribing audio and movie-mode records

Audio and movie-mode footage were *transcribed* manually, with the assistance of NVivo's inbuilt transcribing media function. This function synchronised the timing of the audio/movie-mode footage with the transcriptions typed in the NVivo text boxes and simplified retrieval processes to pinpoint certain events of interest within a file. Transcribing prepared the data for analysis and for transferal to the thesis report. The goal of transcribing was to identify children's functional English utterances and to identify educators' verbal suggestions or implementations of strategies which supported bilingual preschoolers learning EAL. Movie-mode transcriptions were recorded along with descriptions of non-verbal behaviours noted in brackets to prepare for data analysis.

3.5.2 Data analysis

A combination of theoretical principles guided data analysis. Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, ZPD, and MKO conceptual frameworks guided the exploration and scrutiny of the focus children's social interactions, interpersonal relationships, peer partnerships, and behaviours with their educators. Interpretations of children's emotional challenges drew from

Swain (2013), Krashen and Terrell (1983), Horwitz (2001), and MacIntyre's (2003) emotions-considerate approach to researching language learning in SLA, as well as Glennon and Weisz (1978), Darwin (1965), Plutchik (2001), and Ekman's (1993) traditional behavioural descriptors for identifying emotions while observing people. Although children's emotional behaviours were noted when observing children through a personal lens, emotions were also found to relate to the interpersonal and cultural-institutional lenses. Halliday's (2004) seven language functions guided analysis of children's functional utterances (in English) in relation to their context of situation (incorporating preschoolers' social and emotional context). The incorporation of systemic functional linguistics principles and the context of situation drew attention to the concepts of field, tenor and mode, and led to a final process of thematic analysis questioning the interrelationship between the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use of bilingual preschoolers. In the area of educators' strategies, a cultural-institutional lens of focus drew attention to the educators' practices and the preschool's programs that aimed to support the bilingual preschoolers.

Preliminary data analysis occurred during the data collection period by practising *reflective journaling*. Other data analysis procedures occurred after data collection had ceased and involved *a priori coding* (Johnson & Christensen 2014, pp. 596–597), *thematic analysis*, and *memoing*. Data analysis procedures were conducted to align with the various questions and sub-questions in the present inquiry. The analysis processes are shown in **Figure 3-16**.

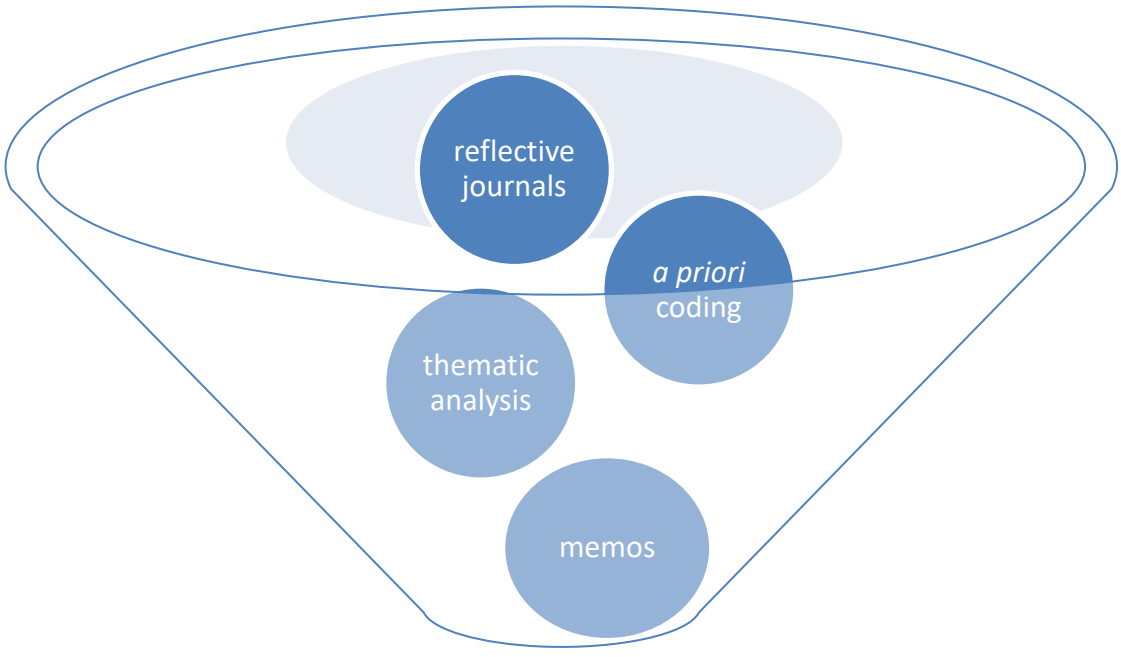


Figure 3-16: Data analysis processes

Reflective journaling – noticing, wondering and checking assumptions

Throughout the duration of the study, *reflective journals* were recorded in a memo app of the smart phone. This occurred outside data-collection hours. Reflective journals are personal logs recommended by Greene (2014, p. 9) to enhance trustworthiness and eliminate bias in studies by encouraging *reflexivity*—the consideration of one's own influence, thoughts and feelings about the research. They comprised of deliberations and contemplations. Journaling constituted preliminary data analysis and initially identified emerging themes. The reflective journals were transferred to a larger word document that was presented at fortnightly scheduled PhD supervisory meetings to prompt analytical discussions, critical thinking, and professional peer-review, between the researcher and university supervisors. This technique of overlapping data collection with analysis enabled attention to be refined as the study progressed and alerted to the need to search for contrasting or complementary evidence of the developing themes (Miles & Huberman 2002, p. 16).

Whilst a number of preliminary themes emerged early on during reflective journaling, a further highly concentrated data analysis period spanned beyond a year after data collection. During this time, photos, audios, movie-mode footage, field notes, questionnaires, interview notes, and reflective journals were reviewed using NVivo. NVivo has been utilized by few researchers of bilingual children, such as Schofield (2011), who used NVivo to conduct analysis on bilingual four-year-olds' social interactions and educators' language in initiating with children.

A priori coding

A priori coding was employed using NVivo to identify the incidences of each of Halliday's (2004) seven pre-determined language functions in children's recorded utterances (RQ 1.3). The term priori, meaning 'from earlier', illustrates how the codes were previously devised, and hence, the data was deductively coded. Additional frequency counts were also employed to identify the repeated presence of peers and educators in photographs and movie-mode footage (RQ 1.1).

Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis involved organising and coding portions of data inductively so to explain, describe and detail themes concerning: children's social interactions (RQ 1.1), children's emotional challenges (RQ 1.2), and the relationships between social interactions and emotional challenges with children's functional language use (in English) at preschool (RQ 1.4). Thematic analysis also served to identify educators' strategies according to social, emotional, and functional language categories of support (RQ 2). Thematic analysis involved

a systematic process of coding items of interest. In thematic analysis, '[r]esearcher judgment is necessary to determine what a theme is' and decide whether 'it captures something important in relation to the research questions' (Braun & Clarke 2006, p. 82). Themes developed as preliminary codes recurred in multiple forms of data. Constant comparison—that is—searching through different sources and types of data in a cyclic method to review and contrast evidence (Yin 2009) led to codes and themes being continually revised, refined, confirmed and reclassified over time.

Braun and Clarke's (2006, p. 87) six step breakdown of thematic analysis was employed and involved:

Phase 1: Familiarising with the data
Phase 2: Generating initial codes
Phase 3: Searching for themes and collating codes
Phase 4: Reviewing themes
Phase 5: Defining and naming themes; and
Phase 6: Producing the report, keeping a memo and drafting the findings.

Thematic analysis was similarly employed in Matthews (2010) qualitative study of bilingual learners, and Bligh and Drury's (2015) UK research on the silent period. Bligh and Drury (2015, p. 264) posit that thematic analysis is an analysis procedure that 'adapts to suit the needs of any given framework'. Given that this study drew from various conceptual and theoretical perspectives, thematic analysis was considered appropriate.

Coding on NVivo

NVivo was an efficient program for organising data analysis. At the outset of analysis, four categorical node folders (*node* being the NVivo term for a code) were created to store and collate the *a priori* and thematic analysis codes. The headings for the node folders were labelled: *Social Interactions*, *Emotional Challenges*, *Functional Language* and *Educators' Strategies* (the latter was divided into sub-folders: social, emotional, and functional language strategies). Behaviours of interest were manually marked, by attaching nodes to highlighted portions of data. The nodes were manually labelled to assist identification. Over time, an interconnected web of nodes developed. The nodes were continually extended and readjusted as themes developed. **Figure 3-17** demonstrates a simplified example of some of the nodes used in data analysis within the node folders.

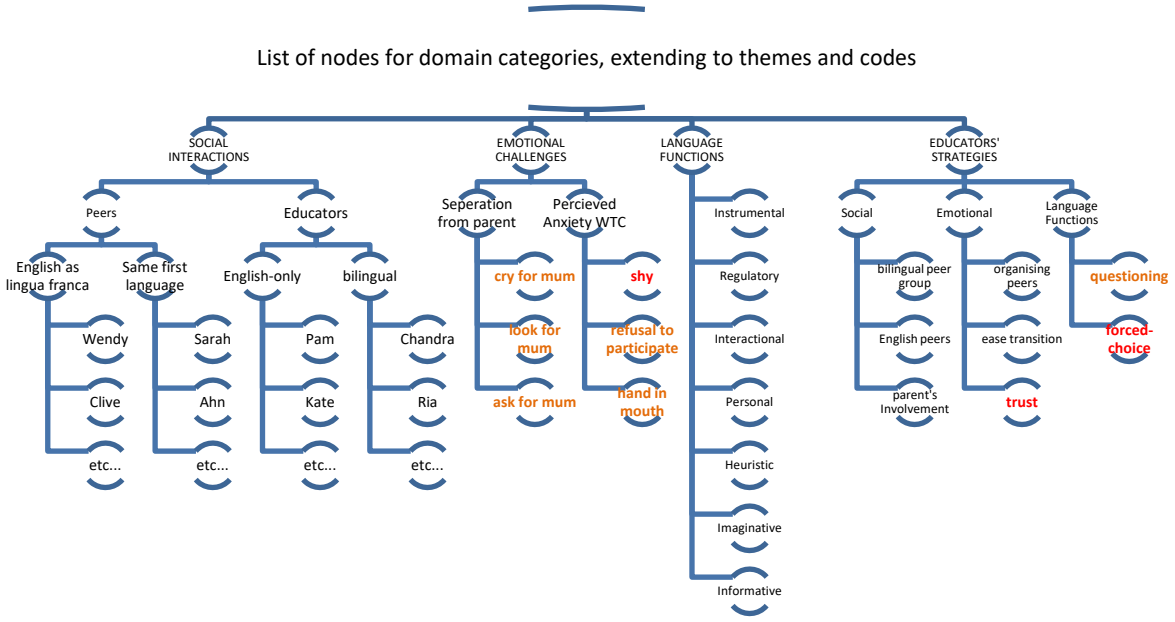


Figure 3-17: The nodes folders on NVivo

The process of coding involved highlighting a section of text (an area of an image, or a portion of movie-mode footage) that exemplified an idea or concept. Right clicking on the highlighted section enabled me to 'code selection' with proceeding options: 'code the selection at new node', 'code the selection as an existing node' (a previously labelled code that was already stored in the node folders), or to 'code selection at current node' (the code that was most recently applied). As codes (nodes) collated evidence, the themes arising from the data were triangulated (Gibbs 2007, p. 148). Triangulation is further discussed in the section on trustworthiness. Double clicking on a specific node folder later enabled all of the collated evidence (attributed to a certain node) to be listed. Hyperlinks were provided within the lists to enable access to the full source from which the coded portions of data originated.

Types of codes

There are three different forms of codes used in research (Johnson & Christensen 2014, pp. 596–597). These are *inductive*, *in vivo*, and, as already mentioned, . The text back in **Figure 3-17** identifies each type of code by colour. Inductive codes emerged after engaging with the data. For example, 'hand in mouth' coded an unanticipated item of interest. The code was located within the 'Emotional Challenges' node folder, under the sub-category theme 'perceived anxiety/shyness'. **Figure 3-18** illustrates the location of an inductive code 'hand in mouth' within the emotional challenges node folder.

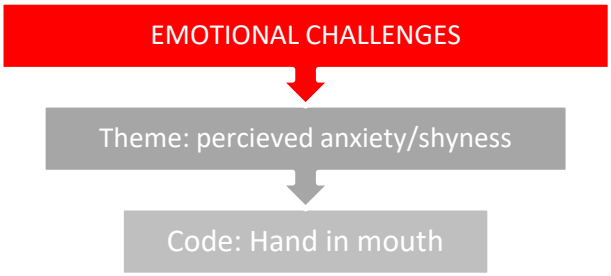


Figure 3-18: Sample of collapsed categories of emotional nodes

'*In vivo'* codes also emerged from the data, and derived from participants' own words. 'Trust' became an 'in vivo' code, located within the 'Educators' Strategies' folder, in the sub-category of 'Emotional Strategies', as a result of numerous informants mentioning the term, 'trust', as important when supporting bilingual preschoolers to speak. 'Forced-choice', was another 'in vivo' code in the 'Educators' Strategies' folder within the 'Functional Language' sub-category, due to the director repeatedly mentioning 'forced-choice' as method for encouraging children to respond verbally to questions. The findings chapters provide further explanation of such strategies.

Creating Memos

Memos were created within the NVivo program to complement the coding process of data analysis. Memos are 'a helpful tool for recording ideas generated during data analysis' as they record insights, deliberations and critical reflections relating to the emergence of (Johnson & Christensen 2014, pp. 588–589). Reflective journaling, on the other hand, recorded thoughts that developed during data collection. The memos were located in each focus child's data set folder. The documentation typed within memos reflected on the emerging themes and noted how children's social interactions and emotional challenges related to their functional language (RQ 1.4). Some memos contained pasted snapshot images from movie-mode files to collate evidence of certain themes which emerged during different phases of analysis.

3.5.3 Phases of analysis

Data was analysed in two separate phases in order to answer the two questions of inquiry concerning: *children's experiences* (phase one) and *educators' strategies* (phase two).

Analysis of the children's experiences

In phase one, dedicated blocks of time were allocated to separately focus on children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language. Emotional challenges and the seven language functions were simultaneously coded while transcribing audios and movie-

mode data; analysis of the social interactions occurred afterwards. The emotional challenges were later revisited to enable a final review of the themes.

- **Social interactions**

Diagrams were created on NVivo in order to represent the initial impressions, resulting from reflective journaling, field notes and conversations (with educators), referring to the regular peers and adults with whom the focus children interacted (RQ 1.1). The diagrams were later compared with the quantified tallies that identified regular peers and educators from audios, photographs, and movie-mode footage, to check for agreement. **Figure 3-19** provides an illustration of the node folders for coding social interactions according to peer and educator types.

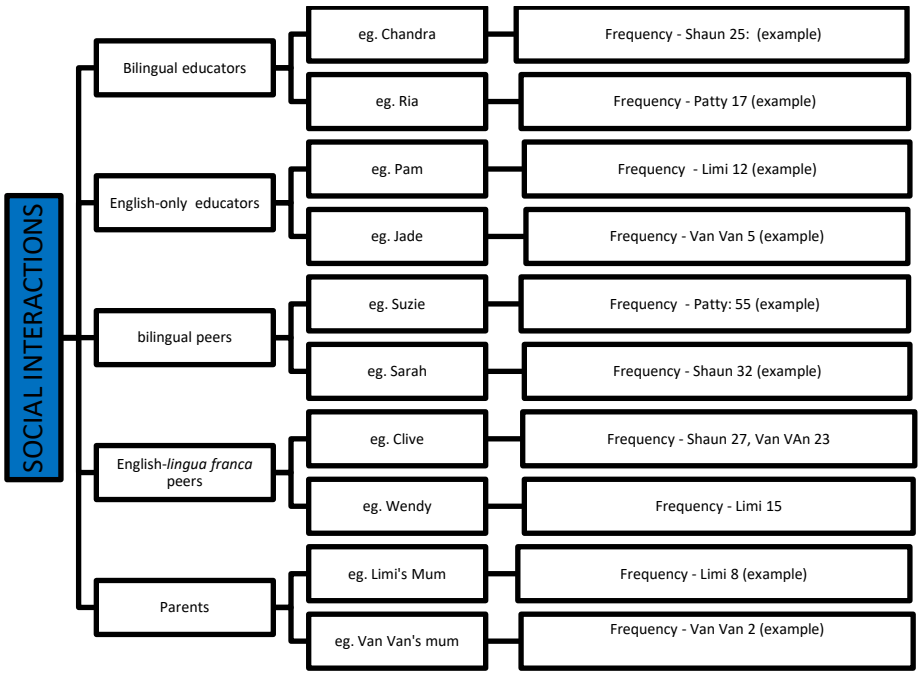


Figure 3-19: A simplified example of nodes for coding frequencies of social interactions

Reflective journals and impressionistic diagrams were considered to be particularly valuable data due to the limitation of movie-mode and other devices not being able to technologically record everything. Stake (1995, cited in Yazan 2015, p. 145), a foundational methodologist in the area of case study research, likewise, 'gives precedence to intuition and impression'. Comparing and contrasting the results of the *a priori* coding with thematic based impressions aimed to result in more robust research which delivered reliable and valid conclusions when identifying the regular peers and adults in social interactions with the focus children.

Themes surrounding the affordances of bilingual preschoolers' social interactions were additionally recorded in memos documented within the NVivo program. This aspect of the study drew attention to the *tenor* (the relationship between children and the people they

talked to and how this impacted on their speech), Vygotsky's ZPD and MKO concept, and also extending to children's emotional responses.

- **Emotional challenges**

In the preliminary stages of analysing the emotional challenges, pre-determined *a priori* codes, relating to basic emotions, were prepared to identify data where children were perceived to be: happy (e.g. smiling/laughing), sad (e.g. frowning or crying), angry (e.g. shouting or displaying angered eyebrows), anxious (e.g. withdrawing from interaction, freezing or looking away when conversed with), or shy (e.g. coyly refusing an invitation to participate). Such expressions and behaviours were consistent with Darwin (1965) and Ekman's (1982) cross-culturally supported criteria for identifying emotion through facial expressions. Although basic emotions are deemed by many to be universal in all cultures (Darwin 1965; Ekman 1993), I considered that my own preconceived bias (as a Westerner) may have influenced interpretations. Lack of eye contact, for example, has been found to be misinterpreted to identify shyness by persons of Western culture, although it may be that the cultural practice of lowering the eyes indicates respect in Asian or Indigenous Australian cultures (FKA Children's Services 2009). To alleviate the risk of misinterpretations, bilingual educators were consulted to confirm or contrast with my own impressions during the study.

Thematic analysis was employed, for the most part, to analyse the context surrounding children's emotional challenges (RQ 1.2). Audio-visual footage, field notes, and reflective journals were reviewed and coded to identify children's emotion-related expressions, behaviours and utterances during various events. Details of the events included interpersonal aspects of interactions, such as with whom the child interacted during an emotional moment in time, and cultural-institutional aspects, such as the practices, routines, policies of the preschool and the nature of the situation influencing why the child may have exhibited emotional behaviors. Inductive codes relating to emotion-based actions emerged, for example: 'looking for Mum'. This code was later categorised within the thematic node, '*separation challenges*' in congruence with Bowlby's (1973) separation anxiety criteria (as discussed in the literature review). Other codes, such as 'Pursed lips', in response to educators' attempts to converse, were later attributed to the 'discomfort/unwillingness to communicate' theme. Educators' comments on children's emotional challenges were also coded, and 'in vivo' codes, such as the use of the word, 'shy', emerged, due to 'shy' being mentioned by various informants when describing one of the children. **Figure 3-20** presents a sample of emotional challenges codes and their location within node folders.

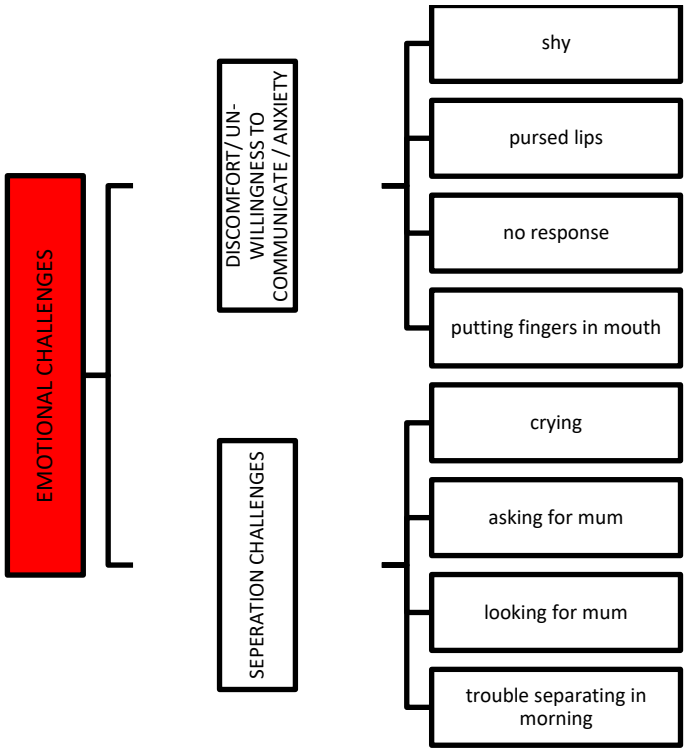


Figure 3-20: Simplified example of nodes for coding emotional challenges

The entirety of the data was cycled through and reviewed several times over the course of two years, to identify emotional challenges. In the final stages, memos were created to document analytical thoughts and to prepare for the findings report. Memos compiled visual evidence (snapshots of movie-mode footage illustrating events, children's facial expressions, and body language) to collate triangulated evidence of the proposed emotional challenges. Memos also noted how various emotional challenges related to and motivated children's functional language (RQ 1.4).

- **Functional language use**

To analyse children's functional use of English (RQ 1.3) during their early stages of speaking EAL, a seven-step process was performed.

Step 1: All audio-type forms of data were transcribed on NVivo to provide a written list of the four focus children's utterances.

Step 2: Each utterance was coded according to Halliday's seven functions of language (see language functions **Figure 2-6**). This process of quantifying data to communicate frequency is defined as '*enumeration*' (Johnson & Christensen 2014, p. 598). Combining the act transcribing with coding, ensured accurate identification of children's functional language use. This is because the full reference of dialogue was available to infer the correct functional meaning. Coding solely from a collated list of children's utterances—without the full contextual account of details surrounding the language exchange—could have resulted in misinterpretations and mistaken codings.

Step 3: Field-note recorded utterances were also coded to result in a complete list of utterances spoken by each focus child in observations.

Step 4: NVivo automatically tallied the prevalence of each of the seven functions after the utterances had been manually coded. The lists were later reviewed, on three occasions, to confirm that they had been correctly coded. Codings were repaired where necessary.

Step 5: An additional *auditor*, a qualified and experienced multilingual EAL trained teacher, who spoke native English, reviewed the lists and noted any queries she had about the accuracy of the codes. As a result of consultations with the auditor, some codes were revised after referring to the full dialogic encounter.

Step 6: An additional *audit* was held with the PhD researcher's supervisor to certify any ambiguous coding, with a focus on the heuristic (inquiry-based) category.

Step 7: The tallies of the seven language function codings were later tabled and expressed in pie-charts.

Codes were stored on NVivo within the Functional Language node folder. Double-clicking on any of the seven language functions nodes provided a reference link to the full list of utterances attributed to each functions. The lists were further divided into examples from each individual focus child. The lists collated details from a personal lens of focus and presented only what the individual children said; however, the full account of dialogue, relating to an utterance, could also be accessed via a hyperlink in order to obtain interpersonal details of the context surrounding children's speech.

The coding process for the functions of language is demonstrated in **Figure 3-21**. The left column displays the nodes: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, and informative, under the '*Language Functions*' folder. The centre column presents the compiled list of utterances deriving from all transcripts for one of the focus children. The right column displays the colour coding stripes that identify which of the seven language functions a child's utterances is coded to.

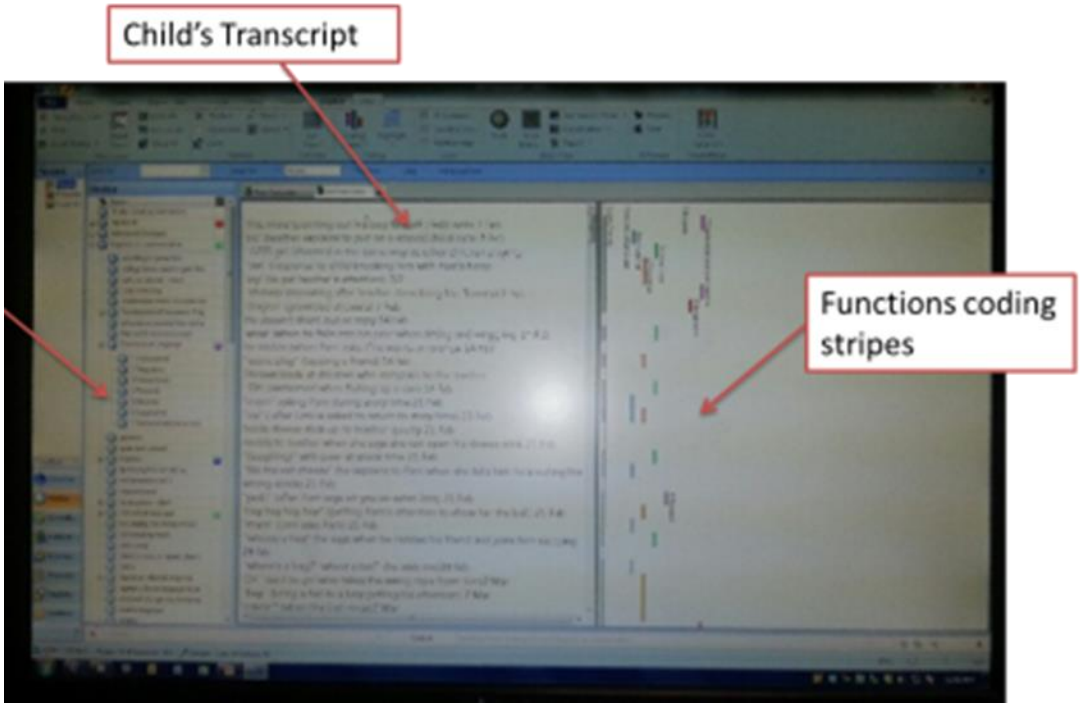


Figure 3-21: NVivo coding review round two

Descriptions of the types of utterances, attributed to each of the seven language functions, are detailed in Appendix 5. Some utterances were double-coded or had '*co-occurring codes'* (Johnson & Christensen (2014, p. 598) when they overlapped and belonged to two categories. Imaginative utterances often served as regulatory or informative utterances as well, while children role-played. A child pretending to be a fire fighter while commanding, "*Go get water!*" is an example. Interestingly in Llinares García's (2005, 2007) research, the imaginative function was not included.

The results of the frequencies of children's functional language use were later thematically analysed, in relation to children's social interactions and emotional challenges, by considering the influence of children's context of situation on children's productive speech. The tenor aspect of the context of situation related to impact of the relationships between a child and their interlocutors upon a child's speech and attention to the field focused on the subject-content surrounding a child's speech and other contextual circumstances. Analysis incorporated SCT, as well, by drawing attention to the interpersonal lens of focus and details surrounding how the interactions and relationships between the children and their interlocutors impacted upon children's speech. The cultural-institutional lens of focus also drew attention to the verbal practices of the educators and how such practices prompted different language functions from the bilingual children.

The preliminary report, proposing the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language themes, was member checked during a presentation involving the

preschool educators, at a staff meeting concluding the project. Agreed preliminary findings were presented at 'The Learner' conference in 2014 in New York. Feedback from other professionals: educationalists and researchers, was invited. A draft article, later published in the International Journal of Learning: Annual Review (Farndale, Harris & de Courcy 2016), was reviewed by several of Gumtree Preschool's educators to, again, invite feedback and input prior to being published. Seeking feedback aimed to enable final consultation with the study's informants—the educators.

Analysis of the educators' strategies

Phase two of analysis focused on the educators' strategies (RQ 2). This phase began once the children's experiences phase was completed. 'Recommended' strategies were identified in data containing educators' verbal and written contributions, in questionnaires, interviews, informal discussions, staff meetings, and programming sessions. Implemented strategies were identified in data containing observations of educators, in movie-mode recordings, photographs, field notes, and audios. Analysis drew from SCT, as culture can be seen to include the practices of groups of people (Scarino & Liddicoat 2009, p. 19). The practices or strategies that were implemented and recommended by the educators of Gumtree Preschool were hence in focus. Both the cultural-institutional lens of focus from SCT, relating to the preschool's policies, routines and programs, and the interpersonal lens, relating to the interactions and relationships between focus children and the educators, guided the study.

Step one involved analysis of the 10 educators' hand-written responses to the questionnaires which asked educators to *suggest* strategies to support preschoolers in the early stages of learning to speak EAL. The hand-written responses were typed onto an excel spreadsheet and were imported into NVivo. Suggestions were coded according to social, emotional, or functional language-types of supports. Categorisation drew from the researcher's own professional knowledge of early childhood developmental domains. Social strategies related to educators' arrangements for grouping children to answer RQ 2.1; emotional strategies related to educators' practices of settling, comforting, reassuring, and developing trust and self-esteem with children to answer RQ 2.2; and functional language strategies related to ways educators encouraged various functions of language through their dialogue to answer RQ 2.3.

To analyse the strategies that educators *implemented* to support bilingual preschoolers learning to speak EAL, observational data were reviewed. Photographs, movie-mode recordings, transcriptions of group-times, field notes, and reflective journaling were coded systematically on NVivo to identify social, emotional, and functional language-based

strategies of support (RQ 2.1, 2.2, 2.3). Educators' practices of questioning children was also further analysed using Hay and Fielding-Barnsley's (2012, p. 26) more recent adaptation of Blank, Rose and Berlin's (1978a, 1978b) four levels of questioning. The levels were illustrated in **Table 2-1** in the literature review. Numerous examples of educators' questioning were compiled to triangulate evidence of their regular use. Triangulation is research technique used during data analysis to enhance the trustworthiness of a study.

3.6 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is defined as

> 'the ability to take account of the complexities of a study and explain patterns that have been found so that the investigation is credible, has transferability to contexts that may have similar characteristics, and includes dependable, stable data that are confirmable (via triangulation of multiple resources).' (Pappas & Tucker-Raymond 2011, p. 7).

To establish *trustworthiness* in naturalistic research, a study must result in *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability* and *confirmability* (Given 2008, p. 895; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Morse 2018), as shown in **Figure 3-22**.

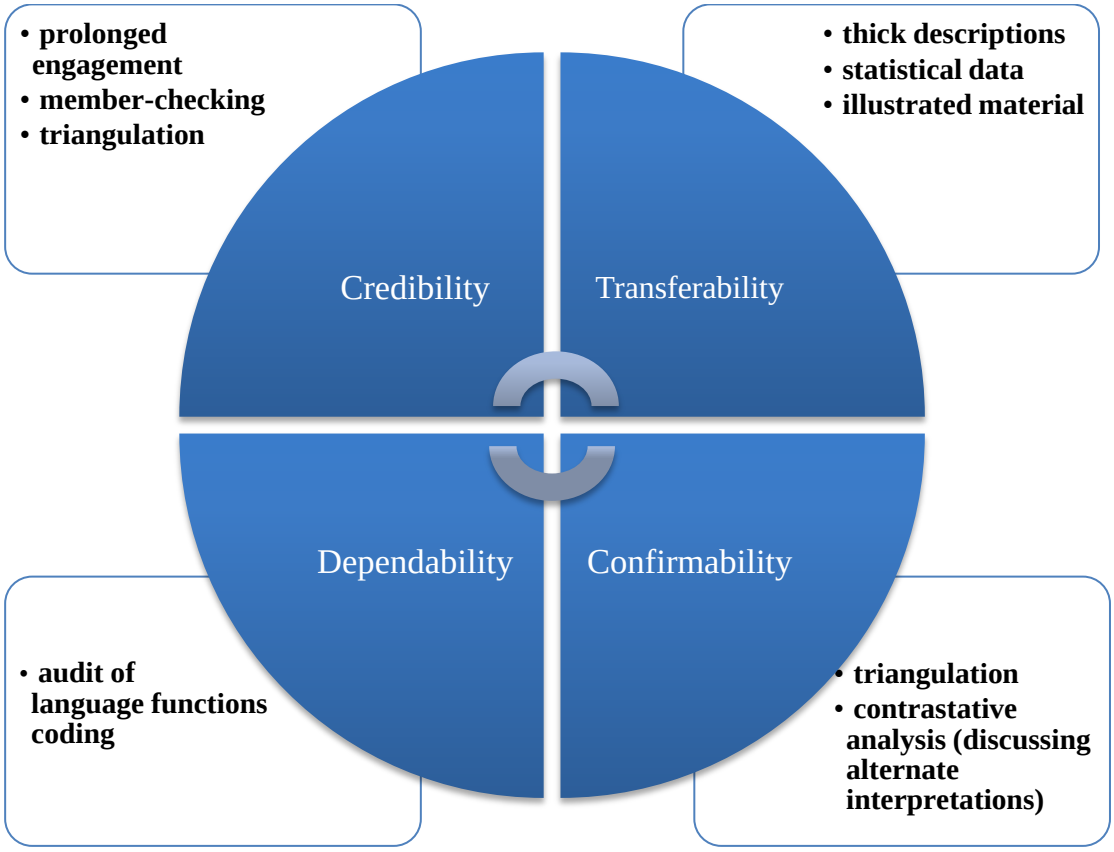


Figure 3-22: Trustworthiness

Credibility in strengthened by connecting a study to a theoretical framework (Mathews 2010) to affirm the complex explorations, descriptions, and explanations of theoretical constructs in

relation to the data (Lapadat 2010, pp. 925–926). Participant research, prolonged engagement, member-checking, peer review, and triangulation also assisted to established credibility (i.e. confidence in the truth of the findings) in the present study. *Triangulation* refers to a 'convergence of evidence' (Yin 2012, p. 13) and is a technique that is 'at the heart of ethnographic validity' (Given 2008, p. 291). Data were coded, into various categories to accumulate and cross-verify recurring observations, so to identify, develop and substantiate themes. Triangulation aims to draw together collections of evidence to support claims (Yin 2012, p. 13). Triangulation serves to minimalise subjectivity and reduces the risk of over-generalisation. Over-generalising can result if research findings or conclusions are based on a single occurring event or statement which is unsupported by other confirming documentation. Triangulation achieves 'a more complete picture of the topic under study and [is used] to cross check information' (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 408).

The purpose of triangulating data was to identify, develop, compile and reinforce relevant themes worthy of reporting. A combination of visual, aural, and textual evidence was hence analysed. Triangulation involved 'checking one's findings by using several points of reference' (Burton & Bartlett 2009, p. 26). The process of triangulation collated codes across various informants and types of data, and identified the repetition of events and patterns of behaviour over time, as shown in **Figure 3-23**.

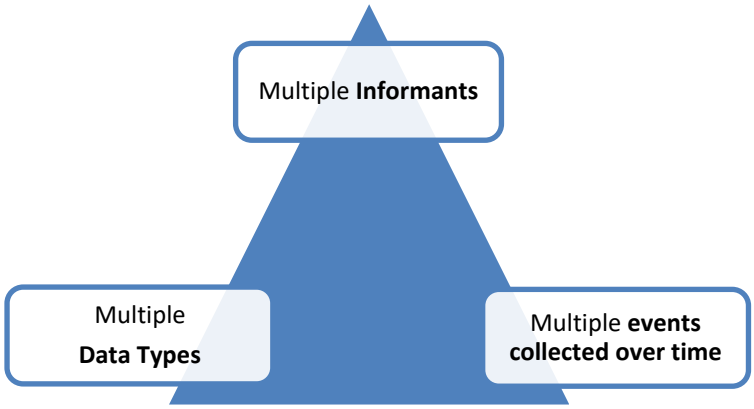


Figure 3-23: Triangulation

The '*multiple approach*', of coding evidence from multiple informants and multiple types of data over time, served as a strategy to alleviate bias and enhance trustworthiness and validity (Gay, Mills & Airasian 2009, p. 408; Johnson & Christensen 2014, p. 301; Morse 2015; Yin 2012). *Validity* is 'a criterion for the integrity of a study in terms of accuracy of inferences and the trustworthiness of results' (Hartas 2010, p. 251). Triangulation is a strategy of validation (Flick 2018). Data triangulation involves combining different data sources at different times and from different people; whereas methodological triangulation involves

using different methods to draw from each of their strengths in order to overcome their weaknesses (Flick 2018).

Knight (2002, p. 138) argues that checking research findings with participants, using multiple methods, multiple sources of information and documentation, and multiple theories strengthens research. Relying on a single method of data collection, in isolation, runs the risk of limiting the data set. The present study combined numerous data collection sources, methods, and documentation in order to benefit from the multiple strengths of each type of data collection processes. See **Figure 3-24** for a display of the various sources (participants and informants) and types of data documentation involved in this study.

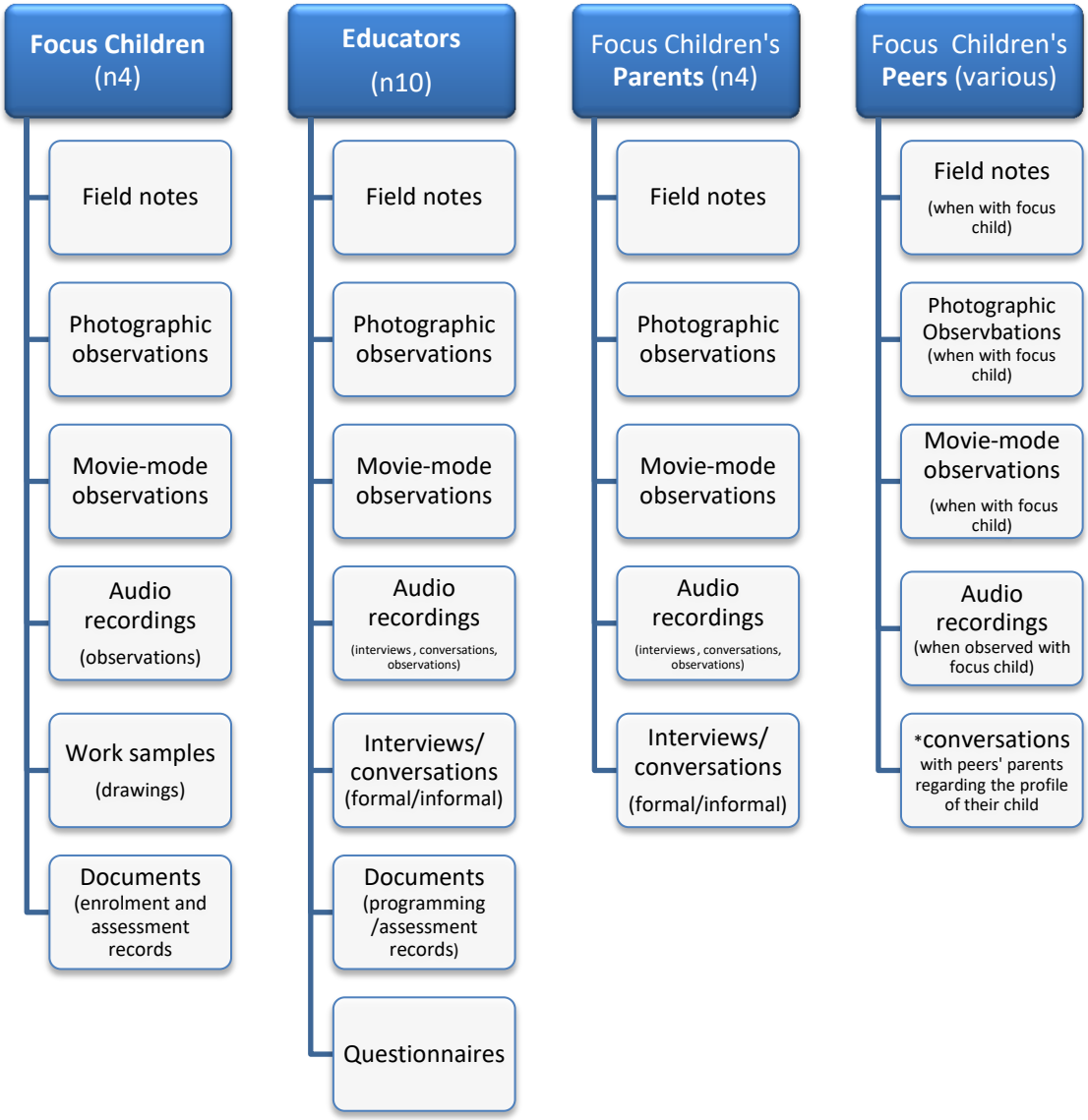


Figure 3-24: Sources and types of data

Observational data was documented using field notes, audio recordings, photographs, and movie-mode recordings. Interviews and informal conversations were documented via field

notes and audio recordings. Questionnaires, work samples and other documents were also collected.

Transferability (i.e. showing that the findings can be related to other contexts) was supported by providing thick descriptions, statistical information of the CALD population, and illustrated material displaying children's experiences. *Dependability* (i.e. ensuring the findings were consistent) was supported by the audit of the frequencies of the language functions. *Confirmability* (i.e. avoiding/reducing bias) was supported by triangulating evidence from various types of observational data and numerous informants' contributions (e.g. parents and educators) over time as well as contemplating bias in reflective journals.

Rigor and *reliability* was strengthened in this case study by combining my own observations with the informants' contributions, to achieve a consensus. The study's informants (experienced and qualified early childhood professionals) were often consulted to member check data and implement peer review of the preliminary findings and interpretations of data. *Member checking* clarified the accuracy of transcriptions in field notes and the agreement of, or alternative contrasts to, my own interpretations of children's behaviours (Morse 2015, p. 1216). Member-checking involved cross-checking interpretations, with other bilingual informants—those who possessed more knowledge about culturally-related behaviours—to strengthen the reliability of data analysis (Delamont 2012; Simons 2009, p. 55). *Peer review,* also known as expert review was implemented to improve research validity and trustworthiness (Given 2008, p. 604). This involved presenting findings to the educators and supervisors to invite feedback, Peer review aimed to counteract the risk of bias, that is, inaccurate assumptions influenced by sole interpretations of a single researcher. To further ensure subjectivity, the preschool's own collection of photographs were perused, to search for images complementing or contrasting evidence of focus preschoolers' regular peers in addition to participant researcher observations over a prolonged period.

3.6.1 Prolonged engagement

Prolonged engagement has also been commonly prioritised in research with bilingual preschoolers. Examples include Soderman and Oshio's (2008) study involving over 100 classroom observations of three to six-year-olds' second language acquisition over the course of a year; Shao's (2005) 14-month-study of one Chinese child; and Tabors' (2008) two-year study visiting a classroom several mornings a week to observe teachers' and children's interactions, such as Juliana and Byong-sun (children aged four).

Other studies have collected data over smaller periods of time, such as the three-month case study by Matthews (2010); the six 2.5 hour-long audio recordings of Nazma (during three

visits at the start of the nursery year and three visits at the end) by Drury (2007), and the fifteen-session-study combining five sessions per three groups of children by Llinares García (2005), or her four one-hour sessions intervention study (Llinares García 2007). The current study, collected data over the prolonged period of 45 days, for approximately four to six hours each day during a six-month period, in aim to strengthen trustworthiness and identify repetition of events and re-occurring behaviours over time to consolidate themes.

As the preschool educators knew that they were being observed in this study, it is acknowledged that there may have been a slight alteration in their usual teaching practices, due to self-consciousness. Altered behaviours may have been more common and problematic at the commencement of the investigation; however, over time the educators likely became accustomed to having a researcher present. Employing prolonged engagement aimed to minimise observer effect. The focus children, on the other hand, likely considered myself as the researcher to have had the same role as other educators on site and were hence less likely to have behaved differently in my presence. My own physical presentation was carefully considered during data collection, as I wanted to encapsulate a sense that I was just another adult who belonged to the preschool community. I hence took care to dress in outfits resembling parents' and educators' looks, so not to draw too much attention to myself or to stand out, as may have been the case had I wore more corporate professional like clothing. Semi-professional clothing and the preschool site's name badge was worn to blend in.

The 113 other children at the preschool, who passively participated in the study, were also not particularly aware that there were four focus children, nor themselves, observed in the study. The four focus children were also not explicitly notified that they were being studied, although some were present, standing alongside their parents, when conversations were held with their mothers to discuss the study. It was preferred not to draw attention to the focus children that they were being researched so to ensure that the data was as naturalistic as possible.

Over time, many children increasingly initiated interactions with me as I collected data. The initiations enabled closer recording ranges with the focus children. '*Habituation*' describes the extent to which children have become accustomed to the presence of the researcher (Lee 2000, p. 47). Only one child, of the total 121 children participants involved in the study, asked me about my possession of the cameras and only a few children displayed curiosity over the planted audio recorder, probably because children were less familiar with an audio recording device. For the most part, the preschoolers in the study were engrossed by their own activities and hence paid little attention to myself observing them. '*Engrossment*'

defines the circumstance when participants are so caught up in the activity they are doing that they do not realise they are being studied and hence they do not change their behaviour in the researcher's presence (Lee 2000, p. 57).

3.6.2 The biography of the researcher

Integrity or reporting research honestly, is vital in case study research, particularly in single researcher studies. As an instrument of the data collection themselves, Matthew (2010, p. 39) recommends that the identity of a researcher should be disclosed to notify any likely biases, subjectivities or attitudes held by the researcher which could impact on the collection of the data, its way of being analysed, and ultimately the proposed findings of a study. My own sociocultural and personal history, as a parent, teacher, and researcher, is provided in the following paragraphs to highlight ways in which my own presence may have impacted on the collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Bligh (2014) also considered it crucial in her research to report on how she, as the research, fit into her study.

I consider myself as an Australia born native English-speaking female with British heritage and experience in travelling in Asia, Africa, America, Europe, and Australia. I was 32 years old at the time of data collection. I hold a Bachelor of Early Childhood Education (with Honours) and a Master's degree in Education (specialising in Early Childhood) and at the time of the study, had experience in teaching for more than a decade in Australia, England, France and Kenya. I am certified in TESOL (Teaching English as a second or other language), TESMC (Teaching ESL students in mainstream classrooms), and TENA (Teaching ESL to New Arrivals), through Department of Education and Children's Service's (2008, 2010) courses. In my prior career, the teaching of 'English' as an additional language to young children has been prioritised. I have previously conducted case studies and action research on early childhood literacy and in EAL settings for the South Australian Department for Education and Child Development. As noted in the literature review, one of my prior research projects involved a six-month investigation of bilingual preschoolers' use of descriptive language as they learned EAL. I am experienced in many audio-visual data collection techniques used in the present study.

My prior experience as a volunteer English teacher in several early-years settings in Kenya (a bilingual country where English is the official language and Swahili is the national language of the country) prepared me for the ethnographic techniques applied in this case study research and developed my sense of cultural competence and ethnocentricity (Farndale 2009). I, myself, identify as an incipient bilingual of Swahili. I am also an emergent bilingual in French. I taught EAL to bilingual French-speaking children in Paris and Amsterdam. After

graduating as a teacher in 2001, I accumulated various experiences teaching bilingual children in a multitude of early childhood settings: playgroups, preschools, schools and new arrivals programs (intensive English language classes for Australian immigrants). I learnt Indonesian as a foreign language in my own primary and secondary schooling. I speak Indonesian occasionally at my current preschool workplace where I teach bilingual preschoolers. I parent a bilingual preschooler—she was four years old, at the time of the study, attending a different preschool. My daughter attended Swahili School classes with me during the study to develop her heritage language and I sometimes taught Swahili classes myself.

As a certain amount of reflexivity is required when conducting insider research, it is important that 'the researcher understands that he or she is part of the social world(s) he or she investigates' (Berg 2007, p. 178). Prior to the study, I held several assumptions in relation to the phenomenon of bilingual preschoolers learning EAL—one was that that bilingual preschoolers were often challenged and displayed emotional distress when they started attending and transitioning to preschool. This assumption drew from my prior experiences and observations. I had previously witnessed many bilingual preschoolers crying, screaming, howling and gripping on to their parents' hands or legs, occasionally screaming to the point of vomiting when separating from parents in mornings and sometimes refusing to let go of their bags. English speakers also cried, however, the English language served as a buffer to help them calm more easily. A second preconceived view, presented in a 2012 poem I wrote before implementing the present study (the poem being presented in Appendix 6), demonstrates my original more deficit view of preschoolers' experiences and linguistic abilities, and my prior focus on children's limited English and the need to 'catch up'. My contemporary experience is that many educators still focus on supporting children to catch up in English without being mindful to support families to retain children's first languages as well. The original ideas expressed in my poem evolved over the duration of the research to later encompass, embrace, acknowledge and promote children's funds of knowledge—one being their first language/s. As the study developed it incorporated critical theories about cultural and linguistic capital and privilege.

It is argued that '[t]eacher-researchers bring to bear their expert knowledge and understanding of practice in their research of their practice' (Loughran 2003, p. 181). Furthermore, teacher research asks practitioners to investigate the practical issues or concerns that arise within a particular social context' (Pappas & Tucker-Raymond 2011). Whilst I was a qualified and experienced teacher who specialised in teaching EAL, I did not undertake the role of teacher-researcher or practitioner-researcher in this study. I was not a teacher at

Gumtree Preschool, but rather, a privileged active participant researcher. Nevertheless, there were benefits attributed to having professional insider knowledge of preschoolers learning EAL and having prior experiences of preschool educators as colleagues. Having insider knowledge simplified the induction process to the new preschool setting, minimised distractions and improved my focus on the task of data collection (Greene 2014). I was familiar with the context of many preschools, the relationships and roles of educators and the daily routines of preschool settings. This familiarity supported natural assimilation among the multicultural diversity of participants: staff, children and parents. I was also familiar with the preschool's local community, having been raised as a child in the same council area myself as a child. The additional familiarity, again, supported my acculturation into the preschool setting. My background in working with CALD families, as well as my own familiarity of parenting a bilingual preschooler of African/Australian culture, provided a foundation for me to develop cultural competence, relatable non-threatening, open, and empathetic relationships with the study's participants. Although I had not previously worked at Gumtree Preschool, I discovered that I had worked with one of the teachers at another local preschool site, several years prior to undertaking the present study. The previous collegial rapport and personal connection provided a foundation for trust to be further developed with the other educators at the preschool. Developing trust, between the researcher and the participants and having integrity is crucial for achieving ethical research. Ethical research also involves carefully selecting images to report research findings.

3.6.3 Image selection

The process for selecting photographs for their inclusion in the findings chapter first involved retrieving coded photos which best represented the reported themes. Some images were already prepared for and pasted in the memos, others were categorised within node folders. In order for a photo to be included, it was mandatory that consent and talent release permissions for all persons present in a selected image were received. If consent was not authorised, individuals were either cropped out or another image was selected. The conditions stipulated in the talent release permission (presented in Appendix 3), granted the use of original images, as well as the editing of images (e.g. cropping or blurring). It was later decided to blur images (using Microsoft Word Tools) given modern technological advances where images could be subjected to online facial recognition. Blurring further protected children from identification and respected their privacy and right to confidentiality. Due to the young age of participants, the children in the study were not in a legal position to maturely consent to the use of their photos. Parents consented on children's behalf, hence it was deemed ethically responsible to publish blurred images of children's faces.

3.7 Limitations of the study

The aim of a case study is 'not necessary to be able to generalise the results of qualitative research' (Australian Government 2007b, p. 27), but rather to achieve transferable findings (Anderson & Herr 2010). The preschool context for four children and 10 educators at an Australian preschool (which provided some bilingual support) was described with a depth of detail, as a result of prolonged engagement, observation, and informants' contributions.

It is acknowledged that focus children's own verbal accounts of their personal experiences were not collected in this study. Children were not interviewed due to the goal that the focus children's environment be as naturalistic as possible; although, some documentary evidence of a child identifying a regular friend through a drawing was collected. A second reason children were not interviewed in this study was due to funding constraints preventing the employment of interpreters. This research was conducted on a small budget of less than $2000.

A second limitation in this study, again due to budget constraints, was that the first language utterances of bilingual preschoolers or bilingual educators were rarely translated. It was therefore not possible to determine the functional aspects of children's first language usage. A small portion of transcriptions in languages other than English were achieved, with the assistance of Vietnamese and Khmer bilingual staff. In the present study, one 20 minute bilingual literacy group-time was fully translated into Vietnamese/English, with the voluntary assistance of the Vietnamese bilingual early childhood worker, Ria. The translation process took two-and-a-half hours, in addition to the several hours it took to transcribe the English utterances. Ria refused the offer for remuneration for this service. Her contribution was much appreciated. Clarke's (1996) study also did not translate Vietnamese utterances due to funding constraints. Drury (2007), on the other hand, was able to work closely with a bilingual teaching assistant to transcribe some of Nazma's utterances. Jones Díaz's (2007) research also benefited from her own bilingual Spanish/English speaking abilities; however, in the present study, I was unable to understand Vietnamese, Khmer, Chin, and Albanian. Shao (2005) also identified with the Chinese culture and spoke the language of her focus child.

Visits to children's homes were also not arranged in the present study, due to the desire to remain unobtrusive as an observer of the children. Bligh (2014), however, gathered additional details of children's home environments and family contexts. Drury (2007) also visited Nazma's home and interviewed her mother and grandmother. In the present study, interviews with parents took place at the busy Gumtree Preschool environment, or over the

phone; they were limited to only 20-30 minutes in most cases. Spontaneous conversations also occurred depending on parents' attendance at the centre.

A final limitation of this study was the presence of a single researcher, although two supervisors and an auditor did support data analysis to further ensure accuracy in coding, and provide inter-coder/inter-rater reliability (Johnson & Christensen 2014, p. 594). Having multiple researchers would have contributed to validity and trustworthiness; however, enlisting multiple researchers was not possible for a PhD study (Knight 2002, p. 138). Collaboration among researchers would have enabled more extensive evidence to be collected and would have allowed for an increase in interpretive triangulation, to support inferences. Palermo and Mikulski (2014) managed to recruit 18 research assistants to study peer interactions and their positive influences. Again, this PhD study was funded on a modest budget by a PhD Scholarship recipient. Gumtree Preschool's own photographs and participants' contributions served to contrast, compare, and combine interpretations that identified children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional languages use, as well as educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers.

3.8 Summary of the methodology

The present methodology chapter has justified the advantages of the case study design, incorporating ethnographic techniques, and has explained the investigation's interpretive epistemological underpinnings. The conceptual framework comprising of SCT, the social interactionist paradigm, the emotions-considerate style of research, and the functional language-based conceptual framework that informed the present study, have also been detailed. The chapter has defended the strength of combining various audio-visual, written, and spoken methods of data collection, and has offered comprehensive details of the analysis processes and use of NVivo. The proceeding, Chapter Four, *Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies* will next: describe the context of the study, introduce the educators, and detail their strategies to support bilingual preschoolers, and then, Chapter Five, *The Children's Experiences* will illustrate the children's social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use.

4. Gumtree Preschool's Context and Educators' Strategies

4.1 Introduction

The present chapter establishes the sociocultural context of the study by describing Gumtree Preschool, the educators' profiles and their strategies for supporting bilingual preschoolers. These details provide insight into the cultural-institutional (policies, practices, routines and resources) and interpersonal (relationships and interaction based) lenses framing the study of bilingual preschoolers' experiences. As noted in the methodology chapter, research drawing from Vygotsky's SCT involves observing children through three lenses: personal, interpersonal, and cultural-institutional, in order to gain a thorough understanding of children in interconnection with their world (Fleer & Richardson 2004 p. 26). This chapter therefore serves to answer the second question of the study upfront so to first establish the cultural and interpersonal context, prior to presenting the bilingual preschoolers' experiences. The second research question asked:

> What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

To answer this question, the present chapter introduces the context of the Gumtree Preschool; its location and demographics; the preschool's sessions and curriculum; the routine; the physical setting; and its resources. Details of the preschool are followed by the educators' profiles; their questionnaire results; and demonstrated and suggested strategies (by various educators) for supporting bilingual preschoolers at Gumtree Preschool.

4.2 Gumtree Preschool's profile

4.2.1 The preschool's location and demographics

Gumtree Preschool (a pseudonym) was located in South Australia, within 25 kilometers north of Adelaide's GPO. The preschool sessions were offered within a larger children's service and catered for 113 preschoolers during the study. The preschool was positioned on the same site as a government primary school. The South Australian Department for

Education and Child Development had been running the preschool for two years at this site prior to the present study. The site provided a range of additional services for families and children, aged birth to five, such as playgroup, occasional care and English lessons for parents (with a crèche available). The service was located within the city of Salisbury—a low socio-economic community. Higher proportions of bilingual speakers tend to reside in and nearby major cities of Australia (de Courcy 2010) and families from non-English speaking backgrounds tend to reside in economically disadvantaged areas (AEDC 2016b). An increasing number of five-year-olds were reported as having English as an [additional] language in the area, growing from 18.6% in 2009 to 26.1 % in 2012, and more recently in 2015 to 30.8% (AEDC 2015a). In the local community, 26% of five-year-old children spoke English as an [additional] language, with 18% of EAL speaking children considered to be not proficient in English by their teachers (AEDC 2012).

The following information on Gumtree Preschool's local community derives from *id. the population experts* (2017b) and focuses on the local linguistic diversity. Particular attention is paid to the Vietnamese, Khmer, Burmese (Chin), and Albanian speaking populations, as these four languages were spoken by the four focus preschoolers.

In 'the city of Salisbury', 22% of the 2011 population spoke a language other than English at home. In the more specific suburb of Gumtree Preschool (unnamed for reasons of anonymity), 30% of the population spoke a language other than English at home. In the city of Salisbury the most common languages other than English were, first, Vietnamese which 3.7% local people spoke at home, second, Italian with 1.8 % speakers, and third, Khmer (the language of Cambodia), with 1.6% speakers. Nationally in Australia, Vietnamese is the second most common language background other than English (LBOTE) for five-year-olds (n=3899) (Goldfeld et al. 2011, p. 17). In Gumtree Preschool's specific suburb, 8.1% of the population spoke Vietnamese and 3.6% spoke Khmer. Less than .1% spoke Albanian or Burmese (Chin), the languages of the other focus children. Records from *id. the population experts* (2017b) showed that Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking populations had increased since 2006, along with Dari, Tagalog, and Mandarin-speakers, as demonstrated in **Figure 4-1**. These same languages were reflected in Gumtree Preschool's enrolments.

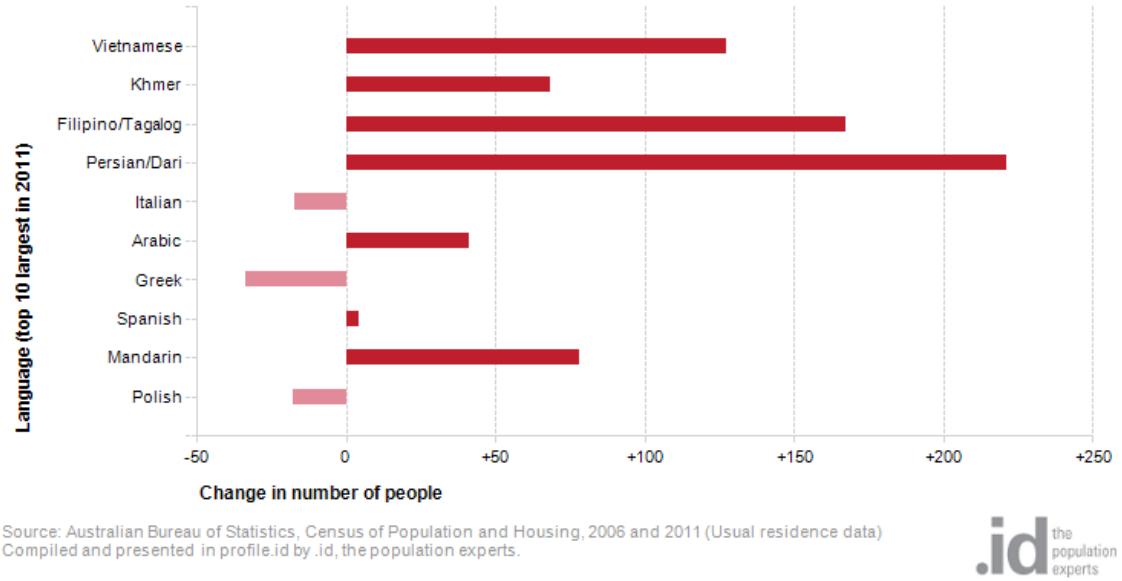


Figure 4-1: Changes in the languages spoken at home in the local area 2006-2011

A total of 6590 people—5.1% of the population in the city of Salisbury—reported difficulty with speaking English *(id. the population experts* 2017b). This increased from the comparative 4671 people, or 3.9%, who reported difficulty in 2006. In the suburb where the preschool was located, a higher 8% of people reported difficulty when speaking English in 2011, again, an increase since 2006. In Gumtree Preschool's suburb, 23.7% of people were reported as having been born overseas in a non-English speaking country.

The preschool was characterised as multicultural. The annual report declared 70% of children were from CALD backgrounds, Aboriginal or having additional needs. The preschool had a capacity for 110-120 enrolments. There were 26 different languages represented in the preschool attendees and Vietnamese, Khmer, and Indian languages were common. The site had a capacity for 60 children to attend each preschool session. Five sessions ran each week on weekdays and about 50 children were usually present each day, with five to seven educators, as illustrated in **Figure 4-2**.

Figure 4-2: Gumtree Preschool community

4.2.2 Gumtree Preschool's sessions and the curriculum

Gumtree Preschool provided *'Universal Access*', a program which offers 15 hours of preschool per week to eligible preschool-aged children who turn four prior to the 1st of May each year. Preschoolers who were new to English as an additional language (EAL) were invited to start six months earlier and could attend *Early-entry* sessions—weekly three-hour sessions that aimed to support transitions for non-English speaking children to preschool. All preschoolers were able to attend *Pre-entry* sessions—a three-hour visit, one day a week the term prior to starting full-time preschool. The availability of Early-entry and Pre-entry visits depended on the availability of places, due to the capacity limitation.

Gumtree Preschool offered two options for weekly preschool sessions: one group ran a combination of Monday, Wednesday, and a fortnightly Friday morning, and the other ran on the Tuesday, Thursday, and an alternate fortnightly Friday morning. Sessions ran from 8:30am to 3:00pm. The preschool followed a play-based curriculum—' a context for learning through which children organise and make sense of their social worlds as they engage actively with people, objects and representations' (EYLF 2009, p. 6). The preschool followed the national *Early Years Learning Framework* (EYLF)—a curriculum characterised by children 'being, belonging and becoming' which is guided by five objectives:

- Children have a strong sense of identity.
- Children are connected with and contribute to their world.
- Children have a strong sense of wellbeing.
- Children are confident and involved learners.
- Children are effective communicators.

The EYLF (2009, p. 11) draws from developmental, sociocultural, socio-behaviorist, critical, and post-structuralist theories. The EYLF (2009, p. 40) recommends that educators 'value children's linguistic heritage' and 'value the social and cultural contexts of children and their families' in order to promote cultural competence (EYLF 2009, p. 14). Chapter One, *The Introduction*, provided detail of the EYLF in section 1.3.1 Australia's preschool curriculum.

Gumtree Preschool's annual report, and context statement, highlighted that literacy was a priority. The preschool was also involved in the Northern Adelaide Region's literacy focus on: comprehension, oral language, and emergent literacies, with a focus on play. The preschool was a member of the *Northern District's EAL Preschool Hub Group*.

4.2.3 The daily routine

Gumtree Preschool's sessions were delivered over a full day that was broken down into: large group-times, small group-times, playtimes, and other routines, such as mealtimes.

8:30	arrival and free play
9:40	large group-time on mat (circle-time)
9:45	small group sessions in separate rooms/areas
10:00	snack then inside/outside play
11:30	pack up inside
11:40	large group-time on mat (circle-time)
12:00	lunch time – relaxation when finished
12:30	large group-time on mat (circle-time)
12:35	inside/outside play
13:30	snack time bell
14:20	packup inside/outside
14:30	large group-time on mat (circle-time)
14:45	puzzles/books
3:00	farewell

The day began at 8:30am when children were offered an hour of free play inside the preschool building. During this time, a wide range of play activities were set up to engage children's interests. These included playdough-type modelling activities, construction, arts, crafts, home-corner or other dramatic play scenarios, puzzles, books, blocks, science displays, easel painting, computers, trains/cars, puppets, and dolls. Children could select their own activities and play materials, and engage with them at their leisure. Children were sometimes invited by educators to participate in cooking and craft activities with adult support. Activities were changed every week to offer new learning opportunities, in accordance with the objectives and topic of the weekly program. The program was developed during staff meetings. Programmed activities often resulted from educators' observations of children in a teaching and learning cycle.

At 9:40am each day, the children gathered together for large group-time in the mat area. This large group session lasted between five and ten minutes. It was facilitated by one qualified teacher in English while being supported by other educators sitting among children on the floor. Early childhood workers – bilingual (ECWBs) would translate the English spoken during the group-time into children's first languages as they sat among their bilingually-matched preschoolers. The large group session involved singing, story-telling, introducing play activities, developing rules for children's behaviour, and brainstorming with children about topics such Chinese New Year or healthy eating. After large group-time, children were divided into their allocated small group literacy/numeracy sessions, according to their first languages. The groups were delivered in: English-only (mainstreamed for English-speaking children and bilingual children who were without matched-bilingual support), Vietnamese/English, Khmer/English, and Persian/English. Bilingual group educators spoke

both languages. Each group catered for less than 10 children and the English-only group had the most children.

Small group sessions, lasting approximately 15 minutes, were usually led by the same educator (primary caregiver) each week. Having the same educator provided consistency for children and developed their sense of belonging to a group of peers. The small group sessions focused on literacy (speaking, listening, reading, writing, drawing/creating, and viewing activities), and numeracy (space, measurement, number, and data activities). Skills such as listening, following instructions, learning concepts about print (book reading behaviours), drawing, speaking, name-writing, singing, learning mathematical/scientific concepts, cooking skills, craft, and comprehension were incorporated into sessions. Educators often posed questions at children during the small group sessions to elicit responses and prompt discussions about stories or activities.

Morning snack time followed small group sessions. Children's independence was encouraged as they washed hands, found their hats, collected their snacks, and gathered outside at the amphitheater to sit and eat together. Inside and outside free playtime followed snack, and lasted an hour. During the free play hour, children had the freedom to move inside and outside the preschool as they engaged in a wide range of activities of their own choosing. The bilingual children continued to receive bilingually-matched support from an educator during their play. They played activities such as word bingo or picture-word games, or drawing, as they conversed in their first languages and English. Common outside activities included playing in the sandpit with various tools, swinging on swings, balancing on the wooden beams, sensory play at the water trough, painting, bubble blowing, ball-throwing, watering plants, large construction, board games under the verandah, musical instruments, drawing, and cutting with paper, imaginative play with animal figurines on road mats, dolls houses, hula hoops, and an obstacle course. At 11:30am a bell sounded for children to contribute to pack up the play resources. At 11:40am children gathered inside for large group-time songs. The group-time incorporated circle-time games where children were selected to stand up and perform a role in front of the group of peers. Circle-time activities included dancing, singing, finger plays, role-play, reading, and storytelling on the interactive whiteboard. Educators sometimes performed stories for children with puppets.

At the conclusion of the large group-time, children were selected to wash their hands and get their lunch before eating together at the inside tables. Children relaxed on the mat and listened to music as they finished their lunch. At approximately 12:30pm, another short group-time followed in English. Group-time was led by a qualified teacher and supported by

other educators sitting among the children. By 1:00pm, the children would disperse to enjoy another hour and a half of free play activities of their own choosing, either inside or outside. During this time, educators would specifically support pre-programmed adult-directed activities such as cooking or science experiments; or they would engage in spontaneous play activities, with individuals or groups of children (that arose from children's creativity and interests). The children who engaged with adults were often children who approached adults and initiated play with them. Educators, other than the bilingual educators, did not seem to seek out specific children.

At 1:30pm, a bell rang to invite children to eat a snack. At 2:20pm the bell informed children of pack up time. Children were encouraged by educators to contribute to the end of the day clean up. A final large group-time followed at 2:30pm. The group-time usually involved singing and a story/finger plays and/or dancing, facilitated by a lead teacher in English. At 2:45pm, children were dismissed and those who remained to be picked up perused puzzles and books until they were collected by their parents by 3:00pm.

4.2.4 The physical setting and resources

Gumtree Preschool was held in a modern purpose-built building—meaning the building was architecturally designed specifically for providing children's services. The building had a glass-paned front door entrance (**Figure 4-3**) which enabled the outside gum trees and approaching visitors to be viewed from within the front office reception. The preschool room adjoined the reception office, divided by a glass wall and glass-paned door. The main preschool entrance consisted of several tables set up for various learning experiences. Paint easels, a wash up area were located to the east in the wet area (**Figure 4-4**), and an approximately four-meter squared-shaped book shelf provided a border and offered a small library space (inclusive of bilingual books), furnished with a kiddy-sized couch and cushions (**Figure 4-5**).

Figure 4-3: North view of Gumtree Preschool entrance

Figure 4-4: West view of Gumtree Preschool's inside area

Figure 4-5: The library area

Additional tiny tables for art and drawing activities were located around the L-shaped room. A science display was often set up alongside the glass windowed wall which looked out onto the outside play area. To the west of the entrance, a glass-walled director's office connected to an open-plan kitchen. There was another large glass-windowed room to the east (**Figure 4-6**). The room was sometimes used for an integrated *occasional care session*—a program available for parents to drop off their two to three-year-old children for a few hours of respite. Occasional care prepared children for preschool. The occasional care room was

accessible to all children, preschoolers and toddlers. Additional dramatic play, trains/vehicle-type activities, puzzles, books, and table-top activities were set up inside.

Figure 4-6: The dramatic play space

In the far-east of the main preschool room there was a block corner (**Figure 4-7**). Beyond this, a concertina pull-out wall divided the large carpeted area from the main preschool entrance. The concertina wall was closed in the afternoon to separate the 50 or so children from parents arriving near at home time. The carpeted mat area had shelves on the perimeter set up with puzzles and books (again, some were bilingual). There was also an additional small glass-walled/glass door room to the west set up with craft activities. On the east of the mat, a dramatic play area and interactive white board were located.

Figure 4-7: The block corner

A glass exterior window-wall divided the inside play spaces from the outside play areas. The outside playground, grassy hill, amphitheater, and water play area (**Figure 4-8**) could be viewed from inside.

Figure 4-8: The outside water trough

There were several tables set up with games outside for construction and drawing-type activities, animal props, or make-believe play under the verandah. There was a bark chipped space with balancing beams for climbing. A swing set was located at the far south-east corner, next to a large storage shed that was filled with various play equipment. A large sheltered sandpit space, complete with accessible chests of sand-play equipment, was located along the eastern edge (**Figure 4-9**). To the north a muddy digging patch, another wooden platform, and a smaller grassy patch were available.

Figure 4-9: The sandpit

In summary, the preschool was set up so that many free-play activities could be perused by children while they were being supervised by educators. Activities were changed by the educators each week. Details on the educators follow.

4.3 The educators' profiles

Ten educators contributed regularly to this study by both suggesting and demonstrating numerous strategies to support preschoolers who are in the early stages of learning EAL. This provided understandings of the cultural-institutional practices and interpersonal influences within the preschool setting and how they impacted on the focus children's experiences.

The educators' involvement served to answer the second research question:

> What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

The educators' strategies were compiled from questionnaires, interviews, conversations, and observations; they were thematically analysed and are divided into strategies that: support bilingual children's social interactions, respond to children's emotional challenges, and facilitate the seven initial functions of language.

The educators' profiles are introduced in order to establish a clearer understanding of each educator's socio-cultural history. Details of each educator's role at the preschool and their linguistic identities are provided. The details demonstrate that, although some educators only spoke English in adulthood, often their families had bilingual histories such as grandparents who spoke other languages.

Gumtree Preschool's early childhood educators held a variety of qualifications and experiences. They were all women, as is common in the early childhood industry in Australia. Staff included a director, teachers, early childhood workers (ECWs), early childhood workers-bilingual (ECWBs), and a speech and language support educator. The languages spoken by the ten focus educators included English, Mandarin, Vietnamese, French, Tagalog, and Khmer (see **Table 4-1**). Dari/Persian and Indian languages were also spoken by other casually employed educators at the centre.

Table 4-1: The educators

Position/ Qualification	Staffing
1 Director *Bachelor Degree	1.0 permanent
3 Teachers *Bachelor Degree	3 part-time
3 Early Childhood Workers (ECW) *Minimum six-month children's services certificate or equivalent	Permanent (a multilingual in Vietnamese/ Mandarin/ French/ English languages) .5 part-time permanent .5 part-time contract
2 Preschool support educators (1 participated regularly in the study) *Minimum six-month children's services certificate or equivalent	40 hours per week
8 Bilingual Early Childhood Workers (ECWB) (2 participated regularly in the study) Employed by the bilingual support program within DECD for their ability to speak a language other than English. *Minimum six-month children's services certificate or equivalent	Various three-hour positions each week for: Vietnamese, Khmer, Tagalog, Mandarin, Dari, Malayalam and Gujarati (*n*=2) languages

Three educators spoke Vietnamese and one spoke Khmer—the two languages spoken by the study's bilingually-supported focus children. Another educator spoke Tagalog and the other five spoke only English. There was a balance of monolingual and bilingual educators which potentially impacted on the culture of the service and the preschool's value for first languages.

Director (Kate)

Kate, the Gumtree Preschool director was an English-only speaker and was an active member of the *Early Years EAL Northern District Hub Group*. This group formed twice a year to discuss issues for preschoolers who were learning EAL and involved collaborations from: the *northern district early childhood advisor*, the *education department's bilingual manager*, *local Speech Pathologists,* and other *directors* of children's services located in the community. Kate was Australian born and had an interest in the cultural and linguistic diversity of the community. Her grandparents were of German descent, although she did not speak German herself. She offered that she had heard her grandparents speaking German in her childhood.

Qualified Teachers (Jade, Pam, Erl)

Gumtree Preschool employed three qualified teachers who held four-year equivalent bachelor degrees in education. They included Pam, an Australian born English-only speaker of Australian descent, Jade, an Australian born English-only speaker of Scottish descent (who had spoken a Scottish dialect in her childhood but had not retained it), and Erl, a Philippines born Tagalog/English-speaking bilingual.

Early Childhood Workers (Ria, Thu, Sue)

The early childhood workers (ECW) at Gumtree Preschool held a minimum six-month certificate in children's services. Ria was multilingual in Vietnamese, Mandarin, French, and English, and was a part-time ECW; she was born in Vietnam where she had previously been a teacher. Sue was another part-time ECW, who was born in Australia to Australian parents; she was an English-only speaker. Thu was the third part-time ECW; she was born in Vietnam and spoke both Vietnamese and English.

Early Childhood Workers-bilingual (Chandra, Lan)

There were several ECWBs who supported the maintenance of children's first languages by providing interpretations and translations to the families of Gumtree Preschool. They each worked three hours a week as part of the bilingual program offered by the Department for Education and Child Development in South Australia. Chandra identified as a China-born speaker of Cambodian, Mandarin, and English; she worked with Shaun and his Khmer-speaking peers. Lan was a Vietnamese-born speaker of Vietnamese and English; she worked with Patty and her many Vietnamese-speaking peers.

Language and Communication Support Staff (Henrietta)

Gumtree Preschool employed one preschool support educator who provided language and communication support for children identified as having learning needs in specific areas. Henrietta was an Australian born English-only speaker; she supported children who were not developing according to expectations. She worked with Sarah, a Khmer-speaking peer, who was not communicating according to norms in her first language.

Administrative Staff (Thu)

There were other staff members employed at the centre who regularly supported children at Gumtree Preschool. Thu was a Vietnamese-born, Vietnamese/English-speaking bilingual who often interacted with children and parents as they arrived in the reception area. She provided Vietnamese/English interpretation during enquiries and assisted with the collection of consent forms for the study.

Summary of educators who participated closely in the study

Although there were numerous staff members present at Gumtree Preschool, the 10 educators described in this section were the main educators who partook in questionnaires, interviews, and the majority of spontaneous conversations during the study.

4.4 Questionnaire results

There was a broad range of suggestions offered by the 10 various preschool educators who completed the questionnaire task that invited educators to…

> List up to ten strategies you recommend to support bilingual children in the early stages of learning to speak EAL who are new to English and not currently speaking English or speaking very little English.

Eight out of the ten educators reported a minimum of 10 responses. Many responses related to facilitating general linguistic skills, social relationships, and providing emotional support. Functional language supports were not specifically mentioned in the questionnaire responses, however, they were mentioned during interviews and spontaneous conversations, or were demonstrated and observed. The full record of educators' questionnaire responses are provided in Appendix 7.

4.5 Demonstrated and suggested strategies

Thematic analysis identified a range of educators' strategies throughout the study, to support bilingual children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language.

4.5.1 Strategies addressing bilingual preschoolers' social interactions

Building relationships was mentioned by four of the ten educators in their questionnaire responses. In practice, educators arranged interactions for focus preschoolers among

- bilingually-matched peers,
- bilingually-matched educators,
- English-as-lingua franca educators,
- English-as-lingua franca or English-native-speaking peers; and
- Children's own parents.

The various social groupings afforded children with contexts of situation involving different tenor when they spoke, due to the different relationships occurring between children and their interlocutors. The groupings detail interpersonal aspects of the context. The different social arrangements impacted on whether children spoke their first language and their additional language (English), or whether they only spoke English.

The bilingual educators and the director were particularly mindful of supporting '*same background friendships'* (Thu), as well as the need to '*encourage children to play with other*

children' (Ria). There seemed to be two foci: supporting and maintaining children's first languages, and supporting children's English language interactions with peers in extension to their bilingually-matched peers. In the questionnaire task, Chandra (the Khmer-speaking bilingual) recommended, '*Teach the primary language*', whereas Erl (the Tagalog/English bilingual who taught the mainstream English-only group) recommended, '*Inclusion of children in small groups with other children which include native speakers of English*' (Erl, Teacher).

Bilingual program and small group sessions

To support children's first languages, educators implemented the bilingual program and facilitated bilingual small-group sessions. Analysing the data on the bilingual program incorporates the cultural-institutional aspect of SCT impacting on children's language learning, as well as the interpersonal. The director recommended, '*If bilinguals are available using home language - depending on language competence, using English and home language*'. Jade also recommended providing '*greeting/signs/newsletters in other languages*'. Observations demonstrated that educators sometimes greeted children in their home languages (particularly the Vietnamese children).

The bilingual program (see appendix 8), along with the presence of bilingual-matched educators, resulted in specific language groupings for children who belonged to the majority-minority languages—this had an interpersonal impact on children's learning. A Vietnamese and a Khmer bilingual program was available to focus preschoolers, Patty and Shaun, but not to Limi and Van Van, isolated speakers of those languages. Focus children are described in the following chapter. The unavailability of bilingual supports for some children was due to the lack of ECWBs being available for Albanian and Chin languages, but also to Limi and Van Van being the only speakers of those minority languages. The three hours of bilingual support received by Shaun provided a 20% portion of his 15 hours at preschool each week, whereas Patty had access to Vietnamese 100% of the time, due to the presence of Ria, Thu and Lan.

Gumtree Preschool's Vietnamese/English bilingual educator recommended, *'teaching or reading in English and then translation in Vietnamese. Make sure they understand'* (Lan ECWB) and that educators be *'conversational in Vietnamese to build relationship and confidence*'. Confidence is further discussed in the emotional strategies section, and in the children's experiences chapter in the emotional challenges section.

As shown in **Figure 4-10**, the Vietnamese bilingual group was led by Ria in English and Vietnamese. The use of both languages provided focus child, Patty, with the opportunity to

respond in both English and Vietnamese, during bilingual small group sessions, as can be seen in the following transcript.

Figure 4-10: Ria's Vietnamese literacy sessions (27 Jun MOV 1010)

2:58 to 4:35

Ria: *Oh he said ohhh you are too big to hug oh huh (Ria breathes in shock! And gestures big by opening her arms) I cannot (Ria speaks Vietnamese...) v He's too big. You can't fit in my hug v stretch his arms out, but still not enough ok?*

Patty: (moves her lips without saying anything but then says) *too ...big* (as she paused in between the two words)

Ria: *Oh yeah look too big for him to have a big huggle cuddle* (Ria responds to Patty's comment and proceeds to read on) *And I will never fit both of us into my bed* (Ria explains in Vietnamese) *v Look. Look. He sat on the bed on the leg v He sat there and he thought* (Ria explains in Vietnamese) *v He sit there and he thinking. What did he do? v* (she then points to her head in gesturing thought)

Emma: (speaks Vietnamese) *v Sit down v*

Ria: *Then out of the darkness clearer and clearer the sound of the sobbing came near and nearer* (Ria explains in Vietnamese) *v He heard the sound of crying. Listen and hear v sobbing v The sound of crying, crying v Soon the whole wood could hear the voice. How did you get to be small? You are too small to huggle and cuddle. You will only get lost in my giant sized bed* (Ria explains in Vietnamese) *v Where's Eddy? v Where's Eddy? Eddy's behind the ...*(Ria pauses for children to respond)

Emma: *Bear!*

Patty: (Patty's her lips move in parroting '*bear*' after Emma but no words can be heard)

Then later on in the transcript Ria continues…

6:30 to 7:05

Ria: *Oh jump into their bed. The snuggly nuggly bed. Where they huggle and cuddle their own little teddy v He's running home and jumped into his bed v teddy v That's his teddy v teddy v Look. Look. You see. The little tiny teddy v* (laughs) *v Is there anyone still in the forest? v* (looking at pictures and pointing)

Patty: *v No. Nothing there v* (Patty speaks Vietnamese at 7mins-05secs)

Ria: *Yeah v No one there v* (Ria repeats what Patty said)

Patty: *v It's dark already v*

As illustrated in the Vietnamese bilingual excerpt, educators and children code-switched and translanguaged by using Vietnamese and English. Preschoolers were welcome to use either language in their interactions.

In another transcript (see Appendix 9), the same Vietnamese-speaking ECW, Ria, was recorded reading a *Mr Magee* story, using both Vietnamese and English. In the transcript, the English speech is shown un-highlighted. The Vietnamese speech, however, is translated into English, marked with blue writing between the letters 'v' to indicate the content of what was originally said in Vietnamese. The division of blue and black dialogue illustrates the fairly balanced proportion of English and Vietnamese speech during the bilingual session.

As demonstrated, in the transcript of appendix 9, Ria (the polyglot who spoke Patty's Vietnamese language) switched back and forth between English and Vietnamese constantly. Ria interpreted ideas, questioned children, maintained Vietnamese usage and extended children's English. The bilingual program scaffolded children's conceptual understandings.

In **Figure 4-11**, ECWB, Lan (the three hour allocated ECWB), is illustrated spending time with Patty, at free playtime. Lan also encouraged Vietnamese-speaking children to listen to and speak both of their languages.

Figure 4-11: Patty discusses her picture in Vietnamese with Lan (Photo 5 June)

In a conversational interview, Lan explained:

> "*When I speak their language, they feel warm. You can see in their face. When I speak English it's not the same. I speak in English, different, more basic to when I speak in Vietnamese. Because my language I can express my feeling and make them feel warm and they feel happy when they hear their language*". (FN 6 Jun)

Lan's awareness of children's emotions, or feelings, is underlined in her statement.

Chandra (another ECWB who spoke Khmer) also discussed her Khmer-speaking bilingual children's response to her speaking in Khmer.

"*During a long story in English the children lose interest and when I speak in Khmer they become more engaged*." (FN 26 Jun)

Chandra also assisted to record Khmer in writing, as presented in **Figure 4-12**, during a puppet performance of a Cambodian tale.

Figure 4-12: Khmer script

Not all of the bilingual children received matched first language bilingual support at Gumtree Preschool. There were few opportunities for Limi and Van Van to communicate in or maintain their Albanian and Chin languages while at Gumtree Preschool, other than when their parents were present.

Parental Participation

At Gumtree Preschool, various celebrations (such as Family Day) were held to invite parents to attend preschool. Gumtree Preschool celebrated Chinese and Vietnamese New Year to incorporate the cultures of the majority minority of languages other than English (LOTE) speaking children. The preschool also held Pyjama Day celebrations with parents, as illustrated in **Figure 4-13**.

Figure 4-13: Pyjama day with Khmer-speaking families (Photo 3 Jun)

Parents were encouraged to continue speaking their first language with children during visits. Parental attendance provided bilingual children with first language interlocutors and influenced children's context of situation and the tenor concerning their speech. Parental involvement bridged home and preschool and influenced children's interpersonal interactions. The preschool's policies encouraged parental participation and relate to the cultural-institutional aspect of SCT.

Ria spoke about parents' input and the maintenance of children's first languages, as evidenced in the following field note.

> Ria tells me she thinks in the Vietnamese community the first language is strong as the parents support the first language and expect children to talk back in it, whereas the Khmer children hear the Khmer but speak back in English. Their [the Khmer children's] second language [English] is stronger. (FN 1 May)

Lan recommended to '*encourage parents' involvement*' and Thu made a suggestion of families '*...spending time at kindy, to read books, telling stories or participate in the activities*'. She also advised, '*Working with parents – respect and support home language, make sure parents understand the importance of the home language*'. Other suggestions by Erl included to *'Talk to parents and involve parents in the development of their child's learning*' and Chandra (ECWB) advised to '*Support parents' connection with children, arrange extra support from parents (invite)*' and to '*Sometimes ask the parent to be involved*'.

Another innovative strategy implemented by Gumtree Preschool to support the continuation of home language use was facilitated by offering bilingual books for loan.

Loaning-out Bilingual Books

Bilingual books were purchased in Albanian, Vietnamese, Khmer, and other languages, by the preschool director, via Global Language Books—a website for online purchases

(www.globallanguage.com.au). Bilingual cultural resources are associated with the cultural-institutional lens of focus in the study as the preschool curriculum and practices promote the use of resources in the home languages of children. Sourcing Chin books, in the language of focus child, Van Van, was problematic.

Lan, the ECWB, recommended '*Supporting children to use their first language: provide bilingual books - Read stories in their 1st language*'. This practice of offering bilingual books, to families for loan, prompted parents to read to their children in their first languages while at home and at preschool. Images of such books are presented in **Figure 4-14**, **Figure 4-15**; and **Figure 5-27** in the next chapter). The strategy of inviting parents to read to children in first languages again influenced the field and tenor aspects of children's context of situation, and related to the interpersonal and cultural-institutional lens of analysis regarding SCT. Through reading together, children encountered interactions with someone familiar whom they could converse with in their first languages.

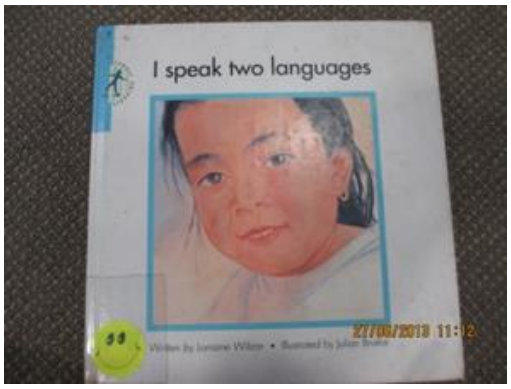


Figure 4-14: A Gumtree Preschool book (Wilson 1995) which valued bilingualism (Photo 27 Jun)

Figure 4-15: A mother reads a bilingual book in Albanian to her child (Photo 22 May)

On one occasion, a mother was observed spending time at the preschool, reading her son, Limi a book in Albanian. On this occasion, Limi said, the equivalent of, a "*I like big dog*" a, in Albanian—Limi's mother assisted to translate his Albanian utterance into English for the study. Limi also said, a "*We go"a* , in Albanian when reading the '*We're Going on a Bear Hunt*' bilingual text. The act of Limi's mother reading to Limi in Albanian at preschool

demonstrated value for Limi's first language use, and supported Limi's first language maintenance. Opportunities that welcomed Albanian were beneficial, as Limi did not encounter bilingually-matched educators or peers at Gumtree Preschool.

Supporting peer interactions in English

In the questionnaire, Erl (the Tagalog/English-speaking teacher) suggested, '*Inclusion in small groups with other children which include native speaker of English*'. Children's interactions with native speakers impacted on the types of tenor children had in their context of situation and hence influenced children's choice of language. The peer interactions and relationships relate to the interpersonal lens of focus in SCT. Erl delivered the mainstream English literacy group to a mix of English-only speakers and bilingual children—those without matched bilingual educators at the preschool. The designated small groups appeared to consolidate the focus children's friendships as it was noted that members of small group sessions commonly played together at free playtimes. **Figure 4-16** highlights the focus children (in **bold** text), and identifies their regular peers from their small group sessions.

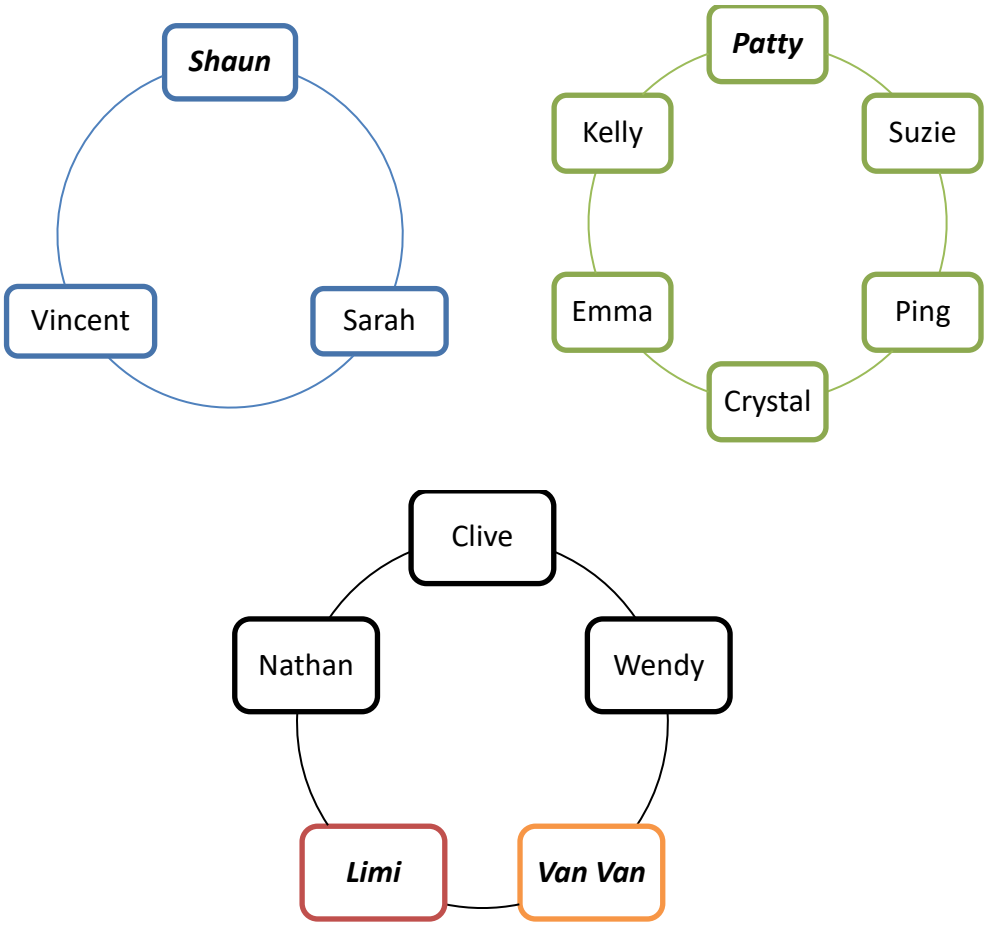


Figure 4-16: Small groups consisting of focus children's regular peers

In general, other than the educators' organisation of the small group sessions, children were not intentionally grouped at other times. Nor were children partnered in strategic ways by

educators to deliberately establish friendships. Children selected their own friends or were invited by peers naturally. During free playtime, bilingually-matched children did, however, spend time with their bilingually-matched educators.

Educators initiating interactions with bilingual preschoolers themselves

During the study, as a result of observations and reflections, it was noted that the English-only speaking educators seemed not to intentionally initiate interactions with the bilingually-supported focus preschoolers during free playtimes. The few initiations may have been due to the effects of researcher presence, or may have resulted from the educators' knowledge that a bilingually-matched educator was already responsible for working with the bilingual focus children. Exceptions occurred, however, during times when the focus children were distressed. When children cried, English-speaking educators took the role of consoling children. Generally, focus children tended to interact with educators when they themselves initiated the play, often during circumstances when the children were interested in the activities that the educators provided. Activities included iPads, cooking, or engaging with science displays involving worms or spiders. Preschool playtimes were generally set up to naturally facilitate various social interactions among adults and children, without intentional adult intervention.

Facilitating bilingual children's relationships with younger less experienced speakers of English

Due to the integrated occasional care service for younger children, a number of younger, less knowledgeable other (LKO) English speakers were present for bilingual preschoolers to interact with. On one occasion, Limi (the focus child newly transitioning to preschool) was observed playing alongside a younger toddler who had opened the cupboard doors in the kitchen dramatic play area. Limi, appearing frustrated by the opening of the doors, assertively commanded, "*No!*", to the smaller child to ensure that the cupboards remained closed. Limi's frustration and position of power (perhaps due to age or sized) over the toddler appeared to motivate Limi to regulate the younger child's actions assertively. This relates to the tenor aspect of the context of situation and the interpersonal aspect of SCT.

In addition to the occasional care service, the *preschool support program* (another cultural-institutional impact on children's development) also provided support to children who were diagnosed by speech pathologists as having language and communication disorders or delays. Focus children were welcome to participate in preschool support activities with their peers—the peers who were eligible for preschool support. Shaun (the Khmer-speaking focus preschooler), occasionally participated in focused language sessions with Sarah (his Khmer-speaking peer), who received support from Henrietta (the preschool support educator). Sarah

was a less knowledgeable speaker of English than Shauna and she was referred to receive preschool support for a speech delay in her first language. Further detail is provided in the proceeding chapters in the sections on Shaun's social interactions.

The facilitation of social interactions for focus preschoolers with LKOs appeared to scaffold children in emotional ways to assist children to produce English.

4.5.2 Strategies addressing bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges

Gumtree Preschool's educators provided children with deliberate emotional support in order to: develop relationships and trust; encourage children to have the confidence to communicate; assist children to adjust to the routine; and transition children smoothly to preschool.

Developing relationships and trust

The first two recommendations offered in the director's questionnaire response highlighted the educator's role in emotionally supporting young bilingual children. Kate's advice was to:

> • Help them to settle, physical reassurance - showing them where to go, support and activities, routines - SMILES
>
> • Build relationship - reassurance, confidence, positives, praise, smiles

Jade also commented, '*Show that you enjoy being with the child. Same in any language*', and highlighted the universality of emotional communication through facial gestures such as smiling. Ria further recommended that educators "w*ork on the relationships by building trust and providing a secure base*" as well as be '*conversational in Vietnamese to build relationship and confidence*'. Erl also offered in a discussion:

> "*I believe let them feel like I am very close to them. That means that that relationship with the child is my most priority. Yeah because if you have good relationship with a child, they trust you and they talk to you and they're open to you. I always talk to them and make fun with them and if they don't talk I keep talking to them*". (Audio 26 June)

Erl demonstrated her own a personal style of using humour regularly with children in order to entertain them and encourage them to laugh and smile, and correct Erl's deliberate English errors. Erl displayed a joyful attitude and would, for example, deliberately say the wrong word in order to make children giggle and correct her in a jovial way. Erl gave the example of her asking a child, "*Did you have breakfast this morning? I ate toast. Did you eat dog? No!*", to make them laugh and correct her. "*I make games sometimes*," she offered. Humour served to encourage children to be more at ease with Erl and assisted in breaking down emotional and communicative barriers. Lan furthermore suggested that educators be '*happy, friendly with children and build their confidence by [made] them trust you*'. Such

interpersonal relationships between educators and children were formed to support the bilingual children who were learning English.

During one observation, Thu demonstrated her actions of consoling a bilingual child through touch—the child was evidently distressed. Thu comforted the child, as described in the following field note, by holding and massaging him.

> Vincent (Shaun's regular Khmer-speaking peer) runs to teacher and cries. Thu (Vietnamese not Khmer speaker) sits Vincent on her lap and rubs circles on his back. She that mentions he is not used to the full day and speaks a little English. (FN 30 Jan)

During the study, Chandra suggested that '*Children need a primary caregiver to settle down*'. The '*circle of security'* program (Dolby 2007) was offered by Gumtree Preschool in aim to: improve relationships; boost learners' socio-emotional wellbeing; encourage a sense of belonging; and enhance emotional stability for preschoolers as they adjusted to the new EAL context. It was a cultural-institutional practice at Gumtree preschool. The preschool ran workshops on the circle of security to educate staff from other preschool sites. The circle of security program aims to support children as they venture out to explore the world independently, and then return to their caregiver. **Figure 4-17** demonstrates Limi—the youngest focus child who was newly enrolled at the preschool—seeking support to find his hat while developing independence from his mother's care. The circle of security program focuses on children's attachments with parents, but is also considered relevant for forming relationships between children and educators.

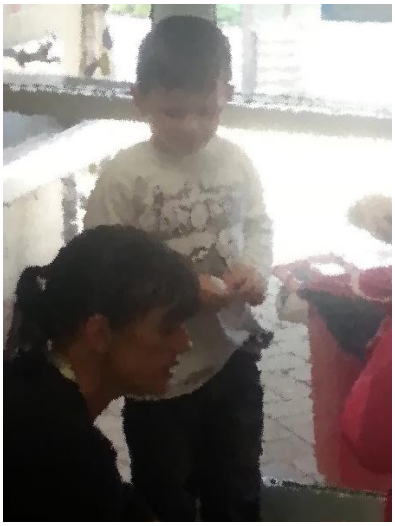


Figure 4-17: Limi returns to an educator for assistance (Photo 14 Mar)

The graphic of the circle of security program is provided in **Figure 4-18**

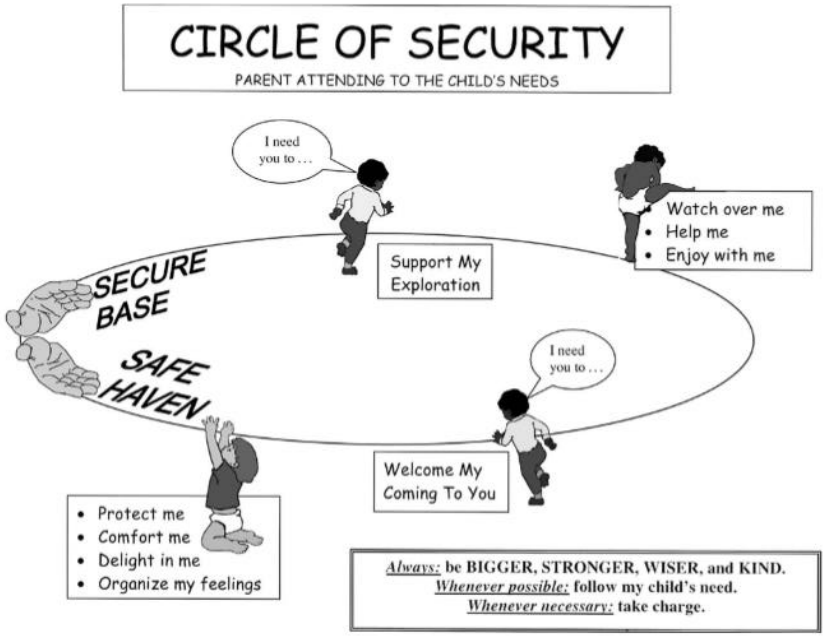


Figure 1 Circle of Security: Secure Base and Haven of Safety (© Cooper, Hoffman, Marvin, & Powell, 2000)

Figure 4-18: Circle of security (Marvin, Cooper, Hoffman & Powell 2002, p. 110)

*Copyright permission was sought for use of the original figure

The circle of security identifies the caregivers' role to 'protect', 'comfort' and 'delight' in the child, as well as to assist a child to 'organize [their] feelings'. Caregivers provide a 'secure base' and 'safe haven' for children and 'support [their] exploration' (Marvin, Cooper, Hoffman & Powell 2002, p. 110). This can develop confidence to explore.

Supporting children's confidence and willingness to communicate

The director and the Vietnamese bilingual educators mentioned building children's confidence in their questionnaire responses. To support bilingual children's confidence and willingness to communicate (WTC), Erl suggested that educators '*praise these children, if any response, no matter how minimal, to encourage them to persist*'—an action linked to the interpersonal lens of focus. The director also mentioned praising children's efforts and encouraging children to "*have a go*" at speaking. Pam also recommended providing '*positive feedback to child'*; and Henrietta, the language and communication preschool support educator, recommended, '*encourage efforts of child to increase self-esteem*'. Observations of Pam, noted in the following field, demonstrated that she used the technique of pausing at the end of phrases during group-time, to encourage children to respond and complete her sentences in unison. This act reduced children's pressures of performing in front of a group in isolation.

> Pam paused for children to end the story title of,
> "*Wombat*... (she pauses)..? "*stew!*" (the children chant).
> "*Rightio in they* … (she pauses again) ..? "*go!*" (the children chant).
> She later says, "*Tipped them into a* … (pauses) ..? *billy can!*" (the children complete). (FN 2 May)

Jade, in her questionnaire suggested, '*Communication: be patient allow time for the child to process what is happening, what you are asking them to do*' and Henrietta recommended, '*Try really hard to understand - spend time with the child when trying to understand what the child is saying*'. Henrietta again, mentioned, '*Be patient*', as children transition to speaking EAL

Supporting children to adjust to the routine and to transition to preschool

Chandra, Shaun's bilingual support (ECWB), highlighted that, '*transition is most important*'. To support transitions, Kate recommended setting up a visual schedule of the preschool day. An example of the schedule is provided in **Figure 4-19**, illustrating a cultural-institutional impact on children's experiences.

> "*What I'd like to set up is a visual time board so they know the routine and that we break that down for them*", Kate says in response to a discussion about a bilingual child, Vincent, crying for his mum. (FN 24 Feb)

The visual routine promoted learning of formulas and routine language such as mat-time, play-time, snack-time, pack-away time, and home-time. Erl responded, 'Use the daily routines of the program to acquire vocabulary and word patterns'.

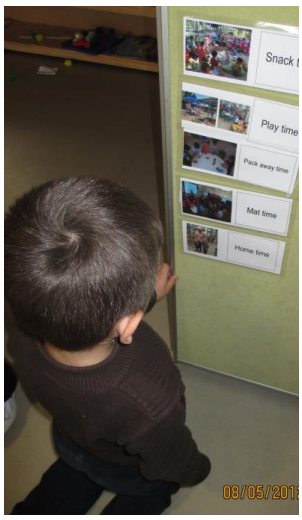


Figure 4-19: Limi refers to Gumtree Preschool's visual schedule (Photo 8 May).

Parents were also welcome to stay with children, particularly during their induction to preschool, to help them settle. Kate also arranged for some children to attend reduced preschool sessions over two half-day visits each week. The shortened sessions ended at lunch-time and enabled children to build up their resilience to comfortably separate from their parents. Immersing children in full-time preschool too early was considered by the

director to be an unnecessary distress upon children. Kate's half-day technique encouraged children to enjoy a shortened positive experience away from their family, rather than a long and potentially traumatic experience lasting six whole hours.

Gumtree Preschool's occasional care service also supported bilingual children's transition to full-time preschool. *Occasional care* involved families dropping off their children, for a few hours at a time, to experience, familiarise with and develop independence from primary caregivers; this was available to children prior to preschool age. A *Playgroup* service was also available at Gumtree Preschool on Fridays to offer a progressive induction to preschool. Playgroup catered for children aged 0-5 years and offered two-hours of play (while children were accompanied by a family member). *Early-entry* was yet another service provided by Gumtree Preschool to gradually induct children with additional needs into preschool (particularly children who were new to English). *Pre-entry*, was also available to all children pending the availability of places, to assist transition prior to commencing preschool enrolment. The different services offered a cultural-institutional influence.

In summary, Gumtree Preschool's educators were well aware of the need to support bilingual preschoolers emotionally and socially. This awareness was evident in educators' numerous recommendations in questionnaires, interviews and conversations, and in observations of their practices. As for their support for children's functional language use, educators tended to comment on strategies to support language in general, rather than on specific strategies for scaffolding various forms of functional language use other than questioning children and encouraging singing.

4.5.3 Strategies addressing bilingual preschoolers' functional language use

Few strategies addressing functional language use were suggested in the questionnaires or during verbal recommendations. However, observations revealed that Gumtree Preschool's educators implemented several strategies to encourage various functions of children's language. In many situations, it was noticed that the functional utterances children expressed resulted from their responses to the input provided by educators. Noting children's personal responses, their interpersonal interactions among children and their educators, and the cultural-institutional practices at Gumtree Preschool led to the discovery that the educators often elicited the informative function when questioning children. Other functions such as the *instrumental* function (i.e. the 'I want…' function), *regulatory* (for example, '*come*'and '*look*'), *personal* (for example, 'I like spot') and *interactional* (for example, 'my turn') utterances were often initiated by children on their own accord. Functional language use depended on with whom children spoke and the tenor present in their context of situation. As

shown in a previous example of Limi commanding, "*No!*", it was noted that focus children, such as Patty, often commanded their age-mates to do things such as "*stop that*" and requested assistance from adults.

On some occasions, educators were observed intentionally eliciting *regulatory* phrases from children. Regulatory phrases were encouraged when educators deliberately refused to respond to children's non-verbal gestures—gestures that indicated they wanted something. On one encounter, Jade demonstrated '*upping the ante*'—a strategy mentioned by Tabors (2008, p. 94) to encourage children's productive language by increasing the expectation that children respond by talking. Limi had placed his shoe before Jade who, instead of tying it up immediately, asked Limi, "*What do you want me to do?*" Jade's insistence that Limi speak, and her patient act of waiting for his command, resulted in Limi eventually requesting, "*circle.*" to instruct Jade to make a loop and tie his shoelace. Educators' questions often elicited information or commands from children.

Questioning Children

Gumtree Preschool's educators asked a variety of questions such as those offered by Hay and Fielding-Barnsley (2012, p. 26) in their adaptation of Blank, Rose and Berlin's (1978a, 1978b) four levels of questioning (illustrated in **Table 2-1** in the literature review). Lan offered, "*I usually ask them a lot of questions.*" The different levels of questioning asked of children ranged from basic or closed questions (seeking concrete information such as the names of objects) to complex questions (requiring abstract information while seeking predictions and explanations).

In this study, it was noted that different levels of questioning encouraged bilingual preschoolers' productive language. Examples of the types of questions asked by educators included receptive only non-verbal response questions, intonation-type questions, forced-choice questions, yes/no questions, one-word response questions, detailed information response questions, one-word inferential or emotional feeling questions, explanation questions, and prediction questions.

Receptive only non-verbal response questions

The receptive or non-verbal response questions asked by educators were suited to bilingual children who were not yet productive in speaking English. These questions elicited a response such as pointing to something rather than speaking.

Henrietta:	"*Where's your hair?*"
Henrietta:	"*Where are your toes?*"

Intonation type questions

One of the easier types of questions asked of children involved intonation and pausing to enable a child to respond and fill in the word for the incomplete phrase. Starter sounds sometimes accompanied the pause to scaffold children.

Ria:	"*Where's Eddy? Behind the …?*" (boy)
Ria:	"*A front what….?*" (cover)

Forced-choice questions

Forced-choice questioning—a questioning style that provided options of vocabulary for children for their reply—was a common strategy mentioned by Kate, the director. Forced-choice questions were used by multiple educators to elicit productive EAL responses from children. When an educator asked, "Is he happy, or sad, or cross?", the child was prompted to select and repeat the word that they recognised and desired. Through forced-choice questioning, educators cued bilingual language learners and reduced the cognitive load required for word retrieval. Providing the vocabulary within the question scaffolded children's willingness and capability to respond.

Henrietta:	"*Is it a **man** or a **lady**?*"
Henrietta:	"*Has this mouse got a **long** or **short** tail?*"
Ria:	"*Is it an **apple** or a **pear**?*"

Yes/No questions

*Yes/No question*s, again, relied on children's receptive understanding of vocabulary without imposing the expectation of a lengthy productive response. Children simply agreed, "yes", or disagreed, "no", as shown below. Yes/No questions elicited a variety of functional responses: informative, personal, instrumental, and regulatory.

Lan:	"*Is that [Harry]'s writing?*"
Erl:	"*Is this a house?*"
Pam:	"*Do cats usually swim in water?*"

One-word-response questions (labelling or quantifying)

One word response questions required children to name of an item, perhaps a noun or verb in their response. Children, therefore, had to retrieve their own vocabulary and demonstrate some knowledge of concepts and classification. Such questions did not require children to form sentences or attend to much grammar.

Erl:	"*What is it called?*" (leaf)
Jade:	"*What are they?*"
Lan:	"*Who is it?*"
Kate:	"*What sound does a cat make?*"

Questions that required a verb in the response were more challenging as children had to apply their knowledge of tenses and suffixes '-ing' or '-ed'.

Henrietta: "*What's he doing?*"

Detailed information response questions

Some types of questions invited children to provide detailed responses, although some children used telegraphic speech in their answers.

Ria: "*Where's Mr. Magee?*" (tree, or in the tree/up the tree)

One word inferential or emotional feeling questions

Inferential or emotional feeling questions required more abstract vocabulary and could be more cognitively challenging, although children could, once again, answer with a single word or telegraphic speech.

Lan: "*How does it feel?*"
Lan: "*How do you think they felt?*"

Explanation questions

Explanation questions encouraged sentences to be produced. They were often a complex type of questions as children had to tend to grammar in order to complex concepts in their response.

Chandra: "*Why can't she keep it?*"
(asked when referring to the frog in the bag in the Spot story)
Chandra: "*Why does he take the frog back?*"

Prediction questions

Prediction questions were one of the more challenging levels of questioning asked by educators at Gumtree Preschool. Responses required abstract processing and expression of potentially grammatically challenging answers.

Chandra: "*What happen if she creeps loudly?*"
Chandra: "*What can he do?*"

In addition to the educators' use of strategies to direct various questions to children, educators also modelled questions to children when they spoke to their colleagues.

Staged modelling of conversations and questioning among educators

Gumtree Preschool's educators often deliberately staged questions to one another. They modelled how to formulate a question, in front of audiences of children, for example:

Pam (Teacher): (Talks about worms with the children at group-time)

Thu (ECW):	(Interjects and asks Pam in front of the children…) **"*If they can't see, how do they find each other?*"**
Pam (Teacher):	"*They use vibrations.*"

MOV 612

Pam (Teacher):	(Sits on the mat with children and raises her hand to speak with Teacher Jade and ask a question)
Jade (Teacher):	"*Yes Pan*"
Pam:	**"*Do we have guns at kindy?*"**
Jade:	"*Oh I don't think we have them.*"
Pam:	"*No, I don't think so either.*"

MOV 7220

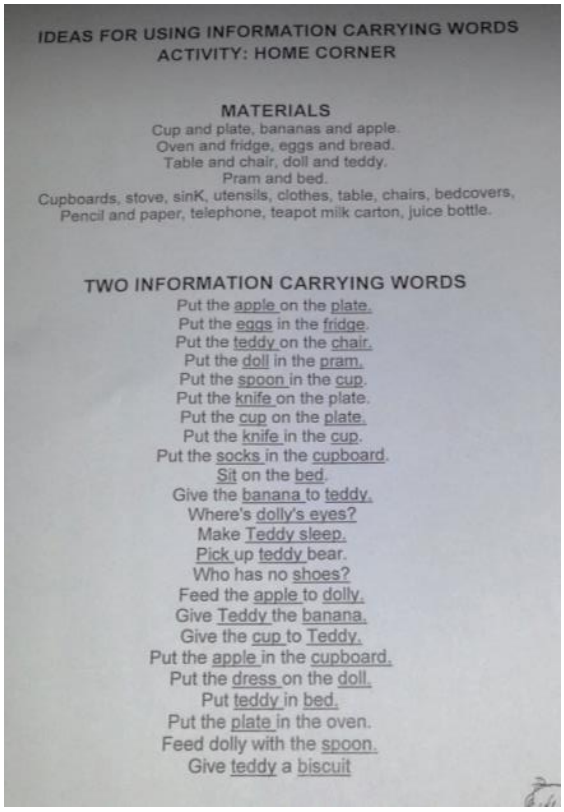
Whilst the educators asked children many questions, they did not tend to invite children to ask their own.

Minimal explicit teaching of questioning

Gumtree Preschool's educators were not observed explicitly prompting children to formulate and ask their own questions (Farndale et al. 2016). The educators did not suggest encouraging children's questioning in the questionnaire responses, nor during verbal contributions. Educators commonly retrieved informative from children. The educator's act of posing questions towards children appeared to be a commonly implemented cultural practice assumed by various teachers at Gumtree Preschool. The cultural-institutional practice of questioning children is also perhaps common for many educators throughout the world. Whereas, eliciting questions from children appeared to be a less common practice in Gumtree Preschool's culture.

Teaching information carrying words

As part of Henrietta's role as a language and communication support educator, she focused on teaching children to identify '*information carrying words*', such as nouns and verbs. The document presented in **Figure 4-20**, provided by Henrietta and originating from Teusner and Donegan (2000), demonstrates samples of information carrying words. This was a cultural-institutional practice that Henrietta was trained in and thus implemented at Gumtree Preschool.



IDEAS FOR USING INFORMATION CARRYING WORDS
ACTIVITY: HOME CORNER

MATERIALS

Cup and plate, bananas and apple.
Oven and fridge, eggs and bread.
Table and chair, doll and teddy.
Pram and bed.
Cupboards, stove, sinK, utensils, clothes, table, chairs, bedcovers,
Pencil and paper, telephone, teapot milk carton, juice bottle.

TWO INFORMATION CARRYING WORDS

Put the apple on the plate.
Put the eggs in the fridge.
Put the teddy on the chair.
Put the doll in the pram.
Put the spoon in the cup.
Put the knife on the plate.
Put the cup on the plate.
Put the knife in the cup.
Put the socks in the cupboard.
Sit on the bed.
Give the banana to teddy.
Where's dolly's eyes?
Make Teddy sleep.
Pick up teddy bear.
Who has no shoes?
Feed the apple to dolly.
Give Teddy the banana.
Give the cup to Teddy.
Put the apple in the cupboard.
Put the dress on the doll.
Put teddy in bed.
Put the plate in the oven.
Feed dolly with the spoon.
Give teddy a biscuit

Figure 4-20: Information carrying words (Photo 6 Mar)

To elicit information carrying words from children, questions were often asked by educators. Sometimes questions were posed towards groups of children and they resulted in chanted responses. At other times, questions were directed at specific children, particularly during small group-time and one-to-one social interactions. Examples of Henrietta's elicitation of information carrying words are provided in the children's experiences chapter in the section on Shaun's social interactions.

In addition to asking children questions at group-times to prompt informative productive speech, educators also tended to encourage choral singing with children.

Encouraging Singing

Singing together was another cultural-institutional practice regularly facilitated by educators at Gumtree Preschool. Six out of the ten educators who completed questionnaires mentioned songs in their responses. Singing was considered to belong to the imaginative function of language (due to it often being associated with imagery or role-play actions). In reflection it was thought that singing could have also been regarded as an interactive function, due to the expectation that a child chant with the social group, or as an independent function in its own right. Singing rehearsed language appeared to sometimes have been prompted by the musical din, 'the song stuck in my head phenomenon', during times when children spontaneously started singing during play.

Singing was commonly recommended and implemented by educators: Erl, Jade, Lan, Pam, Thu, Henrietta, and Chandra, to support children in the early stages of learning to speak EAL. Singing, dancing, finger-plays, and songs in sign language, were performed with children throughout each day. Children's imaginative language was also supported by educators' facilitation of dramatic play.

Providing dramatic play

Role-play activities and puppetry was commonly programmed for by educators who set up dramatic play spaces and supplied props and costumes (e.g. trains, kitchen materials, fire fighter equipment etc.). This cultural-institutional practice encouraged the imaginative function of language. Dramatic play, such as illustrated in **Figure 4-21**, prompted children to assume imaginary roles and interact with others. Children hence formed interpersonal relationships which enhanced their language learning. On a few occasions, educators involved themselves in dramatic play collaborations with children, although this was not evidenced often.

Figure 4-21: Dramatic play with puppets (Photo 23 May)

Although educators spoke little of the strategies they recommended to support children's various functions of language—*instrumental*, *regulatory*, *personal*, *interactional*, *heuristic*, *imaginative*, and *informative*—it was evident in observations that their practices encouraged certain functions of language more often than others.

4.6 Summary of the preschool's context and educators' strategies

This findings chapter on Gumtree Preschool's context and educators' strategies has described the wider sociocultural context of the study as well as cultural-institutional and interpersonal aspects of focus to provide a foundation for detailing and understanding the bilingual preschoolers' experiences in the following chapter. This first findings chapter has answered the second research question regarding the educators' strategies and has presented data from

questionnaires, interviews, conversations, and observations involving educators. The presented data has identified a variety of strategies to support bilingual children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. These strategies, both suggested and implemented, influence the context of situation surrounding children's language use. Social-strategies involved arranging different interlocutors for children and different events. Emotional-strategies included stabilising children's emotional circumstances by comforting preschoolers who experience separation challenges and reducing threats (Wood, Bruner & Ross 1974, p. 98), as well as by building trust and relationships in order to encourage shy or anxious children to speak. Strategies addressing functional language use often included questioning children, but not eliciting questions from children. The culture of Gumtree Preschool's community, with regards to their expectation that all children will respond and use of forced choice questioning, intentionally prompted children's productive language skills in EAL.

In the following chapter, the profiles and experiences of Patty, Shaun, Limi, and Van Van are presented to illustrate how they responded to the sociocultural context facilitated by Gumtree Preschool's educators.

5. The Children's Experiences

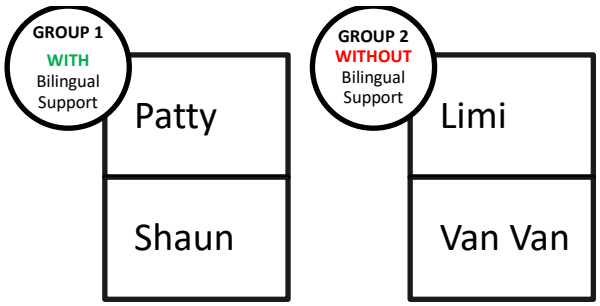
5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter on Gumtree Preschool's context and the educators' strategies contributed information to achieve a more thorough understanding of the cultural-institutional and interpersonal context that influenced the four focus bilingual preschoolers' experiences while learning EAL. This second findings chapter presents more personal and individualised data as well in order to answer the primary question of this study which asked:

> What social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language experiences do bilingual preschoolers' encounter as they learn to speak EAL?

The four focus children (a girl and three boys) can be categorised into two groups:

> Group 1: Children with bilingually-matched first language support—Patty and Shaun
>
> Group 2:- Children without bilingual support in their first language—Van Van and Limi



Patty and Shaun are presented first. These two children encountered bilingual support for their first languages, Vietnamese and Khmer, in the form of allocated educators, peers and bilingual small group sessions. Limi and Van Van are presented second. Limi and Van Van did not encounter any Albanian or Chin (Burmese) speaking educators or peers with whom they could use their first language at Gumtree Preschool. An extensive amount of data was collected during the six-month data collection period. **Table 5-1** provides the quantified data trail for investigating each child's experiences.

Table 5-1: Data overview for each focus child

PATTY 17 Days	**SHAUN 20 Days**
239 photographs **22** audio files (4 hours, 9 mins) **108** movie-mode files (2 hours, 17 mins) **4149** words of field notes **1** formal parent interview, several informal Interviews/conversations with educators	**215** photographs **32** audio files (3 hours, 10 mins) **92** movie-mode files (5 hours, 45min) **6993** words of field notes **1** formal parent interview, several informal Interviews/conversations with educators
LIMI 19 days	**VAN VAN 19 days**
167 photographs **11** audio files (2 hours, 44 min) **83** movie-mode files (1 hour, 45 mins) **5190** words of field notes **1** formal parent interview, several informal Interviews/conversations with educators	**91** photographs **5** audio files (1 hour, 34 mins) **80** movie-mode files (1 hour, 46mins) **2090** words of field notes **1** formal parent interview Interviews/conversations with educators

In this chapter, the sections for each of the four children's experiences are divided into sub-sections. The sub-sections provide each focus child's general profile, social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. A focus on the tenor aspect of children's context of situation (Halliday 2004) is incorporated into the social interactions findings, to highlight the children's interpersonal metafunction of language. Focus on the tenor drew attention to the relationships between focus children and the people with whom they interacted regularly. The emotional challenges section also highlights the tenor and the field aspects of the context of situation surrounding bilingual children's speech. Attention to the tenor, while describing children's emotional challenges, drew attention to how children appeared to feel and act, or speak, with different interlocutors, in association with aspects: power, age, status, and roles. Attention to the field, in relation to children's emotional situation, drew attention to what was happening contextually and circumstantially to influence the topic or subject of children's speech. Combining attention to tenor, field, and emotions, drew attention to how affective experiences relate to children's productive speech. An analysis of Halliday's (2004) seven initial language functions is reported for each child to illuminate the inter-relatedness between the children's social interactions, and emotional challenges, in connection with the functions of language children produced.

5.2 The focus children's profiles

Understanding the sociocultural, linguistic, and personal-historical contexts of each focus child was considered a necessary component of this research in order to thoroughly understand the four children's social, emotional, and functional language experiences at preschool. Details of their ages, spoken languages, and prior experience at preschool, are provided in **Table 5-2**.

Table 5-2: Focus child participants' profiles

Focus children	Age range during the study	Languages spoken/learned	Terms of preschool enrolment during the study *early entry is half days
Patty:	aged 4-5	Vietnamese/English	Final two full-time terms
Shaun:	aged 4	Khmer/English	First and second full time term (after early-entry)
Van Van:	aged 4 -5	Burmese(Chin)/English	New enrolment but in his final two full-time terms
Limi:	aged 3-4	Albanian/English	First early-entry term then first full-time term

*The mothers of each of the four children participated in interviews and conversations throughout the study.

The presentations of children's profiles in the following sections also introduce the context of culture, within systemic functional linguistics, surrounding bilingual children's speech. The children's profiles detail each child's family members, cultural and ethnic identity, home life, and individual stage of English as additional language (EAL) learning. Various characteristics of the children's communication at the commencement of the study are noted.

5.3 Patty's experiences

5.3.1 Patty's profile (Vietnamese/English bilingual)

Figure 5-1: Patty, the four-year-old Vietnamese/English bilingual preschooler

Background: Patty (shown in **Figure 5-1**) was four and a half years old at the commencement of this study. She had recently returned from a month-long holiday in Vietnam, where she had been visiting her overseas family members with her Mother. She was born in Australia and had spent the majority of her childhood residing nearby the preschool where many Vietnamese-speaking families lived locally. She lived with her mother (who had been in Australia since 1993), her maternal uncle, and an infant sister. Patty also had a Vietnamese-speaking male carer who provided transportation to get to and from preschool while her mother stayed at home with Patty's infant sibling during the day.

During a phone interview, Patty's mother revealed that Patty had attended childcare for three months prior to preschool, when she was three years of age. Patty was, however, for the most part, a sequential bilingual who had mostly learned to speak English after having first acquired Vietnamese. Vietnamese was the main language Patty used to communicate daily, at home, in her community, and often at preschool. Patty had attended pre-entry sessions—a single half-day visit each week in the lead up to preschool—in addition to two prior full terms of preschool. She had attended preschool two and a half days a week in terms three and four in 2012, prior to the commencement of this study in 2013.

The 2011 census reported that there were 1256 speakers of Vietnamese living in the preschool suburb, and that 4778 lived within the community surrounding the preschool (id. the population experts 2017c*). Patty lived in a community hosting many Vietnamese speakers. At preschool, Patty engaged with eight regular Vietnamese-speaking peers. There were often three Vietnamese-speaking educators available for her to communicate with in her first language throughout the preschool day. On the last day of data collection, Patty graduated from preschool. She had reached five years of age.

*To respect the anonymity of the site, the reference which names the community is not provided

Stage of English language learning: Patty was the first child to be nominated by the director and other educators (including Vietnamese-speaking staff) to participate in the study. She had presented as a child who was still in the early stages of learning to speak EAL. She was considered hesitant and not particularly productive in speaking English—despite having attended the preschool for a total of nine months prior to the study. Patty was considered by bilingual educators to be progressing well in her spoken Vietnamese. Her mother was not concerned about her Vietnamese usage, but referred to Patty as shy in speaking English. The presence of a language or communication disorder was thus ruled out; rather, Patty seemed to be experiencing an extended silent period in EAL.

Patty was observed during free play, during Vietnamese small groups, regular large groups, and various routines of the day. She always had Vietnamese-speaking staff available with whom to speak. In the first term of data collection, Patty was observed parroting, echoing, copying or repeating English words after they were initially spoken by other children or educators, for example, "*I like the pink one*" (7 Mar), "*a flower*" (7 Mar), "*Wrist*" (7 Mar), "*Purple*" (7 Mar), "*Beautiful*" (14 Mar), "*I got you!*" (28 Mar), and "*catch a me!*" (4Apr). In the early days of data collection, Patty rarely expressed her own thoughts in EAL; however, with the assistance of singing, she produced some formulaic speech and vocabulary. Patty appeared to enjoy singing songs such as "*Happy Birthday*" (20 Mar), "*Open shut them*" (28 Mar), "*Hot cross buns*" (27 Mar), and "*Twinkle little star*" (3 Apr). Her mother also mentioned that she sang some English songs at home. When encoding English in the earlier months, Patty sometimes used one or two word utterances in telegraphic speech. An example is when she quietly replied, "*Orange*" (28 Mar), to communicate, 'It's an orange'. On some rare occasions, during the third month, Patty demonstrated formulaic speech by asking the question, "*Where's my shoes?*" (11 Apr). Towards the end of the study, Patty had progressed to initiating increasing amounts of invented English utterances. She could give directions such as, "*Put it like that beautiful*" (4 Jul), while instructing an educator to tie up her hair, as well as commanding, "*Look at me, I did it!*" (23 May).

Patty accumulated a variety of productive language skills to express herself in longer sentences over time. She eventually became capable of encoding regulatory phrases such as "*Stop! Hey that's mine*", although she still reverted back to using basic telegraphic speech, when necessary, such as when instructing, "*Look Suzie*!" to mean, 'Look at Suzie', when directing an educator's attention to her peer's actions. Patty, like many EAL learners, often omitted prepositions or other grammatical aspects of speech when she spoke. At the conclusion of the study, Patty had progressed to achieve the 'productive speech' stage of speaking EAL (Tabors 2008).

Context of Culture: Vietnamese/Australian was Patty's ethnicity. Understanding Patty's actions requires an understanding of her culture; this takes into account her relationship with Vietnam and the Vietnamese language. **Vietnam** is located in South-East Asia, bordered by South China; Cambodia and Laos are on the West. Vietnamese, the official language, is a monosyllabic, non-reflective, and tonal language. In the text '*Child-rearing backgrounds of Immigrant Families in Australia*', written with the support of numerous bilingual educators who support children in Australia, the Vietnamese culture is reported to be influenced by Confucian-type values and a communist culture whereby older members of society are highly respected and harmony and cohesion are valued (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 5). A Vietnamese person 'may avoid saying that they don't understand something, even if asked' (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 5), this relates back to the concept of losing face, and according to FKA Children's Services (2009, p. 11), 'Shyness is a polite attitude used by Vietnamese students to show respect to their teachers or elders'. Vietnamese-speakers may not look into your eyes as you speak to them, as avoidance of eye contact can be considered as being courteous (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 11). Cultural considerations may explain some of Patty's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use

5.3.2 Social interactions

Patty's social interactions are further described in this section. This information relates conceptually to the tenor in terms of Patty's relationship with her audience, her interlocutors, or in simple terms, the people—the educators and peers—to whom Patty regularly spoke at preschool.

Vietnamese-speaking bilingual support

As noted in the educators' strategies chapter, Patty encountered bilingual support in the form of three Vietnamese-speaking educators and eight Vietnamese-speaking peers. She was specifically grouped in Vietnamese/English bilingual small group sessions two to three times a week as shown in **Figure 5-2**. A previous sample of a Vietnamese literacy group session involving Patty was demonstrated in Appendix 9.

Figure 5-2: Bilingual literacy sessions (27 Jun MOV 1010)

The Vietnamese bilingual literacy small group sessions lasted for approximately 20 minutes. The bilingual small group sessions seemed to consolidate Patty's relationships with bilingually-matched peers and educators, and appeared to provide her with a sense of belonging to her Vietnamese-speaking community of peers within the preschool. The bilingual sessions afforded Patty the opportunity to use both EAL and Vietnamese languages. Lan, the allocated Vietnamese-speaking early childhood worker-bilingual (ECWB), was present at the preschool for three hours each week; Lan and the other Vietnamese-speaking early childhood workers (ECWs) took turns to sit with Patty on the mat at large group-times (to assist as an interpreter). The ECWB also joined Patty during her morning free play. Patty, therefore, encountered had many opportunities to continue speaking her first language at preschool.

With whom Patty interacted

Patty tended to interact most regularly among peers who were compatible in speaking her first language. Several bilingually-matched peers formed stronger relationships with Patty more so than the others in her bilingual small group. The more regular peers are shown positioned closer to Patty in **Figure 5-3**.

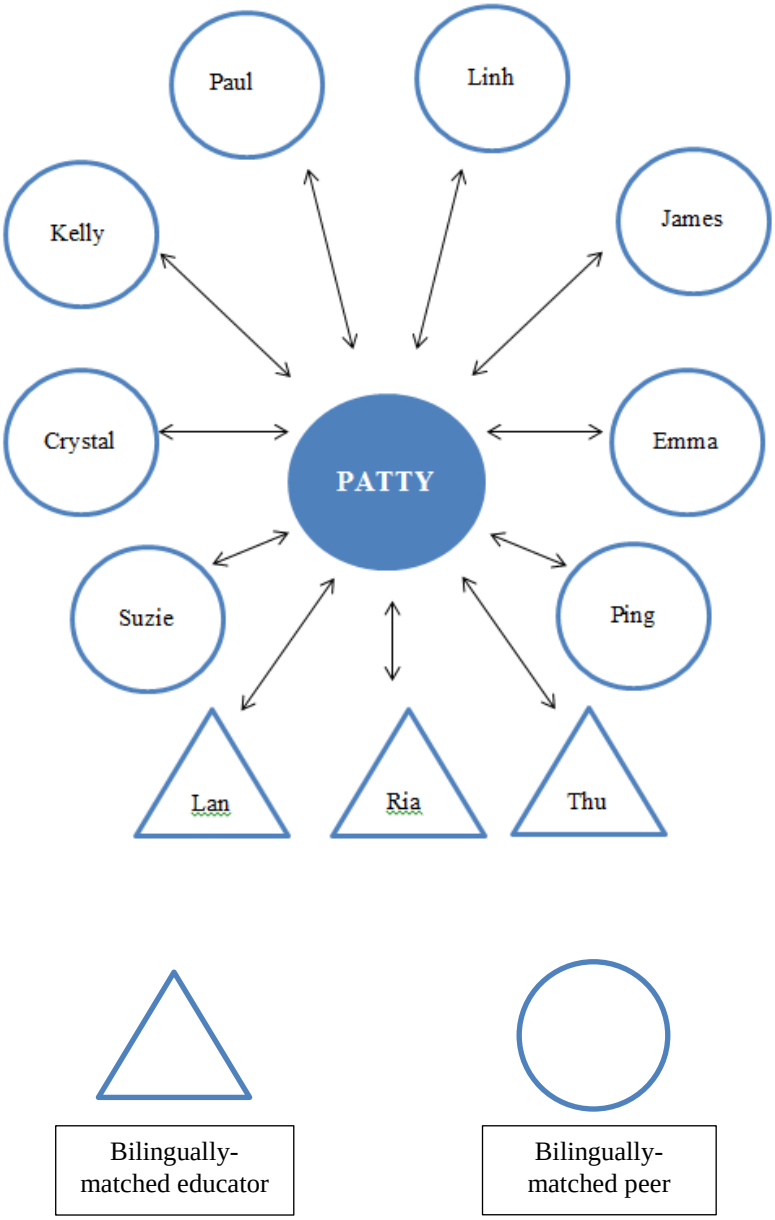


Figure 5-3: Patty's first language community.

The original draft of **Figure 5-3** was created at the end of the data collection period while reflecting on observations of Patty's interactions after six-months of prolonged engagement. It was drafted prior to conducting frequency counts of Patty's peers' from the captured and stored observational data.

Patty often played with Suzie, Ping, Crystal, and Emma (as positioned closest to Patty on the diagram), and also Kelly, James, Paul, and Linh (although not as frequently). Her regular peers were Vietnamese speakers, particularly during the first term of observations. The Vietnamese-speaking children sat together at every recorded large group-time, as shown in **Figure 5-4**, and the Vietnamese speakers regularly played with and among one another. Patty's exposure to English-speaking interactions and speaking English out of a necessity, were limited due to her availability of numerous Vietnamese-speaking peers.

Figure 5-4: Patty playing with peers from her Vietnamese bilingual literacy group

Lan, Patty's bilingual support educator, discussed Patty's preference for same first language peers and offered, "*She hasn't got an English friend. She plays with her own Vietnamese children. I try*." (Audio 5 June). This comment triangulated with my own impressions as a privileged active participant observer and the observational data records.

The frequency counts of Patty's interactions with peers and educators in **Table 5-3**, presents numerical counts, as documented in field notes, movie-mode, and photographic data. As evidenced, Patty played more regularly with Vietnamese peers from her allocated bilingual literacy group during free playtimes, than with non-Vietnamese-speaking peers such as Linda, Dari, and Danya, whom she started to play with later in the study. Suzie was counted in the data 121 times, Ping 71 times, Crystal 63, and Emma 44; they were the peers that Patty most regularly interacted with. Identifying the social interactions, or type of tenor available as Patty's spoke, gives an indication of Patty's context of situation influencing her speech and her interpersonal relationships.

Table 5-3: Patty's frequencies of interactions with peers and educators

PATTY'S REGULAR VIETNAMESE-SPEAKING PEERS				
Suzie 121	Ping 71	Crystal 63	Emma 44	Kelly 26
Linh 17	Paul 17	James 8		
PATTY'S OTHER REGULAR PEERS WHO DID NOT SPEAK VIETNAMESE				
Linda 40	Dari 18	Danya 6		
PATTY'S EDUCATORS				
Matched bilingual	Lan 25 (ECWB)	Ria 17(ECW)	Thu 2 (ECW admin)	
English-only/other bilingual	Erl 18 (Teacher)	Pam 8 (Teacher)	Jade 8 (Teacher)	

*Educators and peers interactions were only coded during more personal interactions during playtimes. Large or literacy group sessions are not included in this table.

With regards to the educators, the data in **Table 5-3** additionally highlights that Patty often interacted with Vietnamese-speaking bilingual educators: Lan and Ria, more regularly in contrast to English-only speaking educators: Pam and Jade. Erl (the Tagalog/English speaker of Asian heritage), however, was also captured interacting with Patty on regular occasions. The preschool director performed administrative tasks on Patty's preschool day, thus the director was not included in Patty's data collection. In summary, the preschool teachers, who spoke only English, exhibited fewer interactions with Patty in comparison to the Vietnamese-speaking educators. Jade, the qualified English-only speaking teacher, verified this finding, explaining, "*I haven't really had many exchanges with Patty*" (FN 6 June), after having been a teacher at Gumtree Preschool during Patty's four terms of preschool.

Speaking Vietnamese—Patty's first language

Patty was counted speaking 177 Vietnamese utterances during observations. A Vietnamese utterance was marked as a single turn to say a word or phrase in Vietnamese. Vietnamese utterances were, for the most part, unable to be translated into English due to budget constraints and the unavailability of bilingual educators' time. Utterances that were assumed to be Vietnamese were recorded as the letters, "**vvv…**", in field notes, audio transcriptions, and movie-mode transcriptions.

The following field note captures Patty's Vietnamese use.

> When speaking with Lan, Suzie (Patty's peer) switches back and forth in English and Vietnamese. Patty just stays with Vietnamese. (FN 21 Feb)

Patty's first language was both valued and welcomed at the preschool. She had numerous opportunities to use speak Vietnamese with the 11 Vietnamese-speakers available to her. Every day, preschool educators, both bilingual and English-only speakers, greeted all of the

preschool children in Vietnamese at group-time and chanted, "*Chào*". The 50 or so preschool children were also encouraged to chant "*Chào*" back.

More knowledgeable others

In addition to the educators, who served a role as more knowledgeable others (MKOs) and who scaffolded Patty's English language learning, many of Patty's Vietnamese-speaking bilingual peers spoke English in her presence. The majority of Patty's peers had made further progress in their productive English skills than Patty—they were MKOs. Patty, however, often opted to speak Vietnamese with her peers, but sometimes parroted her peers in English, as they extended her zone of proximal development (ZPD) and provided her with new EAL vocabulary. Towards the second term of the study, several Non-Vietnamese-speaking bilingual peers, who spoke English as lingua franca with Patty, also served as MKOs for Patty; they answered her as she questioned and prompted conversations in English. Interestingly, Patty was not observed interacting with less knowledgeable other (LKO) peers who were less capable than Patty in developing English. It was also reflected that Patty did not regularly interact with MKOs who were native English-only speakers, only lingua franca speakers.

Branching-out

Over time, Patty gradually developed her productive English skills and extended her friendships by branching-out to play more regularly with other non-Vietnamese-speaking peers such as Linda (counted 40 times), Dari (counted 18 times), and Danya (6 times). These three children were bilingual speakers of English and other languages—Gujarati and Persian as seen in **Table 5-3**. Patty's act of branching-out occurred mostly toward the latter part of the six-months of data collection. Evidence of branching-out occurred on one occasion when Patty displayed her eagerness to play with her new English-as-lingua franca peer, Linda, by asking, "*Where's a my new friend?*" (16 May). **Figure 5-5** displays Patty's regular peers after branching-out. Linda, Danya, and Dari are positioned on the perimeters of her Vietnamese peers following the second term of data collection.

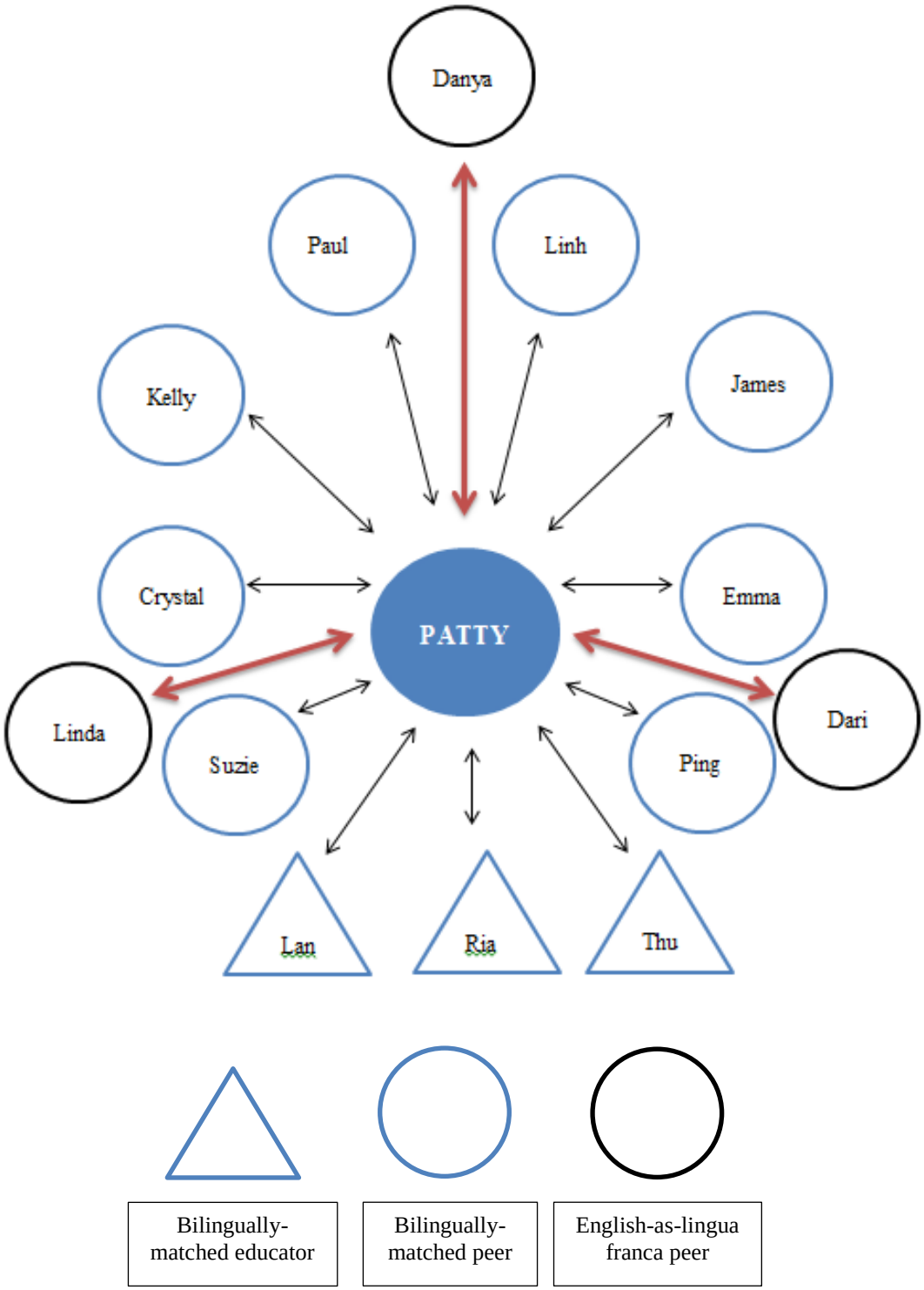


Figure 5-5: Patty experiences challenges when branching-out

Branching-out was sometimes problematic for Patty. An episode on the 6th of May, shown in **Figure 5-6**, during Patty's fourth and final term of preschool, demonstrated this challenge. On this occasion, Patty was observed in a rare circumstance interacting with a Dari/English bilingual speaking group of children in the sandpit (see the first photo in **Figure 5-6**). Social circumstances, which provided Patty with a tenor of new English-as lingua franca peers to

speak to, afforded Patty an opportunity to exercise her acquired English out of necessity. As noted in the first term of data collection, it was uncommon for Patty to spend time away from her usual Vietnamese-speaking peers; thus, it was not long before several of Patty's regular Vietnamese-speaking peers (Crystal, Ping, and Suzie) arrived at the scene and spectated as Patty's interacted with the Dari/English-speaking peers. Whilst looking directly at Patty, Patty's usual Vietnamese-speaking peers displayed what was interpreted as tension and disapproval of Patty's interaction with the non–Vietnamese-speaking preschoolers. As Patty played with the Dari/English-speaking peers, joining them to fill buckets with sand, Ping, one of Patty's regular Vietnamese/English speaking friends, called aloud to Patty, in English, "*You not my friend, Patty!*" Several metres divided the three spectating Vietnamese-speaking peers from the Dari/English-speaking girls that Patty had branched-out to play with on the particular occasion. Patty retaliated, "*Don't say that!*", to Ping—this time speaking in English rather than in Vietnamese, the language she often spoke and shared in common with her Vietnamese-speaking peers. Shortly after Patty expressed her command, one of the Dari/English-speaking girls, who was sitting alongside Patty, responded by hand-signalling to the Vietnamese-speakers a gesture which appeared to be inviting the Vietnamese-speakers to join them in the sandpit (see the third photo in **Figure 5-6**). As the event unfolded, the three Vietnamese/English-bilingual girls responded by tugging at one another's hands in an indecisive manner, before eventually arriving at the decision to enter the sandpit and position themselves some two meters' away from Patty and the Dari/English-speaking girls (see the fourth photo in **Figure 5-6**).

After a short time passed, several of the Dari/English bilingual peers wandered away from Patty, towards a nearby tap, to fill up their buckets with water. This circumstance left Patty temporarily sitting alone, and a short moment later, Patty joined her familiar Vietnamese-speaking peers to play with them once again. Several minutes passed, then the four Vietnamese-speaking children, now reunited with Patty, set off together to play elsewhere at the swings. This reunion ceased Patty's opportunity to 'branch-out' and speak in English as a necessary lingua franca with the Dari/English-speaking peers. Now that Patty was reunited, back with her Vietnamese-speaking peer group, Patty reverted back to speaking Vietnamese.

Figure 5-6: Patty's challenge of branching-out (6 May MOV 667)

As illustrated in **Figure 5-6**, it was a challenge for Patty to seek, join in and expose herself to play experiences and social interactions with children additional to her Vietnamese bilingual peer group. Consequently, the challenge of 'branching-out', resulting from the pressure of her Vietnamese-speaking peer group, reduced Patty's opportunities to socialise and rehearse English with non-Vietnamese-speaking interlocutors while at preschool. This impacted on the tenor, the type of relationship Patty had with her interlocutors, within Patty's context of situation surrounding her speech.

In another branching-out scenario which occurred slightly earlier than the aforementioned scenario, Patty, was observed commanding English instructions to Linda (a Gujararti speaker) in the sandpit. The sandpit was a common gathering place for socialising, as shown in **Figure 5-7**.

Figure 5-7: Patty expresses the regulatory function with Linda in the sand (Photo 11 Apr)

In this circumstance, Patty appeared confident and at ease when speaking English to Linda—a now familiar age-mate; although, this was not the case when speaking with adults in EAL. During the experience, Patty's commands displayed her developing leadership skills. Linda, providing a young tenor as interlocutor for Patty, appeared to boost Patty's confidence to speak in English. Patty had previously exhibited numerous occasions of anxiety-related behaviours, awkwardness, and hesitancy when speaking English with adults. This is elaborated in section 5.3.3 Emotional challenges. Patty's hesitant emotional response, however, did not appear when with young Linda, whom Patty often commanded to in English, as demonstrated in several of the following utterances.

"*Look*" (Patty says to Linda while showing Linda how she puts sand in her hat.)

"*You turn*" (Patty instructs to Linda.)

"*Like this*" (Patty explains to Linda and taps her).

"*No more, no more, no more!*" (commands Patty referring to the sand)

"*Done like this...*" (Patty explains to herself).

"*Look*" (Patty instructs Linda to show that there is sand in their hats. The hats are all scrunched into a dilly bag ball with sand inside them)

"*Feel it*" (Patty copies Linda who had just said "Feel it" in an utterance immediately before her).

"*Hey!*" (Patty yells to Linda for attention)

"*Here*" (Patty directs Linda).

"*More*" (Patty instructs Linda).

"O*ver here*" (Patty directs her other peer.)

"*It's yucky!*" (Patty exclaims about the sand)

(FN 11 Apr)

It was noted that Patty expressed numerous regulatory phrases with Linda, her small, perhaps less intimidating age-mate. It was reflected upon as to whether Patty felt less insecure and more confident or competent when exploring EAL with Linda.

Patty rarely posed questions during data collection. However, on one branching-out occasion, during story book reading among peers and an adult, Patty whispered to her new friend, Linda, and asked, "*What is that?*", while pointing to a picture of a bird. Linda replied to Patty, "*An owl*", and Patty then repeated the new term, saying confidently, "*It's a owl*", to a nearby educator (FN 4Apr). Branching-out and seeking support from Linda afforded Patty a safe, low-pressured social-emotional environment to enable Patty to verbally inquire, extend her English receptive and productive vocabulary, and to express the heuristic function of language. The impact of Patty's branching-out was that other MKOs could serve as resources for Patty's EAL learning. Patty may have chosen not to ask a different person, such as an educator, questions so to extend her vocabulary due to the constraining aspect of tenor and the risk of Patty exposing her lack of knowledge to a person with the higher status of teacher or adult. Branching-out with likened peers provided to Patty the opportunity to be scaffolded to speak from the presence of less intimidating others (a different classification of tenor).

5.3.3 Emotional challenges

Shyness and observed discomfort were the main codes used to highlight and organise observations of Patty's interpreted reluctance to speak, hesitancy to participate, lack of response to educators' questions, freezing face, looking away, and perceived nervousness in data.

Shyness

Patty's reluctance to speak with adults was obvious to the educators who were keen to recommend her inclusion in the study. Patty was often witnessed freezing, staring blankly or looking away when adults drew attention to her in English dialogue. Perhaps she was avoiding losing face and avoiding humiliation from saying the wrong English word. It was common for educators to attempt to elicit a verbal response from Patty by asking questions;

however, often Patty would not reply. Ria explained, "*If you talk to her she just look at you*" (FN 15 May). In the following statement, Lan also offered:

> "Maybe sometimes she's not quite sure of herself or something like that because when I, in general, when I'm talking, she will look and talk to you but when you ask the question she not quite sure she looks away from you, and her face, not only her eyes, her face. But in general sometimes she doesn't even talk to you, when it comes after a question. I think she needs, you know, to think. Maybe she thinks 'maybe I'm wrong and right'. Maybe that lack of confidence." (FN/Audio 20 Mar).

Patty's mother also spoke about Patty's English speaking habits and offered:

> "She's shy. She knows the words. Sometimes she gives us a surprise. If I ask her sometime she knows how to answer in English". (Interview 5 Feb)

Patty's educators persisted to encourage Patty to speak, often by repeating questions to eventually elicit verbal responses from Patty, as demonstrated in the following field note.

> Ria (a Vietnamese speaker) asks Patty (in English) about what she's eating. Patty just nods, so Ria asks again. Patty reluctantly says, "*Orange*", softly moving her lips. Ria says, "*Sorry I didn't hear you Patty*"; however, Patty doesn't say it again. "*It's an o.....*", (pauses) says Ria, but Patty doesn't speak. "*Say orange*", encourages Ria, "*Orange*", repeats Patty. (FN 28 Mar)

Patty sometimes responded quietly to adult initiations of conversations in English, while other times she would not even reply at all. As mentioned previously, Patty rarely exchanged interactions with Jade, an English-only speaking teacher, despite Patty having been at preschool for several terms. Patty also refused invitations to participate in activities at group-time, on numerous occasions, particularly during language-type tasks. Ria also supported that she "*Sometimes doesn't want to participate in large group games*" (FN 27 Mar). She preferred not to address an audience. The following photograph in **Figure 5-8**, accompanied by the transcription of the movie-mode recording, demonstrates Patty's refusal to participate in a public group-time activity.

Figure 5-8: Patty refuses an invitation to participate during group-time (10 Apr MOV 490)

Jade: Patty would you like to come and have a turn?
Patty: (shakes her head)
Jade: Are you sure? Come and do some jumping.
(Patty continues shaking her head slowly)
Not this time?
(Jade chooses another child)

As demonstrated, the numerous examples of triangulated evidence from Patty's mother, her bilingual support, and the collections of visual observations, reinforced the view that Patty was shy and demonstrated a look of discomfort in many English-speaking contexts.

Patty's personality in Vietnamese vs Patty's personality in English

The affordance of Patty's bilingual preschool setting permitted Patty to communicate in both her languages: Vietnamese and English. Having two options of language for communication resulted in Patty displaying two distinctly different personalities during the study. Patty was considered to be cautious, careful, timid, reluctant and shy to speak and participate in English, particularly with adults. Alternatively, in Vietnamese Patty portrayed herself as confident, sociable, chatty, assertive, and occasionally disruptive. This contrast was noted earlier on in reflective journaling. It was suggest that Patty was reserved or shy in English, yet cheerful, and communicative when using Vietnamese during free play with age-mates.

On several occasions, Patty was noted to be so talkative (in Vietnamese), speaking out of turn, that her educators reprimanded her for her disruptive behaviour.

> Jade says, "*Let me see, Patty would you like to have a go...oh no she's talking...*" (Patty is talking Vietnamese to peers at group-time). Jade continues, "*I can't choose people who are talking. I'm looking for people who are in the 5 Ls*." (Jade is looking directly at Patty). *The 5Ls are a listening strategy referring to: look, listen, laps, legs crossed, and lips closed. (10 Apr MOV 417)

Other teachers, Erl and Pam, also spoke about their concerns over Patty's interruptive chatting with her peers in Vietnamese, as recorded in the following field notes.

> 10:45 AM Erl mentions Patty is talking more at group-time, seldom to the teachers, but to her friends, in Vietnamese.
>
> 11:38 AM Patty is asked to pay attention on the mat (by Pam, another English-only speaker). (FN 16 May)

The bilingual context of Gumtree Preschool afforded Patty the opportunity to demonstrate various aspects of her personality and social-emotional abilities. Her social confidence, communicative and leadership skills, and characteristics that might otherwise have been masked by an English-only preschool context, such as in the many school contexts involved in the AEDC, were observable in the Vietnamese-speaking context. Additionally, there were times when Patty would sing confidently in English while sitting among her bilingually-matched peers at group-time and during free playtimes. The act of repeating and rehearsing English, when singing, appeared to provide Patty with opportunities to produce EAL with lowered pressure and cognitive load. Patty did not appear to be nervous when singing; however, when speaking to adults, she did seem unwilling to communicate.

Reluctance to communicate—adults vs age-mates

Interpretations of Patty's body language during consultations with adult educators contrasted to the interpretations of Patty's body language during conversations with peers. It was proposed that Patty seemed more confident and comfortable talking in EAL to peers (her age-mates), than to adults (her elders). As demonstrated in **Figure 5-9**, the left photo, Patty would sometimes purse her lips shut and pull away such as when Erl persisted to converse with her. With Linda, her peer, however, Patty's posture appeared more relaxed as is evidenced in the photo by her leaning forward during the interaction with Linda. The photo with Linda demonstrates her willingness and intention to communicate. Ria, in a discussion, also proposed that Patty was "*More comfortable with peers. She chooses her friends—Vietnamese*" (FN 27 Mar) and supported that, "*She's happy--enjoys playing with children.*" (FN 29 Feb).

Figure 5-9: Patty is reluctant with adults yet initiates with age-mates (Photo 11 Apr).

The following vignette, demonstrates another occasion when Patty was approached by the same teacher, Erl (a Tagalog speaker), and was asked several questions to which she seemed unwilling to respond.

Erl:	*Hi. What is that?* (Erl bobs down next to Patty)
Patty:	(no response)
Erl:	*Oh. Patty what is that?*
Patty:	*House* (spoken quietly)
Erl:	*A house. Who lives in the house?* (there is no response from Patty)
	Tell me… Who lives in the house? (Erl lowers her tone as she asked the question a second time)
Patty:	(begins to look overwhelmed)
Erl:	(Taps gently on her picture pointing to the house)
Patty:	(Nods)
Erl:	*Don't be shy.*
Patty:	(Looks away and her eyes become teary for a moment)
Erl:	*Who lives in the house?*
Patty:	(Lips something sounding like '*my mum*' but is very quiet)
Erl:	*Is that?*

(11 Apr MOV 20130411_124143)

The following excerpt details an interview with Ria, an ECW who spoke Vietnamese often with Patty.

Researcher:	Do you see her responding to other teachers?
Ria:	No still quiet.
Researcher:	Do you think it is vocabulary or shyness or anxiety?
Ria:	A bit shyness as well, but anxiety, not sure about this. I think it shyness yeah it's shyness until she really get to know you, then she will like talk to you
Researcher:	So you think it's maybe more about building that—(Ria interjects)
Ria:	*Trust.*
Researcher:	(Ria interjected in my prior sentence)—relationships. Or yeah trust. That's something for me to look into, 'trust!'

Ria: I think yeah once she got respect and know you, she talk [*sic*] to you. I think it shyness until she really get [*sic*] to know you.

(Audio 5 June)

Ria's final comment on Patty needing to 'get to know you' drew attention to relationships and the emotional challenge of shyness.

Summary of emotional challenges

The terms, 'reluctance to communicate' and 'discomfort' became emergent codes, whereas 'shyness' became an inVivo code, a code emerging from the data as a result of it being mentioned by numerous informants: Patty's mother, Ria, and Erl. The impressions of Patty's shyness in reflective journaling triangulated with educators' and parent's descriptions of Patty. Lan, on the other hand, referred to Patty's hesitation to speak as a 'lack of confidence'. The notion of confidence to speak is also discussed within the emotional experiences section of Shaun, the next focus child to be reported. The following section, however, presents Patty's functional language use in English.

5.3.4 Functional language use

Patty's functional language can be related to her social interactions and her emotional challenges. Her functional use of English is represented in the pie chart in **Figure 5-10**, which reports Patty's expression of Halliday's (2004) seven initial language functions over six months of data collection.

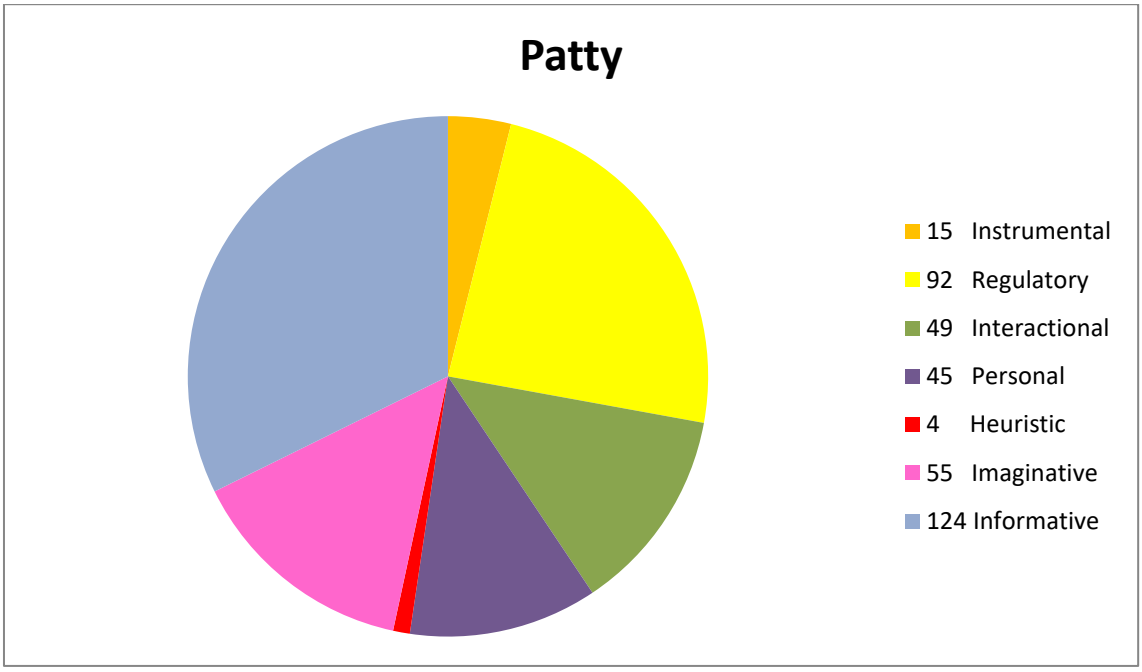


Figure 5-10: The proportions of Patty's functional language

As shown, Patty mostly expressed herself in English so to inform and regulate others. Also common were her use of imaginative, personal, and interactional utterances. Least common was her use of heuristic questioning and instrumental utterances.

The informative and regulatory function were most common

Patty often answered questions that were posed at her by educators, both bilingually-matched and other English-speaking educators. Examples include her uttering: "*A boy*," (when responding to an educator's question, "Is it a girl or a boy?"), "*Five,*" (when responding to the educator's question, "How many fingers?", "*Easy*," (when responding to an educator's question, "Is it difficult or easy?"), and "*Egg*," (in response to an educator's question, "What is this?"). Educators' questioning often resulted in Patty's common use of informative utterances.

As previously established, Patty encountered a large group of bilingually-matched peers with whom she was confident to explore a little English. She instructed and commanded actions such as "*Push me*", "*Go*", "*Jump with me*", "*Hey, don't do a!*", "*Stop!*", and "*Hey, you get mine for me*", as she displayed her leadership skills.

Heuristic and instrumental functions were least common

Patty rarely asked questions apart from, for example, her, "*What is it?*" query to Linda, and her, "*Where's a my new friend?*" enquiry to an educator. Patty did not regularly express her wants either, at least not in EAL, with few exceptions such as "*I want catch you*" or through sometimes replying, "*Yeah*" and "*Yes*" , if directly asked by an educator if she wanted something. It is, however, unknown whether Patty expressed her wants or questioned more often in her first language of Vietnamese. More understanding of the first language and the impact of culture on language use is needed in research with bilingual preschoolers.

Imaginative

Patty regularly participated in singing activities, both during large group-time and on her own during solitary playtime. The regularity of her singing explained why Patty's imaginative utterances appeared as the third most common function in analysis of her speech. She sang, for example:

> The twinkle twinkle little stars song
> The ABC song
> The Peter Rabbit song
> The lyric "for baby and me" in the patter cake song
> A "Ner ner ner ner ner not catch you" (can't catch me) tune.
> The "Stop I don't like it" song

She also role-played on other occasions, while making "*Ice cream*" in the sandpit and while making a pretend "*Birday*" cake.

Personal

Patty occasionally expressed personal utterances such as "*I like the pink one*", "*I did it!*", "*I finished*", "*I love flower*", and "*Wow, beautiful*". Again, she had many peers and adults to talk about herself with.

Interactional

Patty's interactional utterances included saying, "*Goodbye*", to her peer Suzie and insisting, "*My turn*", to gain a turn on the swing from peers, as well as ,"*You my friend now*?", to Suzie, and, "*How about me*", to arrange a turn of play equipment with her peers. She had many peers hence her interactional language was relatively common.

More information on Patty's functional language in relation to social interactions and emotional challenges is provided in Chapter Six, *Synthesising the Themes*.

5.4 Shaun's experiences

5.4.1 Shaun's profile (Khmer/English bilingual)

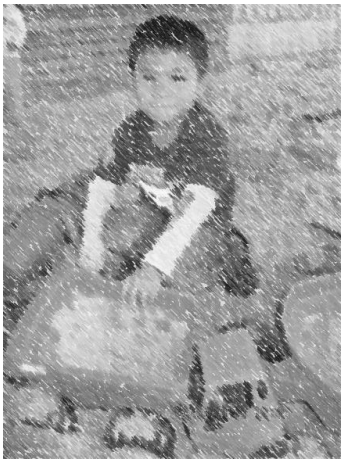


Figure 5-11: Shaun, the four-year-old Khmer/English bilingual preschooler

Background: Shaun (shown in **Figure 5-11**) was four years and four months old at the commencement of the study, and was born in Australia to Cambodian-born parents. He spent most of his earlier years in his mother's care at home where he also lived with his father and baby sister. Shaun's mother reported that she always spoke to Shaun in Khmer, the language of Cambodia, at home.

Shaun had also attended childcare for a short period between six months and nine-months of age. He had not been exposed to many circumstances which required him to speak English productively prior to preschool; although, his mother contributed that Shaun had an Australian neighbor who took on a Grandma-type role and read stories to him in English. Shaun was—for the most part—a sequential bilingual EAL learner. He attended pre-entry late in 2012, at age three, the term before the case study commenced, and was nominated by the preschool educators as a child who was not speaking much English during his pre-entry visits.

There were several Khmer-speaking families who attended Gumtree Preschool, thus Shaun engaged regularly with six Khmer-speaking peers. Shaun was additionally bilingually supported by a Khmer-speaking early childhood worker–bilingual (ECWB), who worked at the preschool once a week in the mornings to support the Khmer-speaking children. In 2011, in the wider community surrounding the preschool, there were 2002 Khmer-speaking locals. In the more immediate suburb of the preschool, there were 558 Khmer speakers (id. the population experts 2017c *to respect anonymity of the case study site, the reference is not provided in the reference list). Shaun encountered regular opportunities to communicate in Khmer inside and outside of preschool.

Stage of English language learning: Shaun would often repeat after his Khmer peers in the early weeks of data collection, He also copied words and phrases such as "*Airport*" (6 Feb) and "*Someone push me!*" (6 Mar) after his peers. He also regularly spoke using telegraphic (one-word) English utterances, for example, saying, "*cake*" (27 Feb), to mean 'eating cake', in response to an educator's question, "*What's she doing?*". Shaun would also command others using single words such as "*Here*" (6 Feb), "*Stop*" (6 Feb), and "*Look*" (6 Feb), on his own accord. At the beginning of data collection, Shaun's Khmer-speaking ECWB educator explained that Shaun spoke "*a word by word*" and only "*a little bit in English*" (27 Feb).

Shaun also mispronounced many words such as "*Fog*" (frog), "*Caapiar*" (caterpillar), "*I la pot*" (I love Spot), and "*too mall*" (too small). He also spoke Khmer with his Khmer-speaking peers often, although he sometimes code-mixed phrases and incorporated English vocabulary during his communications.

Over time, Shaun was capable of informing, "*She lay egg*", in response to a question asked in Khmer which queried him about the action of a chicken. An individual trait of Shaun's was that he often murmured an, "*Ahhh*", thinking type sound to himself—a sound assumedly made while he was gathering his thoughts and deliberating his verbal response to questions posed at him. There were several times when Shaun's attempts to respond to adults' questions resulted in him retrieving approximate vocabulary for his reply. For example, on one occasion, Shaun mistakenly called a mandarin an "*Orange*", and on another occasion, he referred to a plate as a "*Ball*" (6 Mar)—perhaps he was associating the plate with the round shape of a ball. Although Shaun sometimes made errors in his English speech, he evolved to "*have a go*" (as encouraged by Kate the director) at speaking English more often. Mid-way through the study, Shaun was capable of expressing a lot of formulaic type phrases; these are sentence stems or formulae such as "*I got…*", in "*I got iPad*" (2 Apr); "*I got sticker everything*" (2Apr); "*I got g girl*" (2 Apr), and "*I got hat*" (2 Apr)—all personal texts. Shaun later converted more of his thoughts into English, "*He got a look a story*" (2 Apr).

In addition to formulaic speech, Shaun also lengthened his sentences over the course of the study. He often reversed his English grammar or mispronounced and omitted words, saying, for example, "*There's a behin there fire.*" (16 Mar), meaning, 'There's a fire behind there.', and "*becas der bo yelo*" (2Apr), meaning, 'because they're both yellow'. Some of Shaun's attempts to speak in long sentences were unintelligible and difficult to transcribe; transcription often depended on reviewing visual content in movie-mode recordings to ensure accuracy when transcribing. The phrase, "*Here he he said a se mama you pay me is do la pay he pay baby you come a baby he don lik pay baby tummy*" (2 Apr), was communicated by Shaun to describe some pictures in a book on the topic of families. He talked about the arrival of a new baby in a story saying, "*Ay a en she got a mum ma baby jump ja standing up a do a baby legs mu an na know ma baby le fren mummy ma kuna ne baby a majuni ne babi dye*". Another example of Shaun's unintelligible speech sounds occurred when he said, "*Come a de li dem*" (22 May), while instructing an English-speaking peer to fill up a bucket. It is possible that Shaun was code switching between Khmer and English at times, or was 'filling the missing slot with sounds'—a rationale provided by Tabors (2008, pp. 52–53) in her research. Ria, the Vietnamese/Mandarin/French/ English-speaking educator further explained:

> "These kids, they're mixing the words up—sometimes their own invented words—sometimes they just add any word and it doesn't make sense in their sentences, but it makes sense to them. It's like they haven't got enough words to use." (FN 27 June)

Towards the end of the study, Shaun demonstrated his developing bilingual metalinguistic awareness by identifying to his mother that a word in Khmer had a corresponding word in English, as noted in the following field note.

> Shaun's mum tells me how Shaun speaks both Khmer and English now at home. He "*translates*" to her, she explains, and gives the example "*He will say car is rothayon in Khmer*". (FN 3 Jun)

By the time the data collection period was completed, Shaun had achieved Tabors' (2008) productive language stage of EAL development. He was half way through his preschool year and had another six months of preschool to complete, after which he would transfer to the neighboring school.

Content of culture: The context of culture deserves consideration when interpreting Shaun's functional use of EAL. Cambodian/Australian was Shaun's ethnicity. **Cambodia** is bounded by Thailand on the north-west, Laos on the north-east, and Vietnam on the south-east. Khmer is spoken by about 95% of the population. It is suggested that in Cambodian culture, children 'must listen, be polite and speak quietly' (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 8). This expectation could explain why Shaun took some time to speak up when he started preschool, when educators posed questions to the children during large and small group-times. Respect for elders is also mentioned as one of the Cambodian customs (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 8) Khmer is a simple language grammatically. There are no singular-plural words, no tenses (as words are added to indicate time) and it is considered a toneless language. Buddhism is commonly practiced in Cambodia. Aspects of Shaun's culture potentially influenced his social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use.

5.4.2 Social Interactions

The following social interactions sub-sections describe details of Shaun's bilingual support in the form of educators and peers; the influence of his more knowledgeable other peers; his experiences of branching-out to play with non-Khmer-speaking children; and his relationship with a less knowledgeable other bilingually-matched peer.

Khmer-speaking bilingual support

Shaun attended Khmer/English bilingual small group sessions at least once a week. During these sessions, Shaun interacted with six Khmer-speaking peers and one Khmer-speaking educator, as shown in **Figure 5-12** and **Figure 5-13**.

Figure 5-12: Bilingual Khmer/English small group sessions (20 Mar MOV 717)

With whom Shaun interacted

As illustrated in **Figure 5-13**, Shaun played regularly with Sarah and Vincent (the children positioned closest to Shaun on the diagram and shown sitting on both sides next to him in **Figure 5-13** and **Figure 5-14**), as well as Zia, Kalliyan, Pich and Mary (all Khmer speakers), and one English-only boy, James. Shaun collaborated with his bilingually-matched peers much of the time during free play and large group-times (as reported in **Table 5-4**)

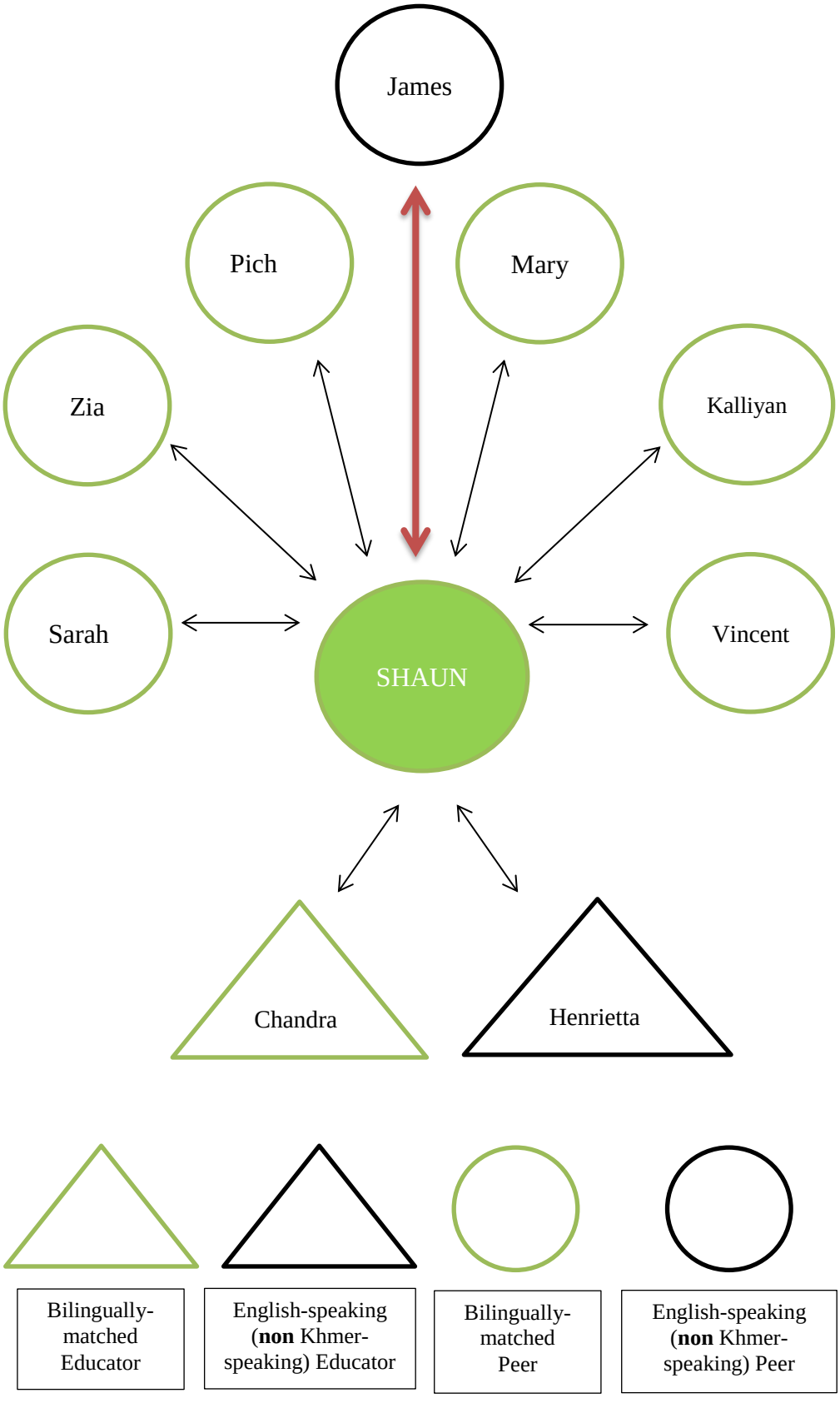


Figure 5-13: Shaun's first language community

Shaun less frequently played, initiated interactions, or involved himself in co-operative play scenarios with non-Khmer-speaking children—particularly during the first few months of the

study. Shaun did, however, occasionally interact with an English-only speaking teacher, Henrietta, due to his close association with Sarah, a peer who received language and communication support from Henrietta. The social interactions among Sarah, Henrietta, and Shaun are further discussed in the sub-section on less knowledgeable others.

Table 5-4: Shaun's frequencies of interactions with peers and educators

SHAUN'S KHMER-SPEAKING PEERS			
Sarah	105	Vincent	151
Zia	33	Kalliyan	31
Pich	30	Mary	17
SHAUN'S OTHER REGULAR PEERS WHO DID NOT SPEAK KHMER			
James 2			
SHAUN'S EDUCATORS			
Matched bilingual	Chandra 25 (ECWB)		
English-only/Other bilingual	Pam 2	Jade 3	Kate 4
	Henrietta 5 (speech and language support)		

*Educators and peers interactions were coded in more personal interactions during playtimes. Large or literacy group sessions are not included in this table.

Figure 5-14: Shaun sitting with Sarah and Vincent (20 Mar MOV 2728)

Whilst Shaun participated in many social activities with his regular fellow Cambodian/Khmer-speaking associates (often Sarah and Vincent), during parallel play (play alongside) or cooperative play (collaborative play) with peers, Shaun rarely involved himself in close interactions with English-only or English-as-lingua franca speaking peers. It was not until the final month of the study that Shaun appeared to expand his circle of playmates and 'branched-out' to play with other children, such as James in **Table 5-4**.

Speaking Khmer—Shaun's first language

Shaun encountered numerous opportunities to maintain and speak Khmer during his ECWB's visits. The discussions between Shaun and his ECWB, Chandra, would often be code-switched between English and Khmer. An example is provided in the following excerpt.

> Chandra asks Shaun, "What happened to the boy?" in English, while reflecting on a story that she was reading to the bilingual children. He responded in Khmer "Kkk... [saying a number of syllables/words in Khmer]".
>
> Chandra later translated that the phrase that Shaun had communicated in Khmer was: "*The basket is falling down and there's toys everywhere.*" (FN 20 Mar)

Chandra kept a journal on each of her Khmer-speaking preschoolers. An example of her description of Shaun's language is displayed in **Figure 5-15**.

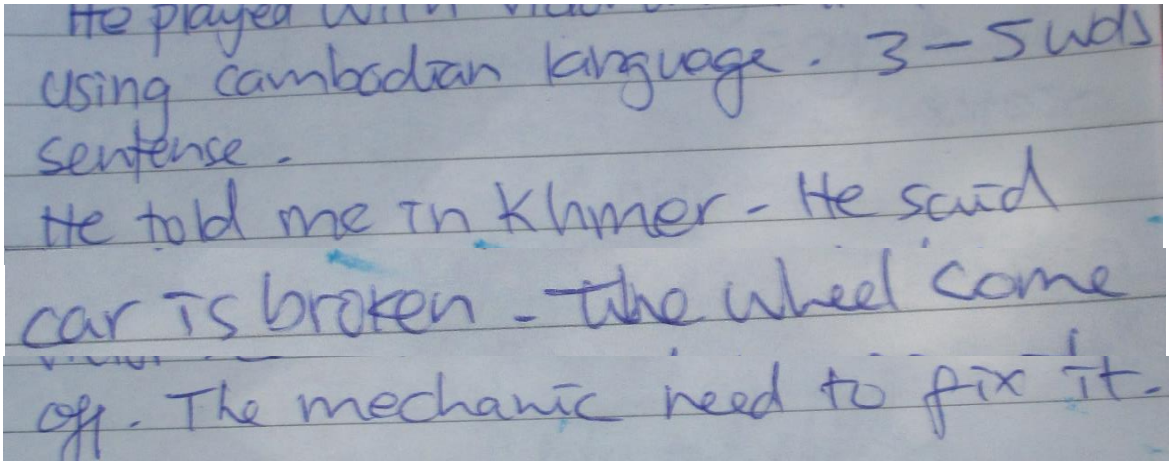


Figure 5-15: Chandra's note taking (Photo 18 Jun)

Chandra's note highlights Shaun's ability to describe situations and express himself clearly in Khmer at preschool while communicating information such as "*Car is broken. The wheel come off. The mechanic need to fix it.*", with his ECWB.

More knowledgeable others

Shaun participated in interactions with more knowledgeable English-speakers with whom he would copy utterances which extended his productive English. On one early occasion, Shaun and Vincent (a fellow Khmer-speaker) were playing firefighters. They had put kitchen bowls on their heads (upside–down), as if they were helmets. It was an adorable sight to see. Shaun first chanted, "*Fire, fire!*". He repeated this over and over. As he and Vincent continued their play, other English-speaking children joined them and Shaun's chants extended to: "*I see fire!*", "*Emergency*", "*Ne naw ne naw*" (the sound of a fire truck), "*Fire gain* (meaning fire again)", "*There's a behind there fire. No more fire*", and, "*Fire coming*", as he copied the chants of other English-speaking peers.

Branching-out

Shaun encountered a lesser challenge when branching-out than Patty; although, Shaun did have strong bonds with his two bilingually-matched peers. Shaun, Sarah, and Vincent (the three Khmer-speakers) often located themselves together in the sand pit and collaboratively

built constructions out of play materials. They also accompanied one another in parallel-play craft-type activities regularly. On one occasion, when Shaun was playing with Sarah and Vincent inside, Vincent decided to exit the room. Shaun responded by quickly getting up and following Vincent. Shaun seemed to have a dependency on Vincent's presence, as shown in the following field note.

> Dependency on peer.
> As soon as Vincent left the train room, Shaun rose promptly and sought him out by leaving the room. When he saw Vincent exiting the door he dropped his train and fled after him. (FN 13 Mar)

During the second term of data collection, Shaun was captured on a rare occasion 'branching-out' and cooperating with English-speaking /non-Khmer-speaking peers. He was located in the sand pit location (a location which appeared to be a popular play space) mingling among peers who spoke various languages. During this branching-out episode, which occurred towards the end of the case study project, Shaun and a couple of English-speaking boys were observed collaborating together to fill buckets up with sand. The children lined the buckets up in a row, at the edge of the sandpit. The children pretended that the buckets contained ice cream. At one period during this activity, Sarah approached Shaun. She appeared to be competing for Shaun's attention while he was branching-out and playing among new friends. Sarah uttered something, arms folded, appearing annoyed. She eventually gave up her efforts to capture Shaun's attention and merged in, for a brief moment, with the combined group of native English-speakers and Shaun. **Figure 5-17**, **Figure 5-16**, and the accompanying transcription in Appendix 10, demonstrates this experience.

Figure 5-16: Sarah attempts to interrupt Shaun's branching-out (22 May MOV 767)

Figure 5-17: Shaun branching-out in the sandpit (22 May MOV 767)

Shaun began to branch-out during the final term of the study. Perhaps Shaun felt more equipped and confident with his developing English to finally play with peers additional to his first language Khmer-speaking peer group and LKO, Sarah.

Less knowledgeable others

During the study, Shaun, a child initially identified by several of his teachers as reluctant to speak English, played with a close peer (Sarah), who started to attend preschool and was allocated to the Khmer bilingual group with Shaun. Sarah was an LKO peer for Shaun. Sarah was less capable in speaking English than Shaun, who had had more prior exposure to English and had progressed further productively. In addition to Sarah being less developed in her productive English than Shaun, she was also younger, and was identified as having a language and communication disorder. Her Khmer speech was considered to be delayed. Sarah received speech and language support from educator, Henrietta, through the preschool's allocation of preschool support funding.

Sarah was not an MKO who scaffolded and extended Shaun's English speaking skills in the traditional sense of the ZPD—the distance between the child's independent ability and their ability with the support of a more capable peer. Sarah did not provide more expert modelling or extension of Shaun's utterances, nor corrective feedback. However, Sarah, as an LKO, despite not being a mentor, appeared instead to boost Shaun's social-emotional confidence, and his willingness to communicate productively in EAL—particularly when he was in Sarah's presence. Shaun's quiet nature and apprehension to speak EAL subsided with Sarah's companionship. Sarah was not intimidating, Shaun could be Sarah's mentor, and he could assist her. Sarah's provision of an LKO-type scaffold was social-emotional in nature – a form of frustration control perhaps. Frustration control was mentioned in Wood, Bruner and Ross (1974, p. 98) as an aspect of scaffolding. It was theorised that Sarah's lesser knowledge and LKO status enabled Shaun to consider himself as the more competent peer in their partnership, serving a role a bit like an older brother. Sarah's presences coincided with Shaun

speaking up more often in English. Shaun also interrupted conversations when questions were directed at Sarah. He rehearsed more English aloud than he had exercised prior to Sarah's attendance. Educators noticed this too.

> During a conversation with Chandra, she mentions that Shaun answered her, "*What is this?*", question with, "*Cat*" . The question was directed at his peer Sarah. And when asked about what a cat does, Shaun answered "*Meow*". He speaks well in Khmer and English. He somewhat tutors and supports his friend from his community outside of preschool who is now attending preschool. He responds for her. (FN 13 Feb)

Shaun answered many English questions that were posed by educators during the bilingual small group sessions with Sarah. In response he provided many informative phrases. As was previously mentioned by Chandra, Shaun continued to interrupt questions initially posed at Sarah during dialogue with other educators. The transcript in Appendix 11 details Sarah and Shaun's experience as they interact with Sarah's language and communication support worker, Henrietta.

> Shaun starts taking Sarah's turn and dominates. Henrietta has to reinforce, '*No. This is for Sarah*'. (FN 27 Feb)

As portrayed in Appendix 10, Sarah's presence seemed to propel Shaun to make progress in producing speech in EAL. The advent of Shaun and Sarah's friendship at preschool coincided with other changes in the social-dynamics of Shaun's Khmer-speaking peer group. At the same time, Shaun's older and more competent Khmer/English-speaking peers graduated from preschool and progressed to school. This change re-positioned Shaun as an MKO in his bilingual group-time and promoted him to a position whereby he could be considered as the more expert speaker of English alongside Victor. The following reflective journal record and the proceeding field note highlight Shaun's change in social dynamics, which likely influenced his growing confidence, sense of competence, and willingness to communicate.

> Reflection: When Shaun is with Sarah (a new child transitioning) he is the more experienced peer speaking over her. But in Khmer group today... the other more confident Zia did the majority of responding and answering for others out of turn. (Reflection 20 Feb)

It is hypothesised that Sarah and Shaun's partnership lowered Shaun's anxiety or reluctance to speak in English, due to Sarah being a younger and less experienced English speaker who was on a more level playing field. Sarah, was likely a less intimidating interlocutor—a person not judging the accuracy of Shaun's speech and a person whom Shaun, himself, could support. Henrietta referred to Shaun as a role model for Sarah, as mentioned in the following field note.

> "*He is a role model*" says Henrietta.

Chandra also spoke about Shaun's support for Sarah. Their comments triangulate the identification of the LKO/MKO partnership.

> Discussing with Chandra how he supports Sarah—Chandra explains, "*He went with Henrietta to support Sarah in literacy group*". (FN 13 Feb)

Using the traditional metaphor of scaffolding in early childhood, it was noted that Shaun provided Sarah with an intellectual, linguistic, and social scaffold, whereas Sarah's presence provided Shaun with an emotional and social scaffold. Sarah's scaffold afforded Shaun a metaphorical stage to perform on, exude confidence, and feel competent to speak in English. Sarah's scaffold raised Shaun up and prompted him to perform productively in EAL speech. The event of Shaun producing more English was considered a beneficial milestone to further support language learning due to Swain (2005) highlighting that rehearsing productive language develops automaticity, hypothesis testing, encourages more feedback, and extends and sustains conversations. Productive speech is conducive to further learning hence Sarah's presence enhanced Shaun's productive speech.

Figure 5-18: Sarah motivates Shaun to speak English (Gumtree Preschool's Photo)

Ria, the multilingual speaker of Vietnamese/Mandarin/French and English, an ECW at the preschool, also identified and described Shaun and Sarah's partnership using the metaphor of the fish. The following field note captured her thoughts.

> Shaun is in the sandpit again.
> Talks to himself. Making truck sounds
> Talking with Ria who says in reference to a fish metaphor,
> "*One is a head and one is a tail*" (referring to Shaun and Sarah)
> We discuss how when Shaun is with Sarah, he dominates the talking response and when Shaun is with Zia he is less dominant and Zia speaks for him. (FN 20 Feb)

The affordance of the MKO and LKO using the fish metaphor is further illustrated in **Figure 5-19**.

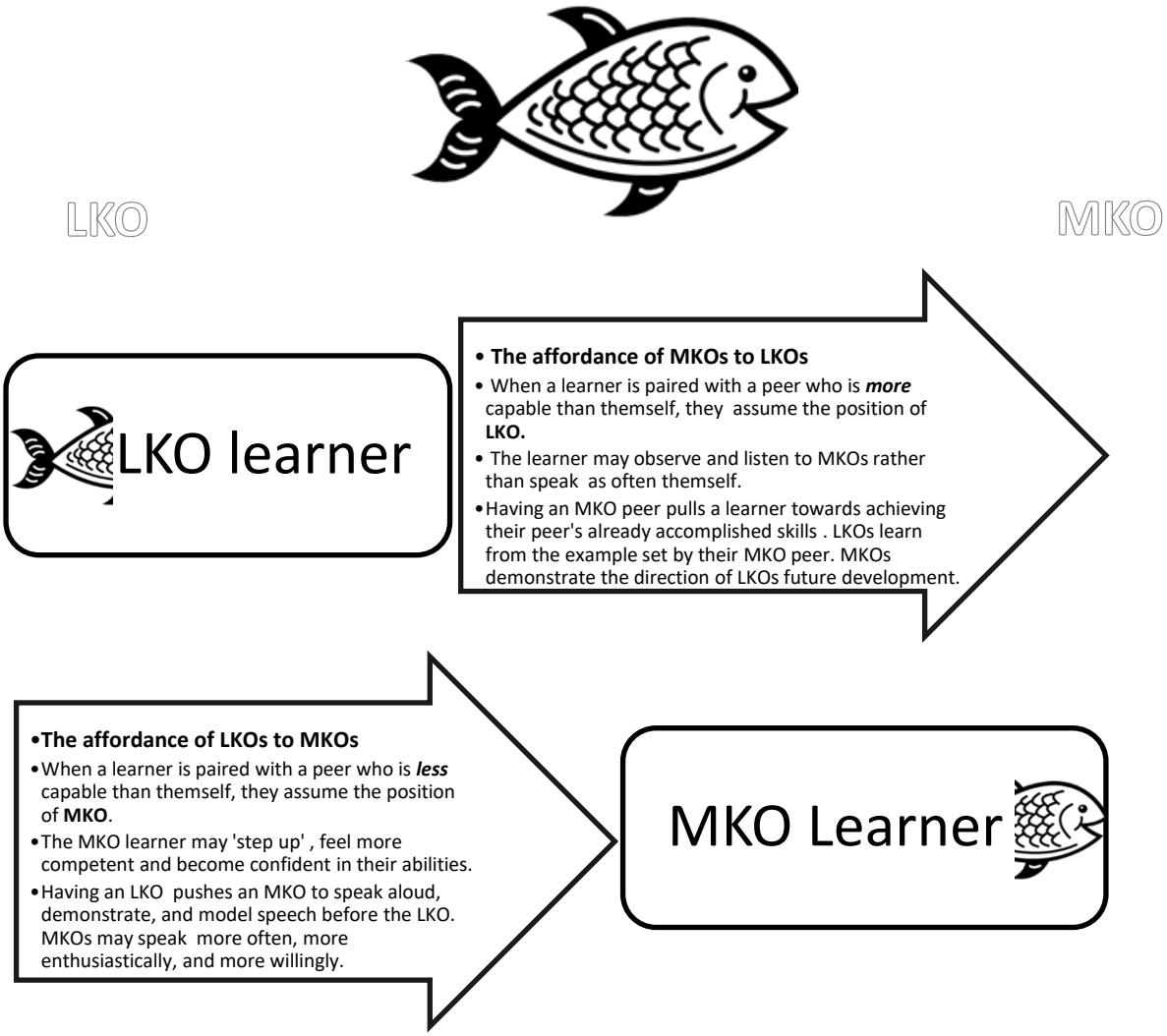


Figure 5-19: The LKO and MKO partnership fish analogy

Ria's fish metaphor identified that often within partnerships among peers, one child is the '*fish tail*' (the less experienced learner or follower) and the other child is the '*fish head*' (the more competent child, the speaker and leader in the partnership). In relating this idea to Vygotsky's MKO and ZPD concepts, the fish tail is like an LKO, who can passively extend the MKO's ZPD by scaffolding learning socio-emotionally and encouraging the MKO to practise productive speech. The LKO can motivate or propel (like a tail) an MKO forward so that the MKO rehearses their new language aloud. Speaking aloud can result from an MKO's improved perception of their English speaking competence, when in partnership with an LKO. In reflection of Shaun's increase in speaking, Pam also noted another metaphor and stated that:

> "Shaun is coming out of his shell". (FN 6 Mar)

In reference to the ZPD, the passive social-emotional scaffolding presence of Sarah (Shaun's LKO) appeared to motivate Shaun (as a now MKO) to progress closer to his potential ability in producing EAL thanks to the support of a peer's presence. With Sarah, Shaun came out of his shell and confidently spoke up in English. In reciprocity, not only did Shaun, the MKO, support Sarah's learning of EAL in the traditional sense by modelling or demonstrating English to her, but rather, interestingly and unexpectedly in the study, Sarah's presence afforded an emotional form of scaffold which scaffolded Shaun to feel more competent and confident to talk aloud.

The LKO concept came about while considering the role of emotions in language learning. Emotional impacts such as shyness, confidence, anxiety, and apprehension when communicating, can result from various types of social interactions. The following section further elaborates on Shaun's developing willingness to communicate.

5.4.3 Emotional challenges

Shaun's questionable anxiety, or initial 'un'willingness to communicate, was identified by his educators when recruiting participants for the study.

Initial anxiety and a later willingness to communicate

In the first half of the study, Shaun was observed occasionally placing his hands in and over his mouth when he was asked to participate during large and small group-times, when attention was drawn to him. The following figures: **Figure 5-20**, **Figure 5-21** and **Figure 5-22** illustrate this behaviour on multiple occasions.

Figure 5-20: Shaun appearing nervous with fingers in his mouth (9 Apr MOV 447)

Figure 5-21: Shaun, again, placing his fingers in his mouth (2 Apr MOV 364)

The following field notes also reference Shaun's finger sucking.

> When selected, Shaun sucks on his finger. On both occasions: egg game and choosing a friend game. (FN 9 Apr)
>
> Shaun puts his hands to his mouth when replying to Chandra's question (FN 1 May)

Figure 5-22, and the following excerpt, offer more triangulated evidence of Shaun's finger sucking. The sucking occurred during times when Shaun was asked questions from his bilingual educator.

Figure 5-22: Shaun (next to Sarah) sucks his fingers again (2 Apr MOV 351)

Chandra:	*What are these called?* (Chandra gives Shaun eye contact while holding up a kangaroo)
Shaun:	*Kangaroo* **(Shaun's hands are in his mouth)**
Chandra:	*Are they the same?*
Sarah:	*Yes*
Chandra:	*The same. Are these the same?*
	(Chandra holds up another combination of figurines)
Shaun:	(Shakes head)
Chandra:	*Why is not the same?*
Zia:	*Different colour* (Zia is an older child more competent in English than Shaun and is soon to be attending school)

Chandra:	*Different colour, and what else? Good girl good answer*
Zia:	*One is kangaroo and one is...?*
Children:	*Crocodile* (Many children chant but not Shaun)
Chandra:	*I'm gonna mix this animal and ask one that is the same and one that is different. Now Shaun can you come and pick two animals, two* (Chandra shows fingers), *that is the same* (she emphasises the work 'same'), *the same colour, the same animal? Come on.*
Shaun:	(Chooses two green figurines but they are different animals)
Chandra:	*Now let's have a look. Sit back. Now Zia can you tell me, are they the same colour?*
Zia:	*Yes*
Chandra:	*Are they the same animal?*
Zia:	(Shakes head)
Chandra:	*No! What is this Zia?*
	(The conversation continues and involves mainly Zia)

(2 Apr MOV 351)

As demonstrated above, children learning EAL are often prompted by questions that require them to take risks and express informative responses in English. Zia, the most competent bilingual child in speaking English, responded to the bilingual educator's questions most often during group-times. Such observations led to the interpretation that it can be difficult for less competent children, such as Shaun, to have the confidence to have a go, make an attempt, and risk making errors, publicly when speaking aloud. Shaun made numerous errors while naming objects throughout the study. It is beneficial for children learning EAL to develop resilience so that, although they may make many mistakes in experimenting with speaking their new language, they continue to persist and keep trying, rather than reverting back to silence.

5.4.4 Functional language use

Shaun's functional language can be related to his social interactions and his emotional challenges, which he later overcame with Sarah and Henrietta. The following **Figure 5-23**, display Shaun's functional use of EAL, as collected over the six-month study.

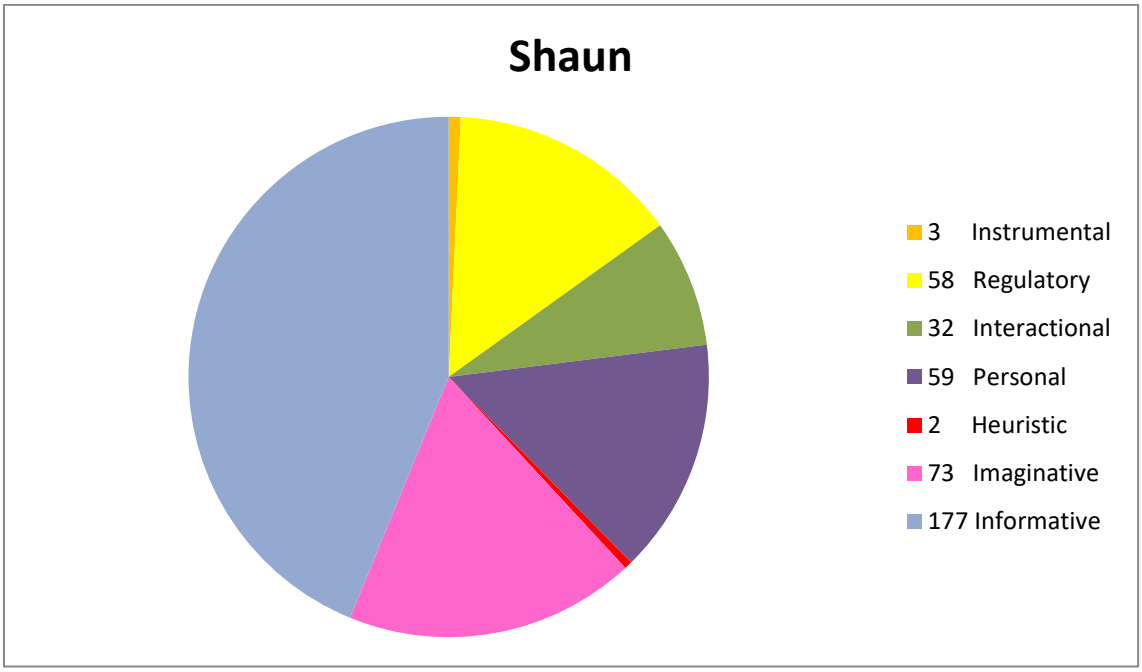


Figure 5-23: The proportions of Shaun's functional language

The Informative function was most commonly expressed, followed by imaginative, personal and regulatory

Informative functions such as naming things: "*Airport*", "*Teddy bear*" and "*Cow*", and actions: "*Pushing, pushing*", "*Drink, drink*" and "*He got a look a story*", as well as informing details: "*Too mall* (too small)", "*Big*" and "*Two legs*" and quantifying: "*Five*", were most common in Shaun's functional language. Imaginative utterances such singing "*Mother duck went out one day*" and role-playing, "*Fine treasza* (find treasure)", followed. Regulatory functions were also a close third most common, for example, when commanding: "*Faster*", "*Here*", "*Get me*", "*Put that one, put that one*", and "*Go back cho e jungle!*", were often directed to peers.

Heuristic and instrumental functions were least commonly expressed

Heuristic questions, such as "*What eat?* (What can I eat?)" (to his educator) and "*What he say?* (What did he say?)" (to his educator), were the only inquiries recorded for Shaun. Instrumental utterances were also few and mainly consisted of answering, "*yeah*", in response to an educator asking if Shaun wanted something.

Interactional functions were mildly expressed

Shaun's most regular peers were Khmer speakers; hence it is possible that Shaun expressed more interactional utterances with Vincent, Sarah, and Chandra in his first language than in English. His English interactional utterances included "*Hello*", "*Mat time!*", "*You turn*", "*For you*", "*My turn, my turn*", "*Here Sarah*", "*Mine go*" and "*Ok ok ok*".

More information on Shaun's functional language, in relation to social interactions and emotional challenges, is provided in Chapter Six, *Synthesising the Themes*.

5.5. Limi's experiences

5.5.1 Limi's profile (Albanian/English bilingual)

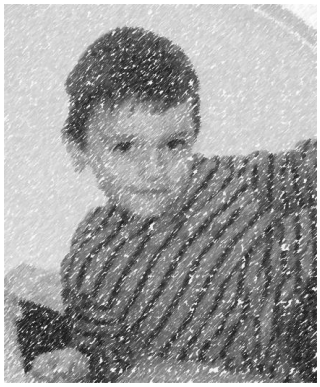


Figure 5-24: Limi, the three-year-old Albanian/English bilingual preschooler

Background: Limi (shown in **Figure 5-24**) was the youngest focus child—aged three years and ten months—at the commencement of the study. He was born in Australia and lived with his parents (mother and father), baby sister, and paternal grandparents. His mother had immigrated to Australia approximately one year prior to his birth and his father had spent over a decade in Australia. All of the family members spoke Albanian in their home.

When Limi was three months old, the family visited Kosovo to introduce Limi to his overseas relatives. Back in Australia, Albanian was commonly spoken in Limi's home, although his mother noted that some English was introduced after he turned three—in order to prepare Limi for school. For the most part however, Limi was a sequential bilingual learner of EAL, as he had first learned to communicate in Albanian from birth, up until the age three, and was later encouraged to use English after his third birthday. Of all four focus children, Limi had the least amount of prior exposure to EAL—he was a new enrolment at the preschool.

Although Limi had attended childcare briefly for three months as an infant, this exposure occurred before he was of typical speaking age. His mother was studying English at TAFE (an adult education service) at the time. For the most part, Limi's prior to preschool years involved him speaking and communicating in Albanian with his mother, father and grandparents. The local community's Albanian-speaking population was unreported as Albanian speakers were less than .1% of the local population, or there were less than 20 users of the language living in the area. Limi's mother explained that she sometimes arranged play dates with other Albanian speakers from around Adelaide. During the study, Limi's mother mentioned that she permitted Limi to speak both languages, English or Albanian, at home. She explained that she considered it to be Limi's choice as to which language he chose to use.

Stage of English Language Learning: Limi's mother contributed that Limi initially spoke about 50 English words at the commencement of the study. Initial observations in the data revealed that Limi communicated non-verbally much of the time by touching people or pushing peers to capture their attention. Limi would often hold out objects to seek educators' assistance. Limi began to speak English words gradually by repeating or echoing after his

educators, saying words like, "*Chinese*", (7 Feb) or "*dragon*" (7 Feb), when engaged in one-on-one arts and craft activities with teachers during free playtimes.

Limi often used regulatory expressions, such as "*No!*" (21 Feb), at the beginning of the study and eventually extended his repertoire to include telegraphic sentences saying, "*trains*" (14 Mar), to appeal to a teacher to bring back the toy trains after having packed them away, as well as, '*open it*!' (22 May). Limi also expressed that he wanted his "*mum*", "*ma*" or "*mummy*" regularly at the beginning of the study in February and March. It took him approximately a week to adjust to her absence. Limi also used formulaic expressions, such as "*I want my hat.*" (14 Mar) and "*That's a monkey*." (15 Apr), as time progressed. Towards the end of the study, Limi began to extend his sentences and adopted the technique of using filler speech sounds, in a similar strategy as was used by Shaun. Limi would join strings of words or noises that sounded like words to say utterances such as "***Eh ah*** *bag in my locker*" (3 Jun) or "*Me* ***a ah*** *a train*" (3 Jun). The filler sounds disguised Limi's limited fluency and limited recall of functional words. Functional words are 'used in a sentence to establish the relationship between content words in the sentence'; they include pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and interrogatives (Fellowes & Oakley 2014, p. 25). '[F]illing the missing slot with sound' assists to 'develop a lengthier sentence' according to Tabors (2008, p. 53) who witnessed Leandro doing this in her own study. An observation of Limi, recorded in field note, mentioned that:

> He often utters long phrases which are not understood using long strings of words to communicate with enthusiasm somewhat in an incomprehensible sentence (FN May 1)

On the 3rd of June, Limi's teacher, Pam, celebrated Limi's growth by sharing in an informal conversation, "*Limi is putting words together now*", and "*It's lovely to see he is making progress*". Jade, also informed that Limi had advanced his English speaking ability to the extent that he was able to seek support from educators by saying, "*Teacher you want do this*" (12 Jun), to gain assistance towards the end of the study.

Context of culture: Albanian/Australian was Limi's ethnicity. **Albania** is situated in south-eastern Europe and has land borders with Greece, Macedonia, Kosovo, and Montenegro. Limi's family was from Kosovo (although some refer to the country as Kosova). It is advised that Albanian families traditionally practice strong kinship ties to extended family on the patriarchal side (FKA Children's Services 2009, p. 5). Limi lived with his paternal grandparents and thus had many adults at home to support him. Common Albanian religious beliefs include Islam, Albanian Orthodox, and Roman Catholic.

5.5.2 Social interactions

The following sub-sections describe: Limi's lack of matched bilingual support and his participation in English-only small group literacy and numeracy sessions; the people with whom Limi interacted; his interactions with MKOs; and Limi's minimal use of Albanian

Mainstreamed English-only small group sessions

Limi did not encounter educators or peers who spoke Albanian. He was allocated the mainstream small group session which was provided by either, Erl, Pam or Jade, in only English. In Limi's group, there was a diversity of children who spoke only English as well as children who spoke various other minority languages (who did not encounter matched-bilingual support). Limi's was fairly quiet during public group-times—he did not sing and volunteer answers to questions. Limi built close relationships with a variety of educators, due to the frequent compassionate support educators offered to console and comfort Limi when he cried for his mum during the earlier weeks of preschool; this is further detailed in the sub-section on emotional challenges. Limi often initiated private conversations with educators and requested assistance to do and find things (as illustrated in **Figure 5-25**).

Figure 5-25: Limi and educators (Photo 22 Feb, Photo 4 Jun and Photo 12 Jun)

Limi was dependent on adult support, as he was only three years old, and had recently transitioned from home care to preschool.

With whom Limi interacted

Over the course of the study, Limi befriended three regular English-speaking peers, Wendy, Nathan, and Clive, as shown in **Figure 5-26**. Limi's friend Nathan, for instance, was counted in 31 references, Wendy in 25 references, and Clive in 9. Limi would often sit next to Nathan, Wendy, or Clive at group-times, and was captured many a time with them during his

free choice playtime. As previously mentioned, Limi interacted regularly with a number of educators, none of which spoke Limi's first language.

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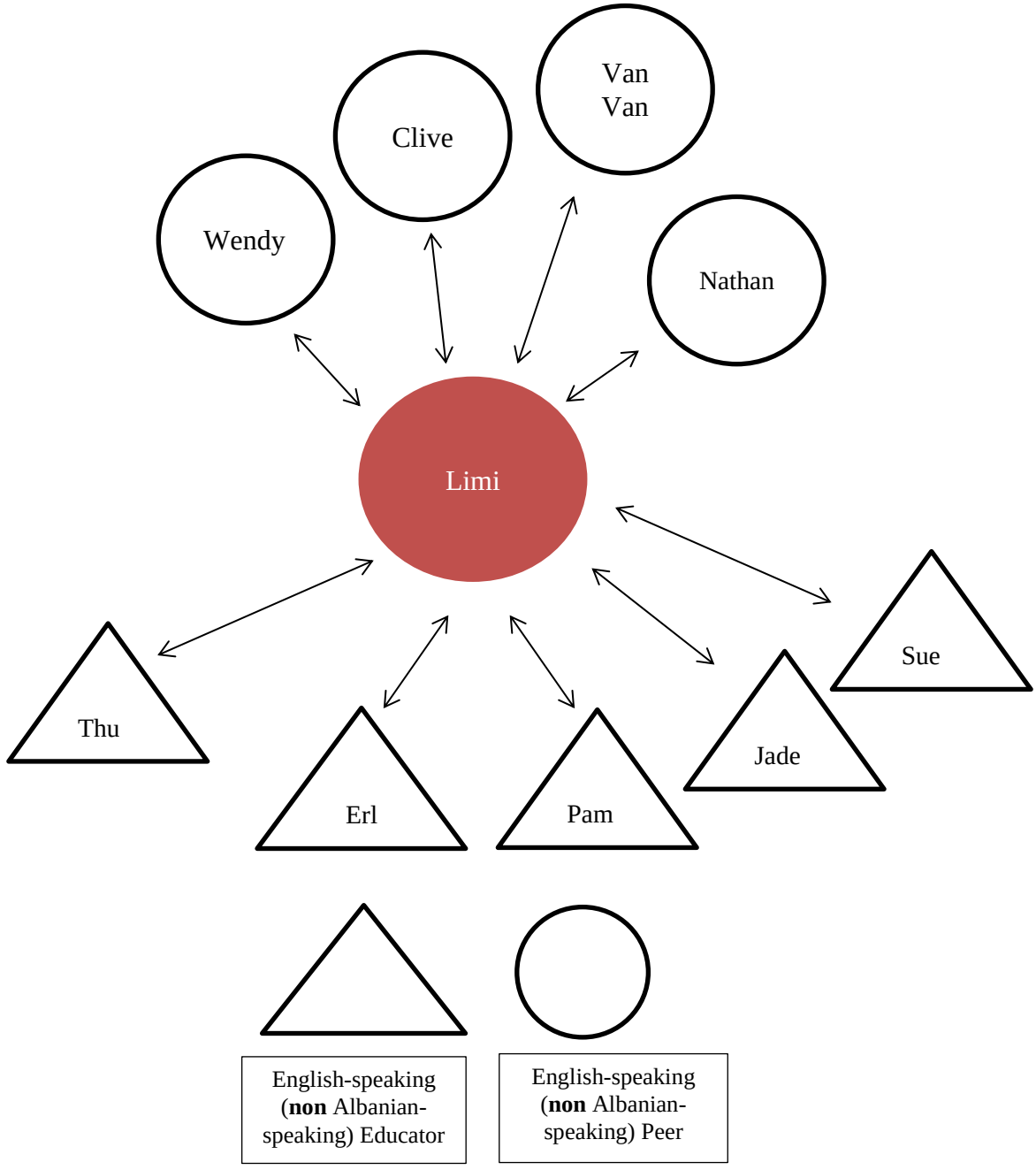

Figure 5-26: Limi's regular social interactions at preschool.

Speaking Albanian—Limi's first language

Limi rarely spoke Albanian at preschool. One opportunity for Limi to speak Albanian arose when Limi's mother visited the preschool and read a story with him. There was a dog in the illustrations and Limi said the Albanian word for "*dog*". He also pleaded with his mum to go home saying the equivalent of "*we go*" in Albanian according to his mother.

More knowledgeable others

Clive, Wendy and Nathan's friendships afforded Limi access to opportunities where he could use, listen to, and extend his productive and functional English with MKOs. In the early days, Limi was determined to join Wendy and her peers outside. He persistently attempted to insert himself into their play activities and followed them about during the first term. To begin with, Wendy and her friends were not particularly accommodating and did not welcome Limi to play with them. Eventually, however, Limi merged with their group. His perseverance paid off and they became close friends over time

In the following photograph (in **Figure 5-27**), taken by a Gumtree Preschool educator on one of my non-data collection days, Limi was captured sharing a '*Dear Zoo*' book with Wendy (the English version). The preschool's own photographic evidence triangulated the proposal that Wendy was a regular peer of Limi and confirmed her friend status. Interestingly, the Albanian bilingual version of the same '*Dear Zoo*' book had been taken home to read with Limi's family twelve days prior, as illustrated in **Figure 5-28** . Limi's familiarity with the story in his home language may have served as a bridge to prompt the discussion of the story in English with Wendy.

Figure 5-27: Limi reads the English version of *Dear Zoo* with Wendy (Photo 20 May).

Figure 5-28: Limi borrowed the Albanian version of *Dear Zoo* (Photo 8 May)

Limi regularly enjoyed the company of another peer, Nathan. The two boys were often observed engaging in dramatic play activities, as shown in **Figure 5-29**. There was also one occasion recorded when Limi asked Nathan a number of questions about the colour of a hoop. Limi and Nathan's friendship developed towards the latter weeks of the study and provided Limi with opportunities to express imaginative and heuristic functions of language. The boys pretended to be dogs, pretended to read books, and pretended to go shopping together.

Figure 5-29: Limi and Nathan role-playing

In the scene which follows in **Figure 5-30**, Nathan was captured selecting Limi to go outside and eat lunch with him. This photographic evidence was triangulated with the researcher's impressions and quantified data results to confirm that Nathan was a regular peer of Limi.

Figure 5-30: Nathan chooses Limi as a friend to go to lunch with (12 Jun MOV 933)

Limi displayed a sociable nature, and initiated play, both alongside and in involvement with peers and educators, on many occasions. Limi's sociable personality increased his exposure to and opportunities to speak English. The first picture ever taken of Limi for data collection captured Limi walking up to a child whom he had noticed from some distance away, as seen in **Figure 5-31**. Limi stopped and assisted this boy to attach a strip of velcro correctly to the back of a boy's smock (a vest worn to protect clothing during art activities). Limi was drawn to the company of people and did not appear hindered by his developing English in terms of interacting with others.

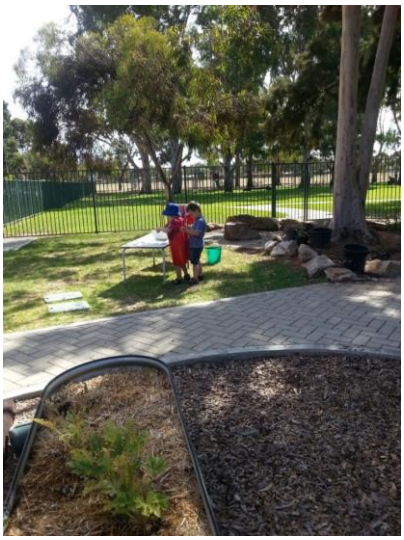

Figure 5-31: First picture of Limi assisting a child to put a smock on (Photo 7 Feb)

Towards the end of the study, Limi merged with Van Van (the fourth focus child) along with Van Van's regular peer, Clive. More details on Clive are presented in the section on Van Van's social interactions and regular peers.

Figure 5-32: Limi playing with Van Van and Clive (Photo 27 Mar)

Companions as a result of Limi's crying

Educators mentioned that they were pleased for Limi because he had found a supportive friend in Wendy who assisted him and eased his transition. Pam, Limi's teacher, referenced Limi and Wendy's budding friendship by contributing:

> 'She's been an absolute delight with him. When mum asked Wendy, "Why are you playing with him?", Wendy said "Mum it's not nice to cry"... and wait for this... "I really like his outfit". So mum is obviously dressing him [Limi] to Wendy's style' joked Pam. (AUDIO 712_ 0130 22 May)

Others aspects of Limi's emotional experience follow.

5.5.3 Emotional challenges

During the first weeks of data collection, many bilingual children were observed crying, and many children received emotional comfort from educators; this is detailed in the following field note.

> Pam comes outside and explains "*there are a lot of tears inside*". I had also just seen a girl on Kate's lap crying and a boy on a chair crying when I ventured in. (FN 5 Feb)

The first weeks of preschool, for many children, mark the new experience of separating from parents. This circumstance commonly leads to separation challenges for bilingual preschoolers, as well as monolingual English-speaking preschoolers. Separation challenges influence the field (the happenings that prompt a child to speak) as well as the tenor (the relationship between children and their interlocutors), within the context of situation.

Separation Challenges

Limi would cry for his mother throughout the day. The commencement of the study coincided with Limi's introduction to preschooling. During this time, Limi experienced an

emotional transition in the mornings when farewelling his mother (an image is shown in **Figure 5-33**, the left photo). Limi was observed clinging to his mother's body on several occasions. Limi often cried, and on his first preschool day, teacher Pam, reported that Limi hid under a table and resisted invitations to sit on the mat with all the other children at group-time. The preschool director responded to Limi's emotional challenge and quickly decided, in negotiation with Limi's mother, that Limi's transition to preschool would be tailored and stretched out gradually. Limi was introduced to half-day sessions before progressing to extended full-day visits after he had adapted to the new context over time. During the continuing weeks, educators responded to Limi's instrumental utterances as Limi communicated that he wanted his mother. Educators reassured Limi that his mummy would be coming back at lunch time. Limi was captured crying at the door and glancing repeatedly at the glass door during many mat times. Limi's mother would later return and enter that door later in the day. For some time, Limi also continued to sit on the perimeter of the mat, some distance away from the teacher at group-time (as shown in **Figure 5-33**, the second and third photos).

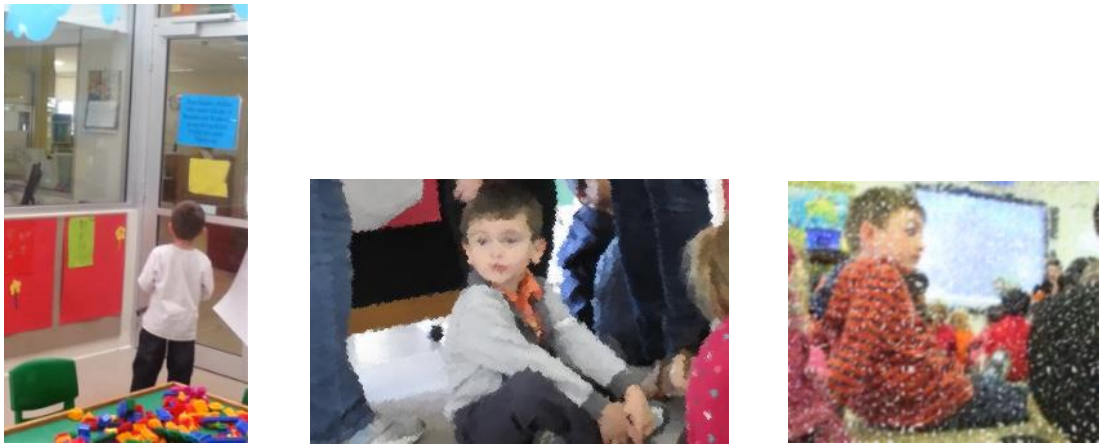

Figure 5-33: Limi, crying at the door, sitting on the perimeter and looking at the door (MOV 154)

Limi ended up changing his preschool attendance to different days the following term. In the second term, Limi started to attend full days of preschool. Ria, an educator, spoke of Limi's emotional challenge and explained:

> Every half an hour Limi asks "*When mummy come*?". He cried again on Tuesday. Was alone a lot. We discussed the new group of friends and having to start over again with friendships. (FN 16 May)

The context of Limi changing his days to a new group of peers entailed another emotional challenge. He had to establish new friendships again. Over the continuing three months, Limi built up his emotional resilience and eventually adjusted to the preschool routine. Establishing friendships and making connections with Wendy, Clive, and Nathan, as well

with educators, served to help Limi settle and afforded him interlocutors to explore his English.

Less knowledgeable others

On one unique occasion, Limi interacted with a young toddler-aged child who attended the integrated occasional care service. The smaller and younger boy joined Limi and Wendy in the home corner and the young boy proceeded to open and shut the cupboard doors. Limi's response and facial expressions appeared to display Limi's anger or annoyance. Limi stretched out his arm to move the small child. He pushed him away from the furniture and commanded, "*No!*", abruptly to occasional care child.

5.5.4 Functional language use

Limi's functional language can be related to his social interactions and his emotional experiences. The following **Figure 5-34** presents Limi's functional use of English, as collected over the six-month study.

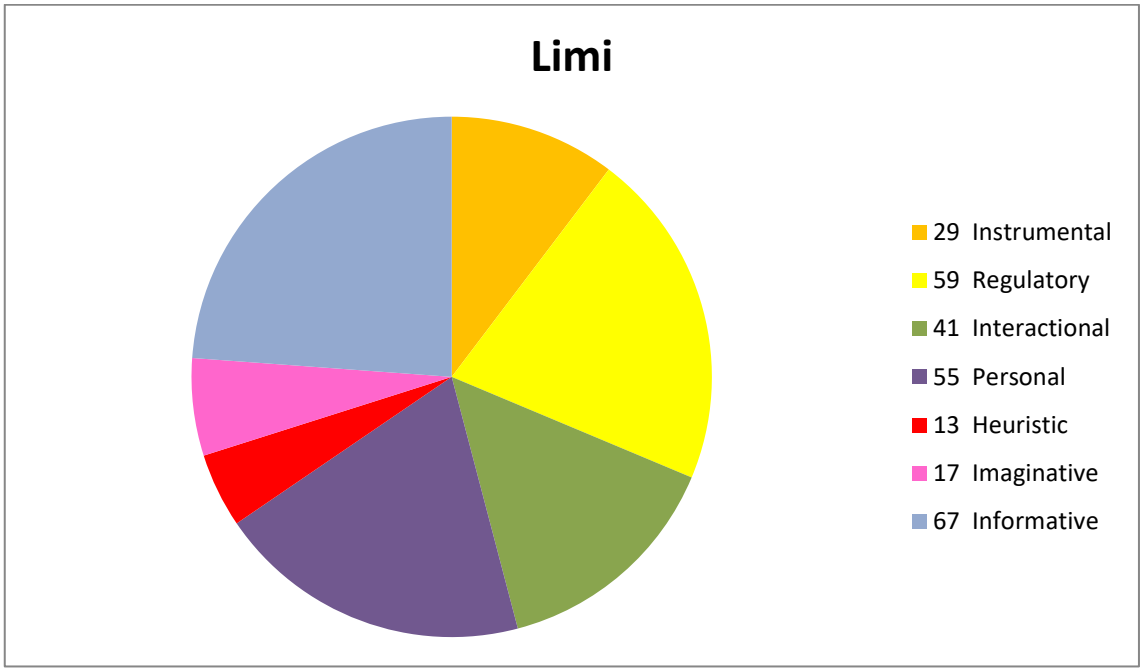

Figure 5-34: The proportions of Limi's functional language

The informative, regulatory and personal functions were most common

Limi often answered educators' questions during literacy/numeracy small group sessions saying, for example, "*De monkeys* (They're monkeys)", "*There a ca, a ca* (car)", "*There two monkeys and this a fish*", "*He's asleep*" and "*a green*", in response to questions ask during story reading. Limi often requested assistance from adult as, due to age, he was emotionally less mature and was reliant on social and emotional support when distressed. He requested:

"*Open this*", "*Trains*" (as in 'bring me back the trains'), "*Teacher, you want do this*" (as in 'can you do this?'), and "*here*" (as a direction to a teacher to put his lunch box here). Alternatively, Limi commanded to peers: "*Come play*", "*Wait*", "*Stop*", "*Get em puppy*", and "*You read it*". His personal statements were also third most common and consisted of: "*Me finished*", "*I found it*", "*I can't*", "*Got feet see* (as in 'I've got feet')", "*This a mine*", and "*And I do got a baby*".

Heuristic and imaginative functions were least common

Limi asked more questions than the other three focus children. It was queried whether his European culture encouraged questioning or if his family's home practices embraced questioning—Limi's father, for example, was studying law. Most of Limi's questions involved intonation saying "orange?", for example, while raising his pitch, rather than using questioning words. Limi did, however, ask, "*A what um dis?*", "*Why?*", and "*What that one?*"

Limi did not sing. Perhaps there were cultural reasons for his lack of singing, or perhaps singing was not practised in the home. Although the findings suggest that Limi did not role-play often, qualitative details suggested that Limi mostly mimed quietly during his many role-play scenarios. Limi did, however, utter "*Dragon*", "*I'm a puppy*" and "*me get fish*" while role-playing later in the study.

The instrumental functions was more common for Limi than other children

Due to Limi experiencing separation challenges, and often wanting his mother, he communicated: "*Mum*", three times, "*mam*" twice and "*mummy*" once. He also said: "*I want my hat*", "*I want those put one*", "*I wanna do da der* (I want to do that there)", "*Where's water*" (wanting water while waiting for his turn at the tap), and "*Bigger, me want a bigger*", to educators. He was socially-emotionally dependent on educators' support to meet his needs.

Examples of the interactional function

Examples of Limi's interactional phrases included "*My turn*", "*oh, bye*", "*We should play in ner* (there)", "*Hey*", "*Sowie* (sorry)", and "*How about me*?" to peers and adults. Interactional phrases were fourth common.

More information on Limi's functional language, in relation to social interactions and emotional challenges, is provided in Chapter Six: Synthesising the Themes.

5.6 Van Van's experiences

5.6.1 Van Van's profile (Burmese/English bilingual)

Figure 5-35: Van Van, the four-year-old Chin/English bilingual preschooler

Background: Van Van (shown in **Figure 5-35**), aged four and nine months at the commencement of the study, was born in Malaysia during his family's migration path to Australia from Burma (the country also known as Myanmar). Van Van was two when he arrived in Australia and had not previously been exposed to English. Van Van lived with his mother, father, and two sisters (a younger two-year-old and three-year-old) with whom he spoke in Chin. Van Van was the eldest son. He was a simultaneous bilingual, according to McLaughlin's (1984, p. 101) definition, because he was introduced to the learning of EAL before the age of three—prior to starting preschool, Van Van attended childcare full-time. He was a late enrolment at Gumtree Preschool and had missed two terms of his full-year governmental preschool entitlement. Van Van only attended Gumtree Preschool for two terms before moving on to school.

Van Van's family spoke only Chin (a Burmese language) among themselves. Van Van's mother explained that when Van Van attempted to speak to her in English, she would always respond to him in Chin. She also confirmed that she wanted Van Van to retain his home language. Records of the local community's Burmese (Chin) speaking population could not be retrieved as Chin speakers were less than .1% of the local population, or less than 20 in number, at the time of the study (id. the population experts 2017b). There were no other Chin speakers at the preschool.

Stage of English language learning: Van Van's EAL ability was more advanced than what the preschool educators had first assumed during his enrolment. This underestimation occurred because the educators had not been informed of Van Van's prior childcare history when he enrolled at Gumtree Preschool. It was originally assumed that Van Van was new to English; however, the parent interview that was conducted in this study later revealed that Van Van had, in fact, attended many days of childcare prior to preschool.

Van Van spoke confidently using his own encodings of English utterances, as is typical of Tabors' (2008) productive language period. He said, for example, "*be careful, scissors, they're sharp!*". Van Van's utterances often consisted of various articulation errors and word omissions. Van Van structured phrases such as "*My daddy go in my hou. He coming hou*" (5 Feb), in this case omitting the 'is' and mispronouncing house. Van Van surprisingly used

several colloquialisms, such as "*Oh my God*" (7 Feb), at preschool. He could sing parts of popular pop music songs, such as *Gangnam Style*, and sang the lyrics, "*Whoo pang gangnam style. Heeeeeey sexy lady. Huh*!". Gangnam style was a popular Korean song with international radio coverage at the time of the study in 2013.

Van Van had extended his skills beyond one-word and two-word utterances (i.e. telegraphic speech) and could create his own three-word formulations *albeit* with grammatical inconsistencies. Examples include his informing of: "*My bag gone!*" (7 Feb), "*I was dig*" (7 Feb), "*This is wood*" (27 Mar), and "*That's the eggs. One hatching. This a egg here*" (1 May). Van Vans grammatical approximations, mistaken articles and incorrect tenses demonstrated Van Van's ability to encode rather than copy formulas. Over time, Van Van's expanding expressive vocabulary, and improving use of grammar, enabled him to command and instructs others to: "*Look at my mix*" (2 May), "*Look! There an aeroplane. Look!*" (2May), "*Look at map*" (2 May), "*a daddy one, look!*" (2 May), "*someone, look!*" (2 May), "*There, up in the house*" (2May), and say "*Hay Clive, come on, let's follow her map*" (27 Jun). Van Van also progressed to using multiple adjectives to describes things such as a worm as, "*little wobbling tickling here*" (7 May).

Whilst Van Van was capable of expressing himself verbally, he still had progress to make in his appropriate use of English syntax at the completion of the study. Examples include statements such as "*look he crying*" (13 Jun), "*It can eat all tree*" (4 Jul), and "*We gone put water in here.*" (4 Jul). Van Van did, however, make progress in stringing together longer utterances to communicate multiple details at the end of data collection, saying, "*It's go there. It go straight up. It go down. It go there. It go fast the train. It's say map*." (4 Jul), to explain his drawing of a map. Van Van also used private speech at times; a strategy which enabled him to actively rehearse new vocabulary and improve his spoken automaticity (Gass and Mackey 2006; Saville-Troike 2012). He once repeated, "*Gorilla*" (10 Apr), quietly to himself, after a friend, Clive, corrected him when Van Van called the animal a monkey. On another occasion Van Van repeated, "*Rope*" (14 May), softly to himself, after hearing another child label the textile.

Of all four focus children, Van Van had encountered the greatest prior exposure to English. He presented as having few emotional challenges and was observed to be the most confident speaker of English among the four focus children. Van Van would often volunteer his participation at group-times and he was also the oldest focus child participating in the study.

Context of Culture: Van Van's ethnicity was Burmese/Australian (although he had also lived in Malaysia for a brief period). **Burma** is located in south-east Asia and is bordered by

Bangladesh, China, India, Laos, and Thailand. Chin is one of the many languages of the 100 ethnic groups in Burma. Van Van was born in Malaysia, and spent a short time there before moving to Australia. His parents originated from Myanmar.

5.6.2 Social interactions

The following sub-sections detail: Van Van's mainstreamed English-only small group sessions; the people with whom he interacted; Van Van's use of Chin; and his interactions with MKOs.

Mainstreamed English-only small group sessions

Van Van was allocated to a small group with children who spoke English-only and children from other minority language backgrounds other than English (LBOTE) who did not have matched-bilingual support. The sessions were delivered by Erl, Jade, and Pam, (as shown in **Figure 5-36**, **Figure 5-37** and **Figure 5-38**). These same teachers appeared to be the educators that Van Van regularly interacted with during playtimes.

Figure 5-36: Van Van looking at an iPad with teacher, Pam, during free play (Photo 2 May)

Figure 5-37: Van Van reading with teacher, Jade, during free play (Photo 6 June)

Figure 5-38: Van Van sits next to Clive during Erl's literacy session (Photo 28 Feb)

The small English-only group sessions, that were available to Van Van, consolidated Van Van's relationships with English-speaking educators and English-speaking peers.

With whom Van Van interacted

Clive, Van Van's peer, and educators, Pam, Erl, and sometimes Jade, were the people with whom Van Van regularly interacted. They are shown in Figure **5-39**. Whilst the diagram appears to suggest that Van Van had few friends, he was observed playing among many children in brief encounters at preschool. Only Clive and sometimes Limi, however, were repeatedly identified as peers who regularly interacted with Van Van.

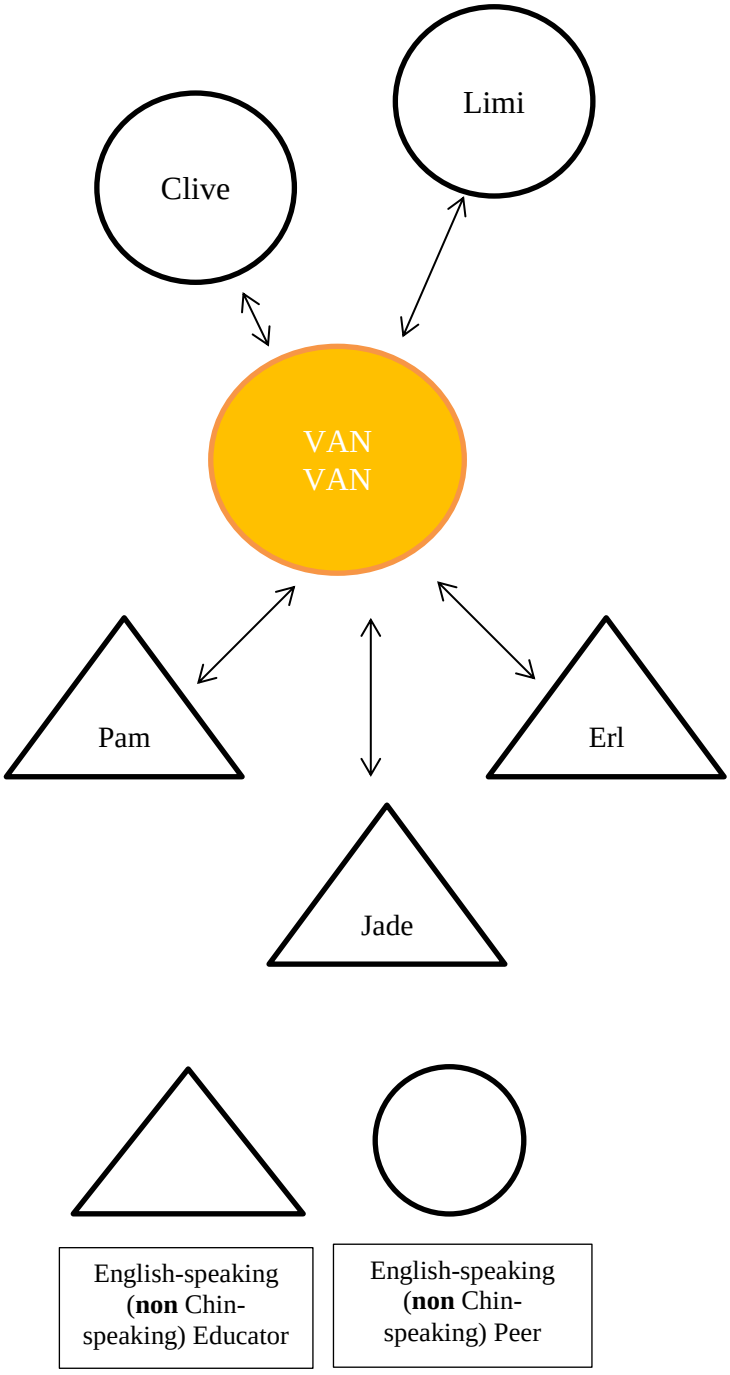

Figure 5-39: Van Van's regular peers and educators in his social interactions

Clive (whom is shown sitting with Van Van in **Figure 5-38**), was an English-only speaking child. Due to Clive's regular presence with Van Van, Clive's father was interviewed to uncover details about Clive's cultural and linguistic background. Clive was born in Australia and had an English-speaking father who was also born in Australia. Clive's father identified Clive's mother as being Filipino. Clive only spoke English at home, not Tagalog (his mother's first language)—despite his father explaining that he had hoped Clive would have

learned to speak Tagalog (the language of the Philippines). Tagalog was spoken by Erl, Van Van, Limi and Clive's teacher; however, Erl did not converse with Clive in Tagalog.

There were a total of 58 references of Van Van and Clive's interactions in the data. No other play-mate stood out as being regular. The collection of images in **Figure 5-40** illustrates Clive and Van Van's numerous interactions.

Figure 5-40: Van Van regularly playing with Clive

Clive was also captured on one occasion selecting Van Van during the 'will you be a friend of mine and skip with me' circle game (MOV 823). On one occasion, Van Van and Clive drew a picture together demonstrating their close friendship. The drawing sample, again, triangulated the proposition that Clive was Van Van's regular and influential peer. Erl also mentioned that the two boys had explained to her, "*We are best friends*", when describing the drawing that depicted Van Van and Clive holding hands together (as illustrated in **Figure 5-41**).

Figure 5-41: Van Van's picture of himself and Clive holding hands (Photo 23 May)

Van Van and Clive often selected one another as partners for various preschool activities. Van Van and Clive's co-dependency was further displayed on another occasion when Clive approached me and asked, "*Where's Van Van?*" (FN 7 Jun). Van Van spoke English with Clive.

Speaking Chin—Van Van's first language

Van Van spoke mostly English during social interactions at preschool, aside from only two early occasions where he spoke dilingual discourse to Erl (the educator of Filipino, not Burmese, background). The dilingual discourse was spoken on Van Van's first day of preschool—dilingual discourse is usage of the home language spoken to people who do not understand it (Saville-Troike 1987). The following field note details Van Van's dilingual discourse utterances.

> Van Van speaks inaudibly among other children. Erl discovers a spider and Van Van's attention is drawn to it. He utters phrases assumedly in Chin and says a lot of phrases with conviction and confidence. He gestures his arms wide to possibly express big. He stares as the teachers squashing the spider. (FN 5 Feb)
>
> Later…
>
> Van Van chants, "*Ni a do*", when Erl opens the nearby shed. (FN 5 Feb)

It is possible that Erl's Asian cultural appearance led Van Van to experiment with whether she understood Chin. In the end, he realised, he would have to speak English with others.

More knowledgeable others

Due to Van Van not encountering matched-bilingual support, Van Van experienced undivided opportunities to use and extend his EAL skills during his play with Clive. A snapshot of movie-mode data, illustrated in **Figure 5-42**, captured the two boys performing

and singing songs ‘Gangnam style’ and ‘Spider-man’ together while taking turns to drum on an outside table using sticks. ♬ “*Spider-man Spider-man. There’s no man like Spider-man here, here comes spider- man!*” ♬ (27 Mar), sang Van Van.

Figure 5-42: Van Van and Clive sing Spider-man (27 Mar MOV 341)

Van Van’s relationships with Clive resulted in the two speaking exclusively in English—with Clive being an MKO speaker of English than Van Van. The following vignette provides an example of Clive’s corrective feedback as an MKO, as he expands Van Van’s technical vocabulary of animal classifications while they play with animal figurines. **Figure 5-43** displays the associated image.

Van Van:	*Oh oh oh oh* (making a gorilla sound)
	Hello hello!
	Dis e monkey in there.
	Hello monkey there!
Clive:	*That's a gorilla! Gorilla!* (corrects and repeats Clive)
Van Van:	*Gorilla.* (Van Van copies softly after Clive)
	No! (Van Van’s block tower falls)
	This gorilla.
Clive:	*Hey! What is this one? ... A bear!*
Van Van:	*Oh. This e a bear too. This a bear*. (Van Van holds up a panda)
Clive:	*That's a, um, panda*. (corrects Clive)
Van Van:	*E look like bear too.* (Van Van says to himself after Clive tells him it’s a panda)

(10 Apr MOV 466)

In this short excerpt, the affordance of Van Van’s interactions with Clive (an MKO), is demonstrated. Clive (the child wearing red in the photograph) introduces to Van Van (the child wearing green in the photograph) new, more specialised, and correct extensions of vocabulary: “*Gorilla!*” and “*Panda*”.

Figure 5-43: The ZPD interaction between Clive and Van Van (10 Apr MOV 466)

In summary, Clive offered mentorship and extension while supporting Van Van's EAL learning throughout the study. Clive, as a role model and MKO, demonstrated to Van Van grammatically correct and accurately pronounced English during social interactions. Clive was not a threat to Van Van's confidence; nor was Limi, who could have been considered as an LKO for Van Van,

5.6.3 Emotional challenges

Van Van did not appear to display any obvious emotional challenges during the study, other than some minor expected nervousness on Van Van's first day of preschool. On Van Van's first day at Gumtree Preschool, he wore a Spiderman branded hoodie. The hoodie zipped up, all the way over his face. On several occasions, Van Van, stood outside by the verandah pole and observed the children playing around him. He covered his face with his hoodie and zipped it all the way up. Perhaps the disguise gave Van Van a sense of bravery, comfort, or invisibility while hiding behind the mask. Erl, the Tagalog speaking teacher, joined Van Van twice and unzipped his hoodie each time. After every unzipping, Van Van re-zipped his hoodie, once Erl walked away. He was not deterred.

Confidence from prior experiences at childcare and a willingness to participate

For the most part, during the six-month study, Van Van displayed confidence. He often raised his arm (as shown in **Figure 5-44**) to answer the questions that were posed by teachers at small group-time, and volunteered to participate in large group-time activities. This was illustrated previously in **Figure 4-2** in the previous chapter.

.

Figure 5-44: Van Van confidently raises his arm to participate verbally at group-time

It was noted that Van Van often sat in the front row at group-times and participated enthusiastically in song and games, as suggested in the following field notes.

> Van Van sits up front. (FN 7 Mar)
>
> Van Van in front row. (FN 13 Mar)
>
> Van Van wriggled up closer to the front row. (FN 2 May)

Van Van's prior experience of attending childcare, and his further progressed development in communicating in English, provided an emotional resource fueling his confidence when speaking English. Less data was captured on Van Van due to his minimal episodes of emotional events, hence a lesser quantity of utterances were collected to analyse according to Halliday's (2004) initial language functions.

5.6.4 Functional language use

Van Van's functional language use was related to his imaginative social interactions and emotional confidence to answer questions. The following **Figure 5-45** presents Van Van's functional use of English, as collected over the six-month study.

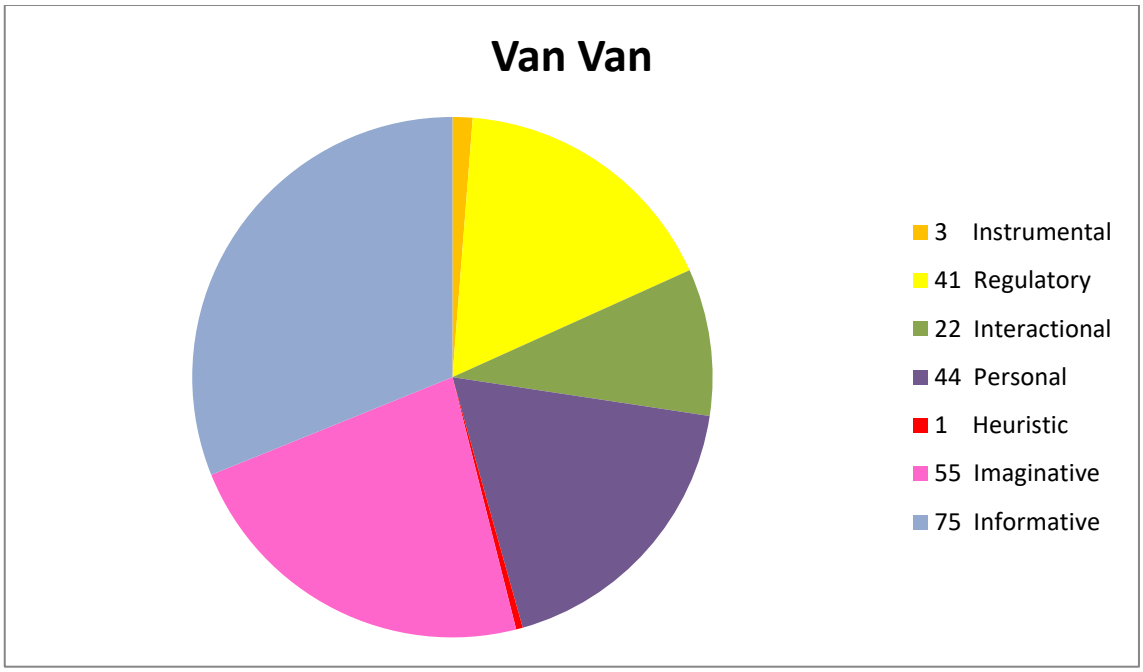

Figure 5-45: The proportions of Van Van's functional language

The informative, imaginative and regulatory functions were most common

Van Van was socio-emotionally confident to put his hand up and answer questions, saying, "*Here*" (to answer the educator's question "Where is the biggest worm?"), "*Seeping, one seeping*" (meaning 'sleeping that one's sleeping' to answer to the educator's question "Why didn't […] say 'yes'?"), as well as, "*This a wood.*", "*That's a hole.*", and "*There a leg*".

Van Van often role-played and enjoyed singing songs such as "♫ *I can sing a rainbow*" and "♫ *Put a spot over here*." with educators. Van Van engaged in imaginary play frequently where he also learned new to say new words: "*A bear!*", "*Oh my aeroplane*." and "*We find some. He help in on brick*" (while role-playing constructing with peers).

He regulated and requested assistance from educators: "*a roll* (roll it up)" and "*Me sticky tape* (give me the sticky tape), and commanded to peers: "*stop now*", "*don't that!*", and "*be careful*".

Heuristic and instrumental functions were least common

Being independent, and the eldest child in the study, Van Van, did not need to express his wants as often to others to get things done. He did, however, answer, "*yup*", and ,"*yeah*", to questions when educators asked if he wanted something. He was only observed questioning once, "Where honey?"

Personal function

Van Van's personal utterances included "*I get my puppy* (I've got a puppy)", "*I run* (I'm running)", "*I go finish it*" (I'm going to finish it), "*I'm ready to go now*", and "*I don like* (I don't like)".

Interactional function

Van Van's interactional utterances were rare, perhaps due to him having fewer regular peers to interact with. Van Van mostly played regularly with Clive and sometimes Limi. He was observed saying, "*thankyou*", to his teacher and calling, "*Me, me!*" and "*no I'll go here*", to organise his turn with his peers.

More information on Van Van's functional language, in relation to social interactions and emotional challenges, is provided in Chapter Six: *Synthesising the Themes*.

5.7 Summarising the children's experiences

The present chapter has provided personal, interpersonal and cultural-institutional contextual information about Patty, Shaun, Limi and Van Van's experiences as bilingual preschoolers at Gumtree Preschool, while drawing attention to their functional speech. Data relating to the focus children's social interactions and use of first and additional languages have been presented; data illustrating their emotional challenges of shyness, developing confidence, and responding to separation challenges have been described; and finally, data identifying children's functional use of English has been quantified and descriptively explained in relation to the children's social and emotional experiences. The data highlights how the context, in relation to cultural, social and emotional sub-contexts, impact upon what the bilingual children say.

The following chapter synthesises the findings and identifies common and contrasting themes among the four bilingual children concerning: their social context—highlighting with whom they interacted and what languages they spoke; their emotional context—their emotional challenges; and their functional language use.

6. Synthesising the Themes

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter five described many of the personal and interpersonal experiences of Patty, Shaun, Limi, and Van Van. The present chapter, however, synthesises the themes that arose from exploring the four children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, as well as chapter four's information on educators' strategies to support the bilingual preschoolers. This chapter therefore, also reveals cultural-institutional impacts influencing bilingual children's learning. Thematic analysis identified patterns across data sets that emerged during reflective journaling and memoing, and resulted from deliberations on the outcomes of *a priori*, in vivo, and inductive coding of the raw data. The social interactions themes that emerged and developed in this study were: balancing bilingualism, branching-out, and the role of less knowledgeable others (LKOs) as well as more knowledgeable others (MKOs). The social interactions themes closely related to the interpersonal lens within SCT and the relationships or tenor aspect of the context of situation, in terms of with whom focus children interacted.

The emotional challenges themes that developed during the study were: children's observed discomfort when communicating (incorporating shyness, trust, and confidence), and separation challenges as parents departed. The themes were associated with characteristics of tenor such as power, status, age, and roles which influenced preschoolers' speech with different interlocutors. Separation challenges, such as when preschoolers cried for their mother, was also associated with the field aspect of the context of situation—the emotional experiential circumstances, or context, which motivated children to speak.

Thematic analysis of the frequency counts of children's functional language use led to highlight two themes. The first reflected on the predominance of the informative function—this was connected to children's social interactions involving educators' or peers' facilitation, or prompting, of questions. The second functional language theme identified the lack of the heuristic function of language (encompassing inquiry-type questioning)—this drew attention

to the absence of acts whereby educators' elicited or facilitated question-asking from the focus children in the observational data.

The final overarching theme of the thesis proposes the interrelatedness of social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, and highlights how the broader or various sub-contexts (cultural, situational, social/interpersonal, personal and emotional) surround or relate to a text, or weave together, to influence what one says. Several examples, detailing children's socio-emotional experiences in relation to the seven initial functions, support this proposition. The findings draw attention to the influence of emotions, and their potential application within the field and the tenor aspects of children's context of situation—the systemic functional linguistics theory of language production.

6.2 Social interactions themes

The three social interactions themes that emerged from this study—balancing bilingualism, branching-out, and the identification of the role of LKOs in partnerships, in addition to MKOs—are described in the following sections. The themes resulted from answering the three sub-questions:

1.1.1 With whom do bilingual preschoolers interact regularly at preschool?

1.1.2 What languages do bilingual preschoolers speak during these interactions?

1.1.3 What language learning opportunities do the various social interactions afford?

Theme 1: Balancing bilingualism

The concept of *balancing bilingualism* draws attention to the balance of opportunities that bilingual preschoolers encountered to use both their first language and additional English language at preschool. It emerged as a result of noticing that the social interactions and languages spoken by the two children who encountered bilingual first language support, Patty and Shaun, were considerably different from the other two children, Limi and Van Van, who were without first-language speaking peers or bilingually-matched educators at the preschool. Data were presented in the previous chapter to highlight and contrast the regular peers and educators with whom the four children interacted—their interpersonal experiences. Patty and Shaun interacted with mainly bilingually-matched peers and bilingually-matched educators, whereas Limi and Van Van only interacted with peers and educators in English—no one spoke Limi or Van Van's first languages with them, other than their parents who spent a little time at the preschool during the mornings. Their Albanian and Chin languages were mostly silenced during the study, as a result of the cultural-institutional practices of the preschool and lack of interpersonal opportunities to communicate with others in their first languages.

The frequencies of first language usage spoken by each of the focus children in **Figure 6-1** highlight the affordance of the circumstance of Patty and Shaun having bilingually-matched peers and adults, who offered a certain tenor, to value, maintain, and preserve their productive language skills in their first languages. All children were greeted in Vietnamese hearing the word, "*cháo*", daily and the group of children responded back, "*cháo*", productively. Patty was recorded taking turns speaking Vietnamese on 177 occasions during the study, and Shaun was recorded speaking Khmer 73 times (as presented in **Figure 6-1**). Limi, in contrast, was only recorded speaking Albanian twice during observations, for example, when saying to his mother, '*qen*', the word for dog when he read a bilingual book with her. Van Van also spoke Chin only twice in dilingual discourse to Erl. Limi and Van Van, did, on the other hand, experience abundant opportunities to interact with English-speaking peers and educators in comparison to Patty and Shaun. The absence of bilingually-matched peers at Gumtree Preschool forced Limi and Van Van to only rehearse and extend their English. Their first languages were unintentionally muted due to the lack of the affordance of bilingually-matched social interactions.

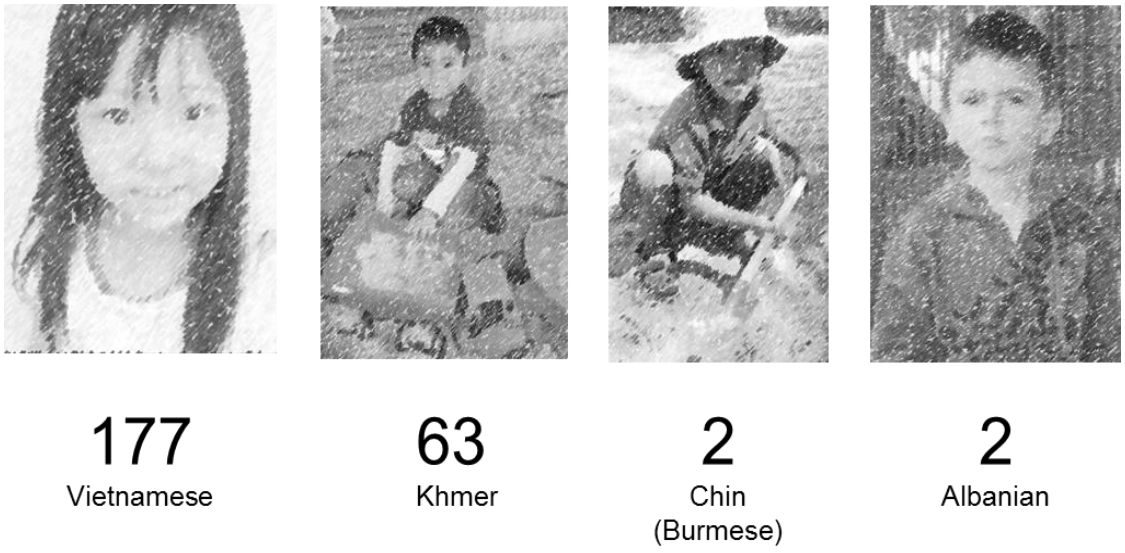

Figure 6-1: Focus children's frequency of turns speaking in their first languages

The frequency of first language utterances for the children who encountered bilingual support out-numbered the first language utterances of children who did not encounter bilingual support. Limi and Van Van displayed a disproportionate use of English in comparison to their first language at preschool; whereas Patty and Shaun's use of both their first and additional languages was more evenly proportioned—more *balanced*, hence the term 'balancing bilingualism'. The Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking children experienced ample opportunities to produce utterances in their first languages and could code-switch or translanguage—'shuttle between languages' (Canagarajah 2011, p. 401). However,

restrictions during Patty and Shaun's attempts to branch-out and extend their friendships were experienced; thus, Patty and Shaun encountered fewer opportunities to play with children additional to their bilingually-matched peers.

Theme 2: Branching-out

The *branching-out* concept refers to the interpersonal act of bilingual preschoolers extending their social circle and playing with peers, additional to their bilingually-matched peer group members. Branching-out was evidenced as a social challenge for Patty and Shaun, who had many Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking interlocutors available. Snapshots of movie-mode footage, transcripts and commentary presented in the previous chapter highlighted the tension that Patty and Shaun encountered from bilingually-matched peers when they made efforts to 'branch-out' and play with additional peers in English-as-lingua franca.

'Branching-out' became an inductive theme that emerged during the study to define the circumstance when children who identified with a bilingually-matched social group started extending their friendships to interact with English speakers from different language backgrounds to themselves. Thematic analysis of observations and verbal contributions from early childhood workers-bilingual (ECWB) revealed that Patty, more so than Shaun, experienced challenges when branching-out from her usual Vietnamese-speaking peers. When Patty eventually achieved success in branching-out more regularly to play with Linda, she then encountered the affordance of having an MKO whom she could ask questions to in English-as-lingua franca. Linda's answers then extended Patty's productive vocabulary.

Theme 3: More knowledgeable others and less knowledgeable others

The renowned MKO concept derives from Vygotsky's notion of a more capable peer or adult who supports a person's learning. In this study, the MKO title was given to children or adults whom had more advanced skills in productive English in comparison to the focus child in question. The LKO concept, the opposite notion, emerged from the present study, particularly in response to observations of Shaun and Sarah's partnership and Limi's interaction with a toddler from the occasional care service. The LKO title was used to refer to a child who was less experienced or less competent in producing and speaking English than the focus child in question. The LKO term is not intended as a general title representing children's overall knowledge, but rather it is context specific to productive English speech.

Each of the four focus children interacted with regular MKO peers and adults, and MKOs were the most common form of interlocutors available for the bilingual preschoolers. Detailed observations in the previous chapter displayed various affordances of MKOs such as extending focus children's language learning through the provision of: demonstrations,

modelling, conversational extension, questioning, repetition, and corrective feedback—affordances relating to Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974, p. 98) concept of scaffolding, Long's (1996, p. 452) negotiation for meaning, Hirschler's (1994) peer help, and Swain's (2000, 2005) theory of the valuable role of output.

Limi built strong consistent interpersonal relationships with Wendy, Clive, and Nathan, all monolingual English speakers who modelled English and involved Limi in various English-speaking exchanges. Patty, interacted mostly with MKOs such as her more competent and confident bilingual Vietnamese/English-speaking peers, and also Linda, the more confident and competent bilingual English speaker mentioned previously regarding branching-out occasions. Shaun developed a regular relationship with his MKO, Vincent, a Khmer speaker who was more competent and confident in speaking English than Shaun. Shaun also encountered Zia during his bilingual small group sessions, a girl who served as a competent role model who answered questions that Shaun could not, or did not, answer.

The educational formations of MKO peer partnerships assisted and extend learners' productive and functional use of English (such as Clive correcting specific vocabulary for Van Van). In some circumstances MKOs would answer questions posed by the focus preschoolers (such as Linda answering Patty's, "*What is that?*", question with, "*It's a owl*".). MKOs collaborated and played roles with focus preschoolers during imaginative play, negotiated turns, and provided phrases that the focus preschoolers could repeat and learn from. Imitation (a Behaviorist technique of learning), receiving exposure to language (a Nativist strategy for learning), and encouraging pushed output or sustaining purposeful contextual communication (an Interactionalist way of learning), were afforded to focus children when they were in partnerships with MKOs. Metaphorically, the MKO's pulled the focus preschoolers towards their own skill level of speaking EAL.

The alternative LKO theme, arising from Shaun and Sarah's relationship, drew attention to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD). However, in this situation the theme reversed the focus on MKOs by combining Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974) scaffolding concept with emotions-considerate interpretations of observations involving LKO peers. The motivational presence of Sarah, an LKO, attracted attention in this study as she appeared to provoke productive language from Shaun, the Khmer-speaking focus child. An occasional care LKO peer also appeared to motivate an emotional and functional language response from Limi. The younger child led Limi to regulate and command, 'no!'. In this study, the presence of an LKO was seen to metaphorically push or promote focus preschoolers to a position of higher status or skill, and assertiveness. The LKO's presence changed the social

dynamics within social interactions and elevated learners to MKO status. Focus preschoolers' newly appointed positions, as a more capable peer, was theorised to be associated with focus children's' increasing displays of confidence and their developing willingness to communicate. Having an LKO potentially raised focus children's self-esteem, and sense of competence in speaking aloud, when in the company of their less capable peers. It appeared that the focus children became more powerful and less fearful.

The LKO notion differs from an MKO, as it identifies a peer in a reverse scenario who does not scaffold the focus child in the traditional sense by leading the learner forward by demonstration or modelling, but rather, the LKO pushes the focus learner forward (or gives them a step up onto a new platform) to produce EAL due to being a mentor for the LKO peer who is less capable. It seems that an LKO is less intimidating (and offers a form of frustration control). An LKO is a person who the focus child learner can model to and communicate comfortably, with self-assurance, and without feeling shy.

6.3 Emotional Challenges

The two emotional challenges themes—children's observed discomfort when communicating (incorporating shyness vs confidence) and separation challenges—emerged from answering the following emotional challenges questions:

> 1.2.1 What emotional challenges are encountered by bilingual preschoolers who are in the early stages of learning to communicate in EAL?
>
> 1.2.2 How are emotional challenges incorporated into children's context of situation and how do they influence children's productive language learning??

Theme 1: Shyness and apprehension versus confidence

The theme of shyness and apprehension, or observed discomfort versus confidence while communicating in English, evolved from noting children's potential *'un' willingness to communicate*—a play on MacIntyre (2002) and Barraclough, Christophel, and McCroskey's (1988) 'willingness to communicate' concept. The labelling of the 'un'willingness to communicate theme was later discarded in the study as it was later considered that willingness could not have been justified without the focus children's confirmation of whether they were or were not willing. Separating subjective and objective interpretations was a problematic aspect of analysing emotions without first-hand feedback from the children concerned. Transcripts, field notes, interviews, and photographs were presented in the previous chapter to identify Patty's hesitancy to speak with adults as well as Shaun's development of confidence after having encountered an LKO. The two bilingually-supported children's displays of apprehension and shyness also occurred when the children were in

front of group audiences. English-only speaking adults also influenced the tenor surrounding children's speech and appeared to stir emotions for Patty and Shaun, thus reducing their opportunities for productive speech.

Patty's confidence to speak EAL was observed when she engaged with her age-mate peer Linda. Linda's status as an age-mate on equal-footing, albeit slightly smaller in stature than Patty, illuminated a contrast to Patty's experiences when the educators interacted with her. It was also considered that Patty's Vietnamese cultural customs, norms, and values impacted upon Patty's language choices during her functional communication with adult educators, in contrast to her peers or age-mates. Patty's educators were older, had more power, and held a professional status as teacher with regards to their relationship with Patty. Educators seemed to often ask Patty questions which appeared to intimidate her, whereas peers did not question her often. In private interpersonal experiences with peers, there was less public risk of losing face should Patty not know the answer. In connection with tenor, Rigg and Hudelson (1986) state that children learn languages when they feel good about themselves and the people who surround them. The next emotional challenge, however, occurred as a result of the absence of children's parents.

Theme 2: Separation challenges

The theme of *separation challenges* emerged from Limi, the youngest focus child's experience as he adjusted to his mother's departure and transitioned to preschool. Multiple excerpts from field note observations, educators' contributions, and photographs captured the focus child's challenging adjustment to being without his mother. Crosse (2007, p. 40) suggests that 'the speed at which children settle depends on their level of anxiety and previous experience of parting from their parent or carer, their previous 'away from home' experiences and their ability to communicate their needs'. Van Van on the other hand was experienced in childcare prior to enrolling at preschool and was much more confident although he was newly enrolled at this particular preschool.

Limi's emotional needs also appeared to motivate him to communicate that he 'wanted' his mum often—an instrumental function. In a positive light, Limi's emotional sadness and tears many a time afforded him with more opportunities to socially and verbally interact with educators, when he sought them out and received comfort from them regarding his mother's return. Educators' act of providing reassurance afforded Limi comprehensible input. Crying, in effect, was a catalyst that prompted Limi express the instrumental function as well as to receive further English language exposure from a variety of educators who cared for Limi.

6.4 Functional language use

The two 'functional language' themes that emerged from this study, that resulted from combining and comparing the four focus preschoolers' data, identified the most and least common language function of the four bilingual preschoolers' in EAL. The themes emerged from the functional language questions:

> 1.3.1 What are the frequencies of bilingual preschoolers' functional language—*instrumental, regulatory, personal, interactional, heuristic, imaginative*, and *informative*—when speaking EAL at preschool?
>
> 1.3.2 Which language functions are most and least commonly expressed?

The combination of the four children's pie-charts are presented in the following **Figure 6-2** to identify individual focus children's division of the seven language functions and to illustrate comparisons and contrasts among the four focus preschoolers' functional language use. The codings were audited by an additional experience EAL trained teacher to confirm their accuracy and to correct mistaken codings as required.

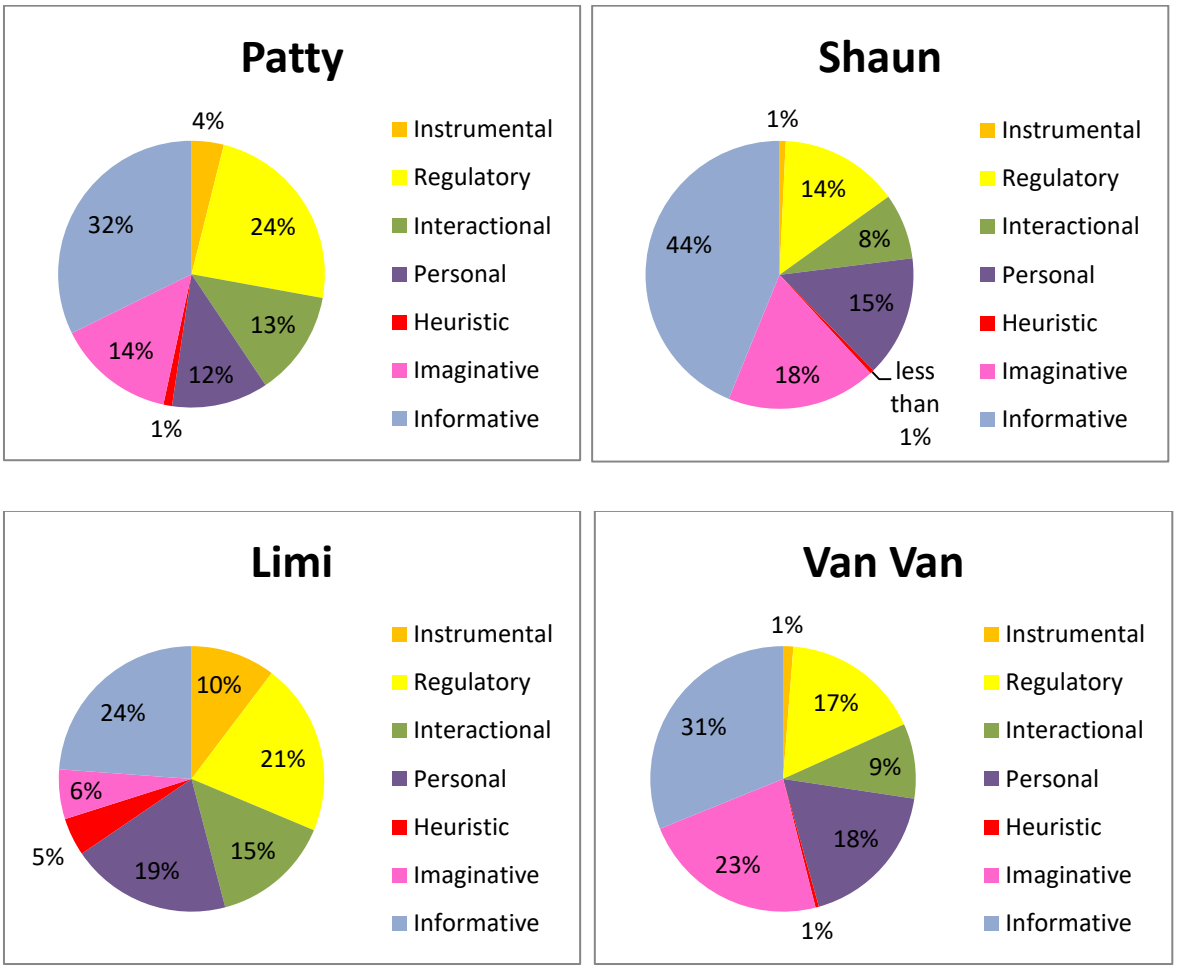

Figure 6-2: Comparisons of the functional language frequencies of coding

This following graph combines all four children's functional language frequencies to present the totals of functional language codings in the study overall.

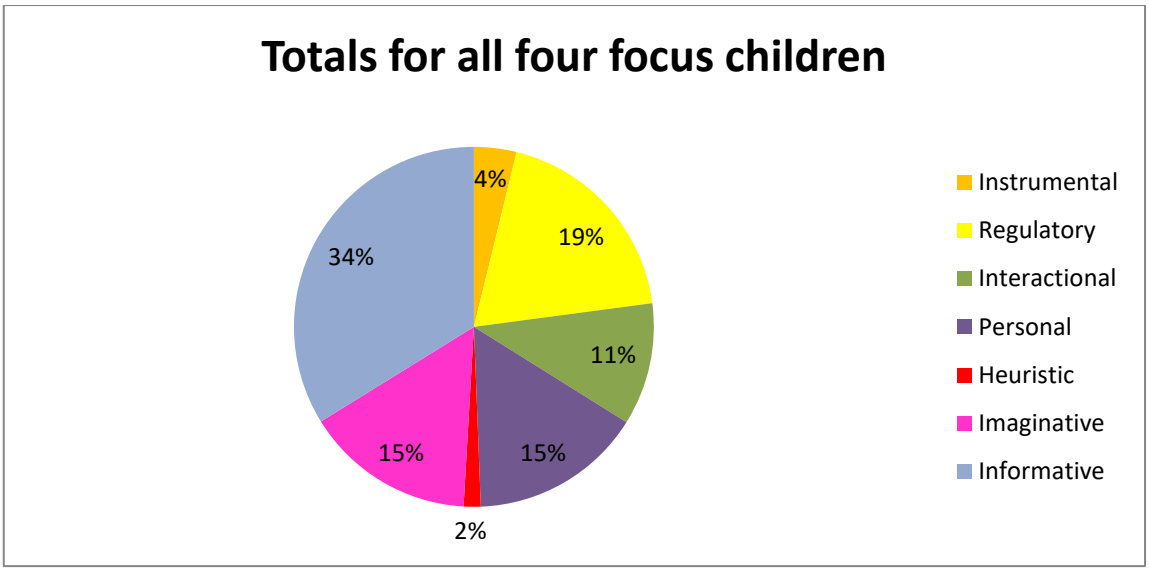

Figure 6-3: The study's total frequencies of coding each language function

The following **Table 6-1** provides the a priori coding tallies which quantified the language functions. The functions are listed in descending order from most frequent to least frequent with regards to the total frequencies of the four children combined. However, in the individual children's columns, the frequencies of the functions are marked with an '*' where individual children's descending order differs from the descending order of the combined total.

Table 6-1: Frequencies of the focus children's functional language

Functions	TOTAL	Patty (Vietnamese)	Shaun (Khmer)	Van Van (Burmese)	Limi (Albanian)
Informative	443	124	177	75	67
Regulatory	250	92	58*	41*	59
Personal	203	45*	59	44	55
Imaginative	200	55*	73*	55*	17*
Interactional	144	49*	32	22	41*
Instrumental	50	15	3	3	29*
Heuristic	20	4	2	1	13

The following **Figure 6-4** provides the totals for the four children's seven initial functions of language combined in bar graph form.

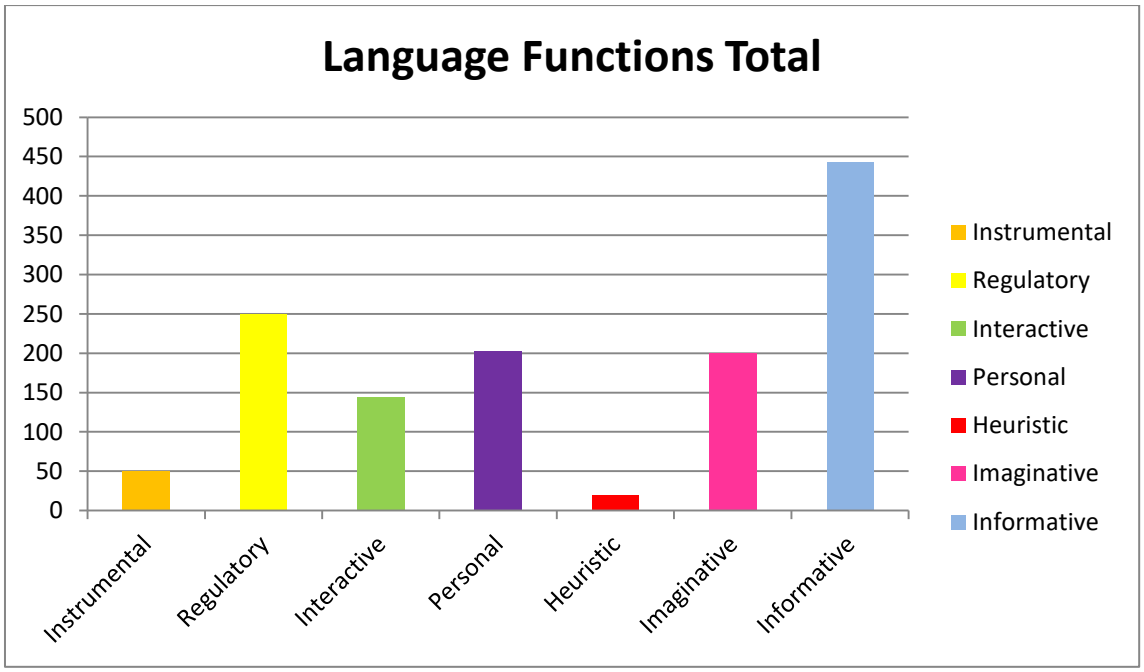

Figure 6-4: The total frequencies for each of the language functions

As clearly illustrated, the first theme was that the informative was most commonly communicated function in EAL and the second theme was that the heuristic function was least commonly communicated function.

Theme 1: The informative function was most common

The informative function was by far the most commonly expressed function by each of the four bilingual children. Informative utterances included statements, such as Limi's "*That's a giraffe*", and "*It's a bigger*", to provide details and information. As previously noted, informative statements were often elicited from children when they responded to educators' questions. A teacher might, for example, have asked, "*What is this?*", leading to an informative utterance being offered by the child resulting in, 'It's a...', or alternatively, just the single word. The results of a prior analysis identify that Patty and Shaun (the children with regular bilingual adult educator support) expressed the informative function more frequently than Van Van and Limi (the children without bilingual support). This finding was attributed to the interpersonal experience and cultural-institutional context of Patty and Shaun receiving additional adult educator support. For Patty, this was from her Vietnamese and Khmer bilingual educators. For Shaun, this was from Sarah's language and communication support educator, who, as demonstrated in excerpts in the previous chapters, often posed question-answer type conversations in English to probe verbal responses. The affordance of

bilingual support and speech and language support provided an adult form of tenor for children's spoken exchanges.

Theme 2: The heuristic function was least common

The infrequency of the heuristic function across all four focus preschoolers is clearly represented in the figures and tables. The heuristic function entailed children seeking information by inquiring, for example, "*Where honey?*". In the study, few '*Why*?' or '*What's that?*' type questions were evident in the four focus children's transcripts. This finding was unexpected, as in western cultures it is assumed that young children are curious and regularly ask questions (Fellowes & Oakley 2014, p. 58). Patty, Shaun and Van Van's heuristic questioning took up only a 1% proportion of the full collection of coded utterances, whereas Limi's heuristic questioning was coded approximately 5% of the time. Patty asked only three questions during the study and Shaun, only two. Van Van asked just one, and Limi asked 13—a small percentage of all his EAL utterances overall. Qualitatively, Limi asked five of the same rising intonation type questions (marked in **bold** text in the following excerpt) to determine the colour of a hoola hoop (see **Figure 6-5** for the image and transcript).

Figure 6-5: Limi enquires about Nathan's hoola hoop colour (12 Jun MOV 942)

Nathan:	*Why do you like, um, yellow?*
Limi:	(Limi does not answer Nathan's question, perhaps he could not reply with the complexity required in EAL or perhaps he didn't understand the question)
	Hmm... blue? (Limi asks with intonation while looking at Nathan's hoop)
Nathan:	*No*
Limi:	***Orange?***
Nathan:	*No*
Limi:	***Purple?***
Nathan:	*No*
Limi:	***Banana?*** (Limi asks while looking at Nathan's hoop which is green)
Nathan:	*Nup*
Limi:	***Ah blue?***
Nathan:	*No*

Limi: ***What that one?***

Limi's eventual asking of, '*What that one?*', demonstrated his ability to ask a more sophisticated question using the questioning word, 'what'. Three repeats of the same intonation inquiry, "*You got baby?*", however, were also evidenced in another of Limi's samples of speech. Limi, hence, did not demonstrate a wide range of the heuristic function.

It was queried whether Limi's European identity and the family practices in his home may have influenced Limi's interrogative habit of asking slightly more questions than the other three children who spoke Asian languages. Limi's family had also begun to speak English more often with Limi at home—unlike Patty, Shaun, and Van Van, whose families spoke almost exclusively in their first languages. Limi, therefore, may have had more practice in asking EAL questions. Limi's father, attended university and was studying to be a lawyer. It was further queried whether Limi was exposed to or invited to ask questions regularly at home.

In total, there were only 20 heuristic questions recorded over the six months of data collection. This quantity seemed to be very few—perhaps the children's abilities to formulate questions in EAL were still developing. The actual questions children asked were:

Patty: "***You?***" (to a peer)', "***What is that?***" (to a peer),
"***Where's my shoes?***" (to an educator),
"***Where's a my new friend?***"(to an educator)

Shaun: "***What eat?***" (to an educator), "***What he say?***" (to an educator)

Limi: "***Where chair?***" (to himself), "***What's that?***" (to an educator),
"***A what um dis?***" (to a peer), "***Why?***" (to an educator), "***Orange?***" (to a peer), "***Purple?***"(to a peer), "***Banana?***" (to a peer)', "***Blue?***" (to a peer),
"***What that one?***"(to a peer), "***Ah dis one?***" (to an educator),
"***You you got baby?***" (to an educator), "***You got baby?***"(to an educator),
"***Yeah?***" (to an educator) (continuing on with the same 'you got baby?' question)

Van Van: "***Where honey?***" (to an educator)

*Note: some questions were formed with rising intonation

As demonstrated in the examples of heuristic utterances, few inquiry questions were asked overall. Each child directed at least one question to an adult and some directed questions to peers, such as Patty's, "*What is that?*", question which was asked once she started to socially branch-out and emotionally display a confident and comfortable attitude while communicating in English. Patty's increased confidence appeared to result from social interactions involving an age-mate type of tenor in her context of situation. Similar observations, linking social and emotional contexts to expressions of functional language,

resulted in the emergence of final theme of the study highlighting the interrelatedness of the social interactions, emotional challenges, and the functional language of the bilingual preschoolers.

6.5 The interrelatedness of social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language

The final question of this study asked:

> 1.4 How can children's functional language use be explained in relation to each individual child's context?

Answering this question required deeper probing, of a qualitative type, through thematic analysis, to explore social and emotional explanations for the differences in the frequencies of language functions among the four focus children. The final theme of the study proposed that, the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language of bilingual preschoolers' interrelate. Emotions and social interactions influence both the field and the tenor aspects of the context of situation, and influence what children say and vice versa, what children want to communicate influences who they seek out for interaction (the interpersonal aspect of experience). When Patty's Vietnamese/English speaking bilingual peer asserted, "*You not my friend, Patty!*", during Patty's branching-out scenario, Patty emotionally retaliated, "*Don't say that!*", for example. Also, when Limi wanted his mother, he sought out a teacher to express this to, rather than a peer.

The high frequency of Limi's instrumental and regulatory utterances was attributed partially to his socio-emotional dependency on educators' social interactions (due to the absence of his mother). As the tenor in Limi's speaking context was often adults, he often expressed that he wanted something in instrumental and regulatory-type functional utterances. Limi was the youngest child and was more dependent on adult support for getting him things and having his emotional needs comforted during his separation challenge. Limi communicated with adults that he wanted his mum on numerous occasions. Van Van, Shaun, and Patty, on the other hand, rarely communicated the 'I want' function in English. Van Van was mostly independent in meeting his own needs and it is unknown whether Shaun and Patty expressed their wants to educators in their first languages instead.

Patty had the largest social group and was the oldest focus child. She demonstrated the most regulatory phrases while commanding orders, often to age-mates, such as 'come', 'stop' or 'look'. This related to her interpersonal context. Patty eventually branched-out to play with three regular peers in English-as-lingua franca and later spoke more English. She was confident with her peers. Patty demonstrated to be the second most frequent user of the

interactional function. She had also established more close-type peer friendships than any other child. Limi expressed the most interactional phrases in English which could be related to his network of three native English-speaking peers (Wendy, Nathan and Clive). Interactional utterances included greetings and social courtesies, the use of manners, and turn taking. Shaun generally interacted with same first-language peers. He may have also spoken interactional phrases with his peers in Khmer, rather than in English. Van Van had only one regular English-speaking friend, Clive. Van Van had not been attending Gumtree Preschool very long hence regulatory and interactional utterances were few in comparison to the others.

Patty displayed the least frequent use of the personal function in comparison to the other three children. The lesser occurrence of Patty's personal-type functional use of English was possibly due to her personal shyness and not having the confidence to initiate conversations with adults to talk about herself as well as showing hesitancy to respond—in probable fear of losing face (as related to her context of culture). Shaun, Limi and Van Van, on the other hand talked about their home life, possessions and siblings in many conversations with adults.

Patty demonstrated her confidence in singing in EAL, as illustrated in **Figure 6-6**. Singing had the added benefit of the musical din, the song stuck in my head phenomenon (Priester 2011, p. 8), which aided Patty's memorisation of words and did not require the pressure of Patty formulating an utterance. Shaun and Van Van also engaged in imaginary role-play and singing regularly, whereas Limi expressed the imaginative function the least. He rarely sang and mostly mimed.

Figure 6-6: Patty singing at group-time (Photo 2 May)

As previously mentioned, the high frequency of the informative function, as expressed in EAL by Shaun and Patty, can be attributed to their interpersonal context with their bilingual educators and the preschool support educator who asked them many questions, and for Van Van, can be related to his personal confidence to volunteer and answer educators' questions

at group-times. Limi and Van Van did not experience as many planned interactions with adult educators as did Patty and Shaun; this is because Limi and Van Van did not received allocated bilingual educator support to work closely with them during their free playtime at Gumtree Preschool.

In summary, the tenor (the relationship between a speaker and their interlocutor) and the field (the experience, which stirred emotions at time) shaped the bilingual preschoolers' productive and functional language use.

6.6 Summary of the synthesis chapter

The synthesis chapter served to discuss patterns, commonalities, and contrasts among the four focus children's experiences. This synthesis chapter highlighted several themes that emerged from the study, whereas the previous findings chapter discussed each child's social, emotional and functional language experiences individually. Overall, the findings reported in this investigation involving bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use while learning EAL, has highlighted prominent themes of: balancing bilingualism, branching-out, the contribution of LKOs as well as MKOs, children shyness and apprehension versus confidence, separation challenges, the high frequency of informative functions of language, and the minimal expressions of heuristic questioning. Synthesis of the findings has also explored evidence of the interplay between the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use of bilingual preschoolers learning EAL. In summary, the people—that is, the peers, parents and educators with whom the focus children socially interacted and spoke to at preschool—provided a certain tenor and influenced whether the focus children were shy or confident to speak in English or other languages. The tenor also impacted upon the types of language functions bilingual preschoolers produced. The cultural context (or cultural-institutional practices) of the preschool also resulted in educators regularly asking children questions to which they would often answer with informative phrases. The focus preschoolers' personal and emotional experiences also impacted upon bilingual preschoolers' willingness, or 'un'willingness, to communicate and sometimes motivated their purpose for communicating with others. The notion of the interrelationship between children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, and other aforementioned themes derived from this study, are further discussed in Chapter Seven, *The Discussion*, where comparisons and contrasts are made between the present study's findings and the findings of previous research.

7. The Discussion

7.1 Introduction

The present study aimed to more thoroughly understand four bilingual preschoolers' social interactions and emotional challenges, in relation to their functional language use at preschool. In summary, the study aimed to more thoroughly understand the context surrounding bilingual preschoolers' oral language. The study also aimed to identify ten educators' social, emotional, and functional language-based strategies for supporting bilingual preschoolers' learning—this provided detail of the cultural-institutional and interpersonal aspects of the context surrounding bilingual preschools speech, additional to their personal aspect. The following discussion deliberates on how the findings from the case study at Gumtree Preschool relate to findings, observations, and reports presented in past investigations.

The discussion begins with a focus on the social context, or the *social interactions* component of this study, to note the people with whom bilingual preschoolers interact and how such people influenced the focus children's language learning. Information relating to *balancing bilingualism*—the opportunities children had to use both first languages and the additional language of English—is drawn from national and international studies concerning first language retention in English-dominant educational contexts. A discussion of the *branching-out* theme follows, to correlate the branching-out observations at Gumtree Preschool with observations of 'islands of first language usage' and tight groups, reported in previous case study research. The final discussion in the social interactions section, directs attention to the value of *less knowledgeable other (LKO)* peers, by contrasting this emerging concept with Vygotsky's (1978, p. 86) more knowledgeable other (MKO) focus and zone of proximal development (ZPD) theory. Wood, Bruner and Ross' (1974, p. 90) theory of scaffolding is also reviewed in relation to the LKO concept, which is linked to ideas in research on expert/novice partnerships and paired dyads among older language learners.

In the second section, bilingual children's emotional context, or *emotional challenges,* are discussed by comparing Patty and Shaun's behaviours—their *shyness,* look of discomfort and

apprehension or ‘un’willingness to communicate—with observations reported in past case study research, similarly highlighting apprehensive, reluctant, and shy-seeming behaviours. Patty’s contrasting behaviour, during her interactions with adults (and avoiding losing face) in comparison to age-mates, is then related to observations reported in previous studies. A last discussion in this section draws attention to Limi’s separation challenge, in comparison to the similar experiences of children reported in other studies.

In the third section, bilingual children’s oral language, or *functional language use,* is discussed, noting how the most frequently expressed functions of EAL in the present study—the *informative* function followed by the regulatory function—parallels with related research investigating children’s functional language in various other contexts. These contexts include English-only, EFL, early childhood dramatic play, and early years of school settings. The finding that the *heuristic* function (inquiry-based questioning function) was the least frequently expressed function at Gumtree Preschool, is then also compared and contrasted with reports in other research. The section on *preschoolers’ experiences* then ends by noting the relationship between social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use with the support of other research.

The fourth section of this discussion chapter relates the innovations of Gumtree Preschool, deriving from *educators’ suggested and implemented* strategies, to recommendations within previous research.

The final section of the discussion chapter reflects upon the *interplay* between preschoolers’ social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. A relationship is proposed by incorporating children’s social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use within a conceptual framework synthesising systemic functional linguistics (SFL) context of culture and context of situation, and sociocultural theory’s (SCT) three lenses of focus (personal, interpersonal, and cultural-institutional).

7.2 Bilingual children’s experiences as they learn English as an additional language

The bilingual preschoolers’ experiences were divided into social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use.

7.2.1 Social interactions

The sub-questions stemming from the attention to preschoolers’ *social interactions* queried:

1.1.1 With whom do bilingual preschoolers interact regularly at preschool?

1.1.2 What languages do bilingual preschoolers speak during these interactions?

1.1.3 What language learning opportunities do the various social interactions afford?

The focus was inspired by the Australian Early Development Index (AEDI 2009) and Australian Early Development Census (AEDC 2014) which reported that bilingual children, who are not proficient in English, are often considered at risk or vulnerable in the social competence domain. Playing with a range of children, for example, was one of the criteria for considering children 'at risk' in the AEDC.

Strong relationships with certain regular peers and educators were displayed by each of the four preschoolers at Gumtree Preschool. Patty had the largest number of regular peers (many of whom spoke Vietnamese), followed by Limi, Shaun, and finally Van Van. None of the children interacted with a wide 'range' of regular peers, although they engaged in parallel play among numerous children. The children who encountered bilingually-matched peers and educators (Patty and Shaun) took a long time to branch-out and play with others peers and educators who did not speak their first language. The children without bilingual support developed strong ties with either one or two (in the case of Van Van) or three or four (in the case of Limi) regular peers, with whom they spoke in English.

The data gathered at Gumtree Preschool indicates that Limi and Van Van interacted regularly with English-speaking educators and peers (including each another) and spoke almost entirely in English while at the preschool; whereas Patty and Shaun often interacted with bilingually-matched peers and educators (in Vietnamese, or in Khmer) and had more balanced opportunities at preschool to speak their first languages, as well as English.

The different social interactions encountered by the four focus children at Gumtree Preschool influenced their language learning in various ways by affording them different opportunities for:

1. '*Balancing bilingualism*' and retaining the first language
2. '*Branching-out*' and extending English skills, and
3. Extending one's ZPD with *LKO peers* as well as MKO peers

Balancing bilingualism

The concept of 'balancing bilingualism', as developed in this study, refers to the provision of opportunities for bilingual children to use both first and additional languages at preschool, with the intention of encouraging children to become balanced bilinguals who have 'a balanced use and a balanced level of proficiency in two languages' (Yow & Li 2015, p. 3). As mentioned in the findings, Limi's Albanian and Van Van's Burmese (Chin) utterances were only recorded on two occasions at preschool during the six-month study. At preschool, both boys functioned almost entirely in English, unlike Patty and Shaun, who, conversely,

encountered numerous bilingual social interactions, which maintained their regular use of Vietnamese and Khmer. As many as 177 Vietnamese utterances were recorded in Patty's data and 63 Khmer utterances were recorded in Shaun's data, in addition to the many English utterances spoken by both of them. Evidently, the peers and adults with whom the focus children regularly interacted afforded the focus children opportunities to use either both of their languages, or only English. It is also evident that Patty and Shaun's opportunities to speak in their first language enabled them to sustain more meaningful conversations with bilingually matched peers and educators (such as when Patty responded to Ria's question during the 'Where is my Teddy?' storybook reading, "*v No. Nothing there v*", and "*v It's dark already v*." in Vietnamese). Perhaps the ability to speak in first languages enabled bilingual children to exercise higher levels of questioning and discuss concepts with more depth in their first language.

The bicycle analogy, presented by Cummins (2001, p. 171), explains the phenomenon of balancing bilingualism. In the case of balanced bilingualism, the bicycle has two pumped up wheels to ride on. This contrasts to having one wheel (being monolingual), or being a dominant bilingual with a large 'dominant' wheel and a smaller second wheel (or flat tyre)—hence representing a person with greater proficiency in one language (Wei 2000, p. 5). The experience of balancing bilingualism can also be likened to translanguaging (García & Wei 2014) or polylingualism (Gutiérrez et al. 2011, p. 233) where children are welcome to use the full range of their linguistic toolkits in educational settings. Opportunities for balancing bilingualism were common for Patty and Shaun.

In contrast, due to the non-existence of peers or educators, who spoke Albanian or Burmese (Chin) (a cultural-institutional and interpersonal aspect of influence), Limi and Van Van's opportunities to continue speaking their first languages at preschool were scarce. Opportunities for them to present as balanced bilinguals were thus not available at the preschool. This study is unusual in that research counting the frequencies of English and first-language utterances, spoken by both bilingually-supported and unsupported preschoolers, at the same preschool, is uncommon. Past research has, however, questioned families about their bilingual children's language practices (in first and English languages), after attending educational settings (Jones Díaz 2007; Wong Fillmore 1991). Over the years, numerous studies have identified issues concerning subtractive bilingualism, language loss, and English dominance (Cha & Goldenberg 2015; Jones Díaz 2007; Lambert 1975; Molyneux 2009; Pucinischi 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas 1981; Wong Fillmore 1991). Restuningrum's (2015, p. 131) study, for example, blamed 'English dominance' for being a barrier to children continuing to learn their heritage language. Similarly, in the current study,

the English language also dominated Limi and Van Van's preschooling experience, potentially placing Limi and Van Van more at risk of losing their productive abilities in Albanian and Chin over time. Robinson and Jones Díaz's (2006, p. 108) review of research alluded to the 'learning of English at the expense of the home language'. In their study, participants were asked whether they believed the bilingual children with whom they worked were in the process of losing proficiency in their home language. Responses included some children replying to parents' home language conversations in English, some children understanding the home language but only speaking when necessary or encouraged, some children understanding but rarely using it, some no longer using their home language and some shifting to English. It was noted in their study that 'to be able to communicate successfully at school, children often drop their home language' (Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, pp. 120-121). In the present study, the shift to using English more often at home was reported by Limi's mother.

It is problematic that those bilingual children who do not have balanced opportunities to use their first languages might be limited to becoming *receptive-only bilinguals* of their first languages over time (having only listening comprehension of their heritage language and not being able to speak it), or becoming *dominant bilinguals* (having native-like fluency in one language and average, or lower proficiency, in another), rather than *balanced bilinguals* (being equally proficient in both languages but perhaps lacking native-like fluency), or *equilinguals* (having native-like proficiency in both languages) (Wong 2016).

In the present study, having a certain tenor present in a child's context of situation, or a range of interpersonal opportunities to use both their first or English language, afforded children different opportunities to speak either of their two languages. Wong-Fillmore's (1991) research found that children often lose their first language when a second is introduced, much in the same way that Limi and Van Van did not tend to speak their first languages at preschool. The tenor aspect of a speaker's context of situation takes into consideration the relationship between a child and interlocutor—this can incorporate identification of the interlocutor as being a fellow first language speaker or not. The relationship between speaker and interlocutor impacts upon the language a bilingual child chooses to speak.

In Wong Fillmore's study, 1,100 families in the US were interviewed about children's home language use. Of those families, 64.4% of respondents reported a negative shift from home language to English in English-only preschools, yet 26.3% similarly reported a negative shift for children in primary (first) language programs—meaning they started using less of their first language and more English (Wong Fillmore 1991, p. 333). Wong Fillmore's (1991)

results suggest that Patty and Shaun, who had numerous opportunities to speak their first language at Gumtree Preschool, might be less likely to experience a negative shift than Limi and Van Van. Dopke's (1992) research again validates the gradual loss of the first language when the second is introduced and dominates communication exchanges. Recent research has drawn greater focus upon the language practices within bilingual children's homes and has turned attention to parents' support for the continuation of children's first languages to combat subtractive bilingualism (Cha & Goldenberg 2015; Ramokgopa 2010). In Cha and Goldenberg's research (2015, p. 935) with over 1,400 Spanish-dominant kindergarteners, 'bilingual home environments that maintain high levels of Spanish use [were] associated with additive bilingualism whereas bilingual home environment with high levels of English use [were] associated with subtractive bilingualism'.

Balancing bilingualism and avoiding subtractive bilingualism is a concern in educational settings. The negative repercussions of losing a language could impact upon children's developing metalinguistic skills, divergent thinking, and executive functioning abilities—the skills identified by Bialystok (2011) and Yow and Li (2015, p. 9) as heightened for bilingual speakers. Vygotsky (1962, p. 110), likewise, posited that a bilingual child has 'an awareness of his linguistic operations'—hence losing one's competency as a bilingual could potentially impact on such skills. If first languages are not maintained, another downside is that communication with family and community members could suffer and traditions, once passed on via language through the generations, could be lost (Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 106; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke 2000, p. 32). Balancing bilingualism relies upon the cultural-institutional context surrounding children's experiences, the social opportunities in society, in the community, and in educational settings. Balancing bilingualism depends on the availability of a certain tenor, or interpersonal context, to afford children with opportunities to continue speaking their first languages. Balancing bilingualism is a pedagogical, educational, familiar, societal, political, and worldwide issue.

Peer preferences were reported in Hirschler (1994) research which noted that some bilingual children tended to interact more regularly with native English speakers than other bilingual children. This parallels the behaviours of Limi and Van Van who interacted more regularly with English-speakers than Patty and Shaun, the children who had bilingually-matched peers available. Hirschler's (1994) research uncovered that native English-speaking children interacted with the Spanish speaking children more so than the Khmer-speaking children. This difference in social interactions may be due to cultural associations or familiarity of appearance. Consistent with Hirschler's (1994) findings, Limi (a European/Australian Albanian speaker) also had more interactions with native English-speakers than Shaun (the

Khmer speaker), Patty (the Vietnamese speaker) or Van Van (the Chin speaker). Due to the affordance of Shaun's social interactions to speak Khmer, Shaun was likely less compelled to play and speak with non-Khmer-speaking children.

The EYLF (2009) encourages preschool educators to encourage children to continue speaking their first languages; however, Gumtree Preschool did not have a bilingual community of social support available to value and maintain Albanian and Chin. A relationship with a matched-bilingual interlocutor was not available in the context of situation or the cultural-institutional/interpersonal context surrounding Limi and Van Van's speech (other than when parents were present at arrival and pick-up times, or when parents were involved in activities programmed in the preschool curriculum). While Gumtree Preschool educators made efforts to offer and loan bilingual books and invite parents to spend time at the preschool, Limi and Van Van's opportunity for 'additive bilingualism' rather than 'subtractive bilingualism' (Lambert 1975) was challenged by the scarcity of matched first-language speaking interlocutors.

The limited affordances of Limi and Van Van to speak their first language at Gumtree Preschool relate to Bourdieu's (1991) theory of linguistic capital and power in society. Bourdieu writes that 'utterances receive their value (and their sense) only in their relation to a market' (Bourdieu 1991, p. 67), the market, in the context of Gumtree Preschool, being people interested in communicating or maintaining certain languages. Bourdieu (1991) argues that the forces of power influence the appreciation and valuing of languages and that social interactions make a powerful impact on linguistic capital—the valuing of certain languages over others. Being a member of the majority socio-linguistic group at Gumtree Preschool (such as experienced by Patty) offered greater linguistic capital than being a single speaker of a minority language, as experienced by Limi and Van Van. Robinson and Jones Díaz (2006) and Jones Díaz and Harvey (2007) incorporate Bourdieu's notion of language, power, and habitus when considering the experiences of Australian bilingual preschoolers, noting that that 'English is the language of power' and home languages tend to succumb to socio-political forces and power relationships (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 208; Robinson & Jones Díaz 2006, p. 105). Furthermore, it is suggested that:

> 'For many bilingual families in Australia and New Zealand, the linguistic and cultural capital of the home language is often constrained by and negotiated against the backdrop of more dominant forms of capital such as English.' (Jones Díaz & Harvey 2007, p. 208)

Patty and Shaun were exposed to a more even balance of opportunities to speak their first language, while gradually adding the English language to their repertoire at Gumtree Preschool. Vietnamese, being a majority language spoken in Australia (NSW Government,

Department of Education 2015) and majority language spoken in Patty's local community (id. the population experts 2017b) (thus shaping Patty's cultural-institutional context), led to the Vietnamese language displaying stronger linguistic capital—greater opportunity, value and encouragement to speak it at preschool. As Patty encountered many social opportunities to continue using Vietnamese, she may be more likely than Limi and Van Van to continue speaking her first language. She would also encounter future opportunities to use Vietnamese at her neighbouring school, where the Vietnamese-speaking population was larger than that of Albanian and Chin-speakers. Similarly, in the US, Spanish bilinguals (the majority-minority in America) have a greater likelihood of retaining their Spanish speaking skills, due to the presence of a larger Spanish-speaking population and greater value and appreciation of such linguistic capital in society. Another benefit of using one's first language is that children with peers who speak their home language have been found to have better access to play than those who do not (Scrafton & Whitington 2015).

Bilingual small group sessions, which demonstrated value and support for the maintenance of home languages, were allocated to Patty and Shaun in Vietnamese and Khmer. The sessions afforded Patty and Shaun to bond closely with Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking peers; however, both were rarely observed interacting or playing in collaboration with non-Vietnamese/Khmer-speaking peers. Tabors (2008, p. 17), likewise, noted that the Korean girls in her research also formed their own first language social play groups, and Fassler (1996, p. 381) and Wong Fillmore (1982a) additionally contribute that bilingual children sometimes 'form islands of first language use'. Sometimes, due to the strong bonds within bilingually-matched peer groups, Patty and Shaun encountered difficulties in extending their friendships beyond these 'islands of first language usage'. Their attempts to branch-out and explore other peer relationships were sometimes met with opposition from their bilingually-matched peers.

Branching-out

Branching-out—the act of children extending their peer interactions beyond bilingually-matched peers—emerged in this study following several observations of events that involved bilingual children initiating or engaging in play activities with native-English speakers or speakers of English as lingua franca. Branching-out appeared particularly rare and challenging for Patty, and occasionally Shaun—the children with strong ties to matched bilingual peers.

The value of matched bilingual peers has been established in the previous section; however, bilingual preschoolers also benefit from to branching-out and extending their relationships to

other peers with whom they are compelled to use their additional language out of necessity. As Tabors (2008) suggests:

> ‘as long as children are placed in communicative situations in which they can continue their home language or in which they can go without speaking the second language, they may choose not to undertake the difficult task of learning a second language’ (Tabors 2008, p. 76).

‘Tight groups’ with same language peers were identified in Dixon and Fraser’s (1986, p. 34) study, and in earlier research, Juan, a bilingual child:

> ‘avoided English speakers almost altogether and was apparently uncomfortable around them. He preferred the company of those with whom he could communicate freely, and so he played only with other Spanish speakers or with bilingual children.’ (Wong Fillmore 1976, p. 707)

In the present study, Patty experienced moments of tension within her tight group of peers. This tension impeded her opportunities for ‘branching-out’ and shortened her time playing with Dari/English bilingual speaking children in the sandpit. Peer pressure, possessiveness, and territorial behaviour, was also identified in Soderman and Oshio’s (2008, p. 307) study of three to six-year-olds’ social behaviour, as they progressed through second language learning in an English/Mandarin classroom. Soderman and Oshio (2008) reported that girls experienced more social adjustment difficulties than boys, and identified that girls were more territorial and possessive with their friendships.

Children’s friendships have been found to be based on location arrangements (such as children who are seated together) and children who share the same language background (Fassler 1998, 2003). Fassler’s (1998, p. 391) research noted that two Cantonese speakers sat together and developed an ‘isolated island of home language use which some may fear will delay getting into English’. This finding is consistent with Patty and Shaun’s regular peer interactions which stemmed from their matched bilingual peer group session and the availability of a matched bilingual support educator. Seating arrangements, likewise, influenced Limi and Van Van’s experiences in forming a friendship with Clive—a child allocated to Limi and Van Van’s small group session. Limi, Van Van, and Clive’s shared interest in Spider-man was also considered to be a factor attracting them to one another and influencing their productive language use. Likewise, in Schofield’s (2011, p. 125) study, a shared interest in cars and drawing were reported to assist two children to form a special friendship.

The finding that Patty and Shaun mostly interacted with Vietnamese and Khmer-speaking peers and educators is consistent with Clarke's (1996, p. 264) research that reported that her focus child, Thao, spoke mostly Vietnamese among peers and displayed no strong need for

English. Thao, like Patty, chose not to play with English-speaking children. In contrast, however, and over time, Patty did endeavor to branch-out—despite evidenced peer pressure from her Vietnamese-speaking bonds to restrict her from doing so. Schofield (2011) also noted same-first-language-friendships; and another child, Robert, in Fassler's (1998, 2003) study, was reported to take longer to play with non-Cantonese speaking peers and rarely initiated play with English speakers. In summary, a culmination of past research reinforces the complications involved when branching-out, as experienced by bilingual children learning EAL. Nevertheless, branching-out affords children opportunities to interact in English with more knowledgeable others (MKOs), as well as less threatening peers, or less knowledgeable others (LKOs), in comparison to teachers.

Extending one's ZPD with LKO peers as well as MKO peers

While focusing on an interpersonal lens, the present study reaffirmed the presence of MKO peers who scaffold children's learning and extend learners' vocabularies. This scaffolding involved *modelling* and *demonstration*, two examples of scaffolding provided in Wood, Bruner & Ross's research (1974, p. 98). An example of Clive's MKO support of Van Van was provided in **Figure 5-43**, to demonstrate how Clive served Van Van by accentuating words and demonstrating specific vocabulary.

The valuing of MKOs is consistent with Vygotsky's (1978, p. 86) theory of the ZPD:

> It is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.
> (Vygotsky 1978, p. 86)

The valuing of LKOs with bilingual preschoolers is an area yet to be explored.

The value of peer friendships, as a means for supporting children to settle into their new English-speaking context, has been researched with slightly older Korean children, attending Australian schools (Millar 2011). In the present study, Van Van and Limi both built friendships with Clive, a child who afforded both boys opportunities to have their English extended through the traditional scaffolds provided by an MKO. Limi and Van Van were not lonely. They were confident and sociable, which contrasts with research undertaken by Tabors (2008, p. 33) where the bilingual child, Byong-sun, was considered 'socially isolated from the rest of his classmates due to linguistic constraints. Limi's sociability and Van Van's confidence contrasted with the assumptions reported in my 2012 poem that summarises observations of silent children, noted during my previous career (see Appendix 6). Van Van and Limi's companionship with Clive (a more competent English-speaking peer, who served as a role model) provided the two boys with plentiful comprehensible input—a strategy

recommended by Krashen and Terrell (1983) for teaching languages—as well as corrective feedback, mentioned as valuable by Swain (2000, 2005) in her output hypothesis. Both features support language learning. Correspondingly, Smith's (2006, p. 431) research, exploring peer talk during board game play, noted that peers' social interactions benefit language learners by 'providing responsive and critical feedback to one another's errors. Recall in this study how Clive scaffolded Van Van that the "bear" was in fact a "panda", and the "monkey" was in fact a "gorilla". Clive's assistance to Limi and Van Van, to speak and learn English, was reminiscent of findings in Hirschler's (1994) American intervention study which investigated preschool children's help to second language learners. Hirschler's (1994) study specifically encouraged interactions with native English-speakers and children were trained to provide: initiation, re-initiation, slower rate of delivery, clear enunciation, requesting clarification, recasting, and expansion, to support learners. Whilst Clive was not trained in the same way, he nevertheless provided scaffolding support to Van Van when he corrected Van Van's informative vocabulary as an MKO.

A peer dynamic involving an LKO was an unanticipated finding in this study, but responds to the call 'for broader understanding of the scope of the ZPD concept to include more than just expert/novice interaction' (Lantolf 2000, p. 17). The initial identification of an LKO dynamic derived from observation and analysis of the valuable contributions a *less capable peer* made upon an initially reluctant EAL learner in the study. When Shaun interacted with Sarah—a child who was less competent than Shaun in speaking English—Shaun demonstrated increased efforts to communicate. This led me to note that an LKO can passively facilitate an EAL learner's efforts to produce more productive language by providing a social-emotional scaffold affording the other a status of *more capable peer*, who can mentor the LKO. The premise follows that, when learners encounter an LKO, they become the expert in the partnership. This perception can change the learner's efforts to communicate in their new language due to a reduction in *apprehension*—one of the emotions affecting language learning identified by Plutchik (2001).

On this basis, I argue that having an LKO as a member of an audience during conversations may encourage an EAL learner to demonstrate their productive EAL skills more willingly and confidently than in circumstances where they are placed only with MKOs. While MKO peers can model and extend language for less competent learners, LKOs can also push a child forward in their development by fueling a learner's desire to showcase the extent of their current skills and capabilities through productive language use. Wood, Bruner and Ross (1974, p. 80) similarly highlight the role of 'others in attendance who help him on his way', which can also be seen to influence children who are learning to communicate. According to

the present study, the 'children in attendance' do not necessarily need to be more competent role models in order for productive practice and language learning to occur. LKOs can scaffold more advanced learners by motivating them to apply, practise, and consolidate their developing language skills, as a result of considering themselves to be the competent expert within a peer partnership. Engaging with an LKO may thus result in EAL learners developing higher self-esteem, a quality seen to positively influence many aspects of learning as it prompts children to take the initiative and have the confidence to practise and master new skills (Berk 2012, p. 367). Confidence relates to self-efficacy (one's confidence in one's ability to carry out a particular task), self-esteem, and competence (Britner 2014, p. 22) Feeling capable of doing something (for instance, speaking in English) and having trust in one's ability, was evidently a feeling that Shaun experienced when interacting with Sarah feeling evidently propelled his efforts in practising English.

The LKO concept proposed here also relates to Barraclough, Christophel and McCroskey's (1988) study of *willingness to communicate* (WTC) which notes that having a high WTC derives from having a '*low anxiety*' and high '*perceived competence*'. Tabors (2008, p. 33)—in congruence with this theory—noted that it was in a 'low-pressure situation that Byong-sun demonstrated the greatest proficiency in his new language'. Parke and Drury (2000, p. 112) also suggested that 'children's longer and more complex utterances tend to appear in contexts in which the communicative pressure is off', referring to Year Two bilingual students in interactions with different interlocutors. In addition, the LKO low pressure characteristic may support '*frustration control*' (Wood, Bruner & Ross 1974, p. 98), bypassing the emotional challenges of attempting to communicate with MKOs. The LKO's role in promoting productive language also relates to Swain's (2000, 2005) research which values the role of *automaticity* (the efficient retrieval of vocabulary) to serve speaking fluency, as well as *hypothesis testing* (attempting to expressing oneself verbally), and *inviting feedback* from others to approve or disapprove communicative attempts or extending others utterances (Gass 1997; Swain 2000, 2005).

Further support for the LKO concept is provided by Fassler's (1998) research in an ESL classroom, where the teacher was the only native English speaker and all the peers were learners of English. She posited that peers 'pushed each other to elaborate and expand their English' for the purposes of communication, even when they did not serve as advanced language models (Fassler 1998, p. 379). In Fassler's study context, children were not exposed to proficient peer speakers of English or native English-speaking MKOs, yet the benefits of having non-expert English-speaking peers, for the children to learn with and from, were still evident. A major theoretical contribution of this study is the notion that having an LKO, or a

novice peer, when a bilingual learner is at an early and quiet stage of English language learning, can give language learners a boost of confidence and the motivation to apply their skills productively. As they express their knowledge, they rehearse more English and further extend their language learning.

Studying pair work patterns of interaction in the adult EAL classroom context, Storch (2002, p. 122) is one of few who have drawn attention to what the 'expert' gains in Vygotsky's expert vs novice concept. She presents the notion that an expert may also learn from the act of teaching others. This notion can be dated back to the contested ideas of learning pyramids and reformulations of Dale's (1946) 'cone of experience' highlighting that we remember much of what we do and what we teach to others (Letrud & Hernes 2016). Similarly, Watanabe and Swain (2007, p. 337) suggest that 'there is certainly value for more proficient students to be paired with less proficient students'. Van Lier (1996) also noted the value of less capable peers. Having a peer who is less competent than a language learner may play a role in boosting a child's confidence to speak, and might empower an individual to develop their leadership qualities. In that case, LKO partnerships could scaffold children transitioning from Clarke's (2011) '*New to English*' stage of development towards her '*Becoming familiar with English*' or '*Becoming a **confident** user of English*' and '*Demonstrated **competency** as a speaker of English*'.

I believe the notion that an LKO's presence can socio-emotionally motivate a language learner to increasingly rehearse their language skills productively is a valuable concept that could contribute to the learning and teaching of a new language. The LKO concept provides a frame to re-conceptualise practices to support learning in the field of education, psychology, linguistics, and speech pathology, by incorporating the motivational role of emotions.

7.2.2 Emotional challenges

Consistent with the AEDC (2014) findings, which identified that bilingual children who were not proficient in English were at risk or vulnerable in emotional domains, this case study identified several emotional challenges for bilingual preschoolers who were not proficient in English. Similarly to the AEDC, this study recorded children being sometimes upset when left by their caregiver, showing anxious behaviours, displaying indicators of not adjusting well to change, and having low confidence. These issues were also reported in the AEDC's checklist that was completed by teachers to report on children in their first year of school. Although such behaviours are not exclusive to bilingual learners, they are prevalent, due to the 'double-bind' (Tabors 2008, pp. 23, 33) experienced by children who are new to English. Much of bilingual children's emotional vulnerability may stem from the monolingual

context. Their behaviours at preschool, therefore, may not be representative of their displays of emotional maturity in other cultural-institutional contexts, such as in their first language community, or at home.

The sub-questions stemming from the focus on children's *emotional experiences* asked:

1.2.1 What emotional challenges do children encounter at preschool as they learn EAL?'

1.2.2 How are emotional challenges incorporated into children's context of situation and how do they influence children's productive language learning?

The findings to these questions resulted in two major themes reporting:

- Bilingual preschoolers' shyness, apprehension, discomfort (at times when approached to communicate by adults), anxiety, lack of confidence, the look of being overwhelmed, reluctance to speak, and anxiousness in certain contexts when speaking in EAL
- Separation challenges (when bilingual preschoolers' parents depart during the early weeks of transition to preschool)

As Swain (2011, p. 1) argues, 'Learning another language is not just a cognitive process but an emotional one as well'. She asserts that, 'emotions cannot be ignored in understanding language learning processes' (Swain 2011, p. 2). Swain's (2013) views on the potential positive influence of emotion resonate with observational findings concerning Limi in this study. For example, there were moments at Gumtree Preschool when the fear or sadness, displayed by Limi as he cried for his mother during his separation challenges, had a positive impact and afforded Limi social interactions with educators and peers. Such social interactions increased Limi's opportunities for language practice while he was spoken to and consoled by educators.

On the other hand, Patty's negative emotions sometimes resulted in her remaining silent when educators communicated with her in English. This resonates with Krashen and Terrell's (1983) affective filter hypothesis. The child's emotions were impacted by the tenor within interactions (the way the child and others relate), and were observed to impede Patty's productive language opportunities. She appeared apprehensive when called upon to answer educators' questions, *apprehension* being an emotion that expands from the basic emotion of fear (Plutchik 2001). Swain (2011, p. 3) notes that 'an individual's level of anxiety—related to emotions such fear, frustration and apprehension—is seen as a measureable variable which causes failure in learning a target language'. Shyness is also considered to impede productive language learning.

Shyness and apprehension

Shyness can be perceived through indicators such as social anxiousness, wariness towards strangers, uneasiness and discomfort, and inhibited or withdrawn behaviours of children in certain social interactions linked to fear (Asendorpf 2009, p. 389–390). Such indicators were noted when observing Patty. Responses due to emotions are often mediated by culture (Swain, Kinnear & Steinman 2015).The shyness displayed by Patty, has been observed among many immigrant children from Asian cultures (such as Chinese and Vietnamese) and has thus drawn attention from researchers for some time (Xu & Krieg 2014; Yamamoto & Li 2012). The influence of Confucian norms has been connected to the form of modesty-type shyness seen in some Asian children (Asendorpf 2009, p. 394) and the concept of losing face (Hu et al 2004). Xu and Krieg (2014) make a distinction between *regulated shyness*—relating to modesty, reservedness and an unassuming demeanor of social harmony, and *anxious shyness*, incorporating the previously mentioned inhibited and withdrawn behaviours. Kang et al. (2014, p. 918) also identified shyness and inhibition in their study involving Asian-American students. They suggest that perceived shyness among Asian-American students may be viewed positively in some Asian cultures as a form of emotional restraint. Gumtree Preschool's educators, along with Patty's mother, described Patty's apprehension to talk as a form of shyness, rather than a behaviour relating to her culture. In Wong Fillmore's (1976, p. 711, 1979) study, Juan was similarly described as 'cautious' in speaking English.

Shyness in speaking English has been related to state anxiety (Brown 2007, p. 161; Horwitz 2001, p. 113; Spielberger 1983), or foreign language speaking anxiety (Horwitz 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986). Soderman and Oshio (2008, p. 299) also assert that 'high stress has been documented to deter learning capacity'. In Patty's context of situation, her apprehension toward speaking English, led her to freeze and remain silent, particularly at times when educators posed questions and attempted to initiated conversations with her. In Bligh's (2014, p. 82) study, Suki (a Japanese five-year-old girl) would fall silent the school gates, would not speak, and was diagnosed as 'selective mute'. At home Suki was reported to 'come alive'. In the present study, Patty's silence was hypothesised by Lan, her bilingual support educator, to also be a 'lack of confidence'—a lack of belief that she could speak English correctly. This relates back to the LKO notion and the idea of perceived competence motivating a willingness to speak as discussed earlier.

Shy individuals may perceive asking questions and talking with authority figures to be challenging (Evans 2010, p. 181). Krashen and Terrell (1983) assert that a high affective filter impedes learners' ability to acquire an additional language, whereas Swain (2013), in contrast, postulates that emotions, even less desirable emotions such as embarrassment, can,

in some circumstances, serve as a strong motivator for learners to make progress in their productive language learning. While it is considered that Patty's freezing behaviour impeded her language learning, and limited Patty's productive practise, peripheral participation—observing others—as researched by Bligh (2014), highlights that a child, although quiet, does learn by attending and accumulating receptive information. Silence, however, hindered Patty's opportunities to develop automaticity through speech, to conduct hypothesis testing, and to invite feedback or conversational extension in response to her output (Swain 2000, 2005).

Patty and Shaun experienced discomfort and a hesitancy to participate in various types of social activities that required them to speak and respond publicly in English—a consensus of educators' and parents' opinions, and observations, attested so. Indicators of anxiety were observed in both children. Shaun's observed practice of nervously placing his fingers in and around his mouth was consistent with the finger sucking behaviour listed in Glennon and Weisz's (1978) observational approach used to assess anxiety in young children. Similar behaviours such as nail or hand biting and thumb sucking are mentioned in the DSM-5 (American Psychiatric Association 2013, p. 78) to indicate feeling excited, stressed, fatigued, bored, and frustrated. Nazma, in Bligh and Drury's (2015, p. 267) study, was also reported to suck her fingers in a similar way to how infants soothe themselves.

The pattern of not responding or avoiding interactions, as displayed by Patty at Gumtree Preschool, was reported in Shao's (2005, p. 202) case study with Baobab as well as Clarke's (1996) study of Vietnamese preschooler, Quoc. Clarke (1996, p. 274), similarly noted that Quoc appeared rather reluctant to interact with adults. Quoc also turned his head away from educators who tried to speak with him in English. Nazma, the almost four-year-old in Drury's (2007) study, was noted not to look at her teacher and appeared as if she was not listening (Bligh & Drury 2015, p. 267). Patty rarely interacted with English-only speaking educators, such as Jade, at Gumtree Preschool. Similarly, Nazma, in Drury's (2007, p. 74) study, was not recorded interacting with 'nursery' teachers after four terms of nursery school (the UK term for a preschool-type service). Nazma, like Patty, was also reported to use a silence strategy and was unwilling to communicate.

A child's WTC is shaped by context. Cross-cultural researchers suggest that 'situational variables may impact on a person's willingness to communicate at any given time in any given context' (Barraclough, Christophel & McCroskey 1988, p. 188). Such variables can be related to the tenor characteristics of the child's contexts of situation, in relation to the age, power, status, and role of children's interlocutors. Fassler's (1998) study alluded to evidence

that, for some children, having a peer to explore a second language with can be less confronting than communicating with an adult; this relates to observations of Patty appearing more confident and at ease when talking with Linda in comparison to adults. Alanis (2013, p. 46) furthermore posits that '[b]ilingual pairing lets children share their ideas and practice their oral language skills without being afraid of making mistakes'; children take more risks 'in non-threatening contexts' (Alanis 2013, p. 43)—alluding to contexts as also being something which can relate to emotions. Additionally supported by Aschermann (2001), peers can be considered to be on a level playing field, as opposed to adults where a power imbalance exists. Peers can be strong influencers of productive language learning as children can be more comfortable talking among themselves than with adult early childhood staff (Fassler 1998). Lastly, Soderman and Oshio (2008, p. 303) note that children's anxiety and isolation improved remarkably over the course of the year—perhaps once relationships and trust had formed.

Shyness was additionally mentioned in Scrafton and Whitingtons's (2015) South Australian preschool study. Scrafton and Whitington (2015, pp. 14, 18) furthermore reveal teacher reports of shyness as a hurdle to CALD children entering play. Toohey's (2000, p. 31) research also reported the parent of Surjeet querying whether her daughter's language development might have been delayed because he was 'shy'. Likewise, Smith (2006, p. 423) reported Dina, a Bengali/English speaker, as being 'extremely shy' in speaking with her teacher in English, and noted that Dina did not participate in whole group conversations in class when prompted by her teacher. Drury (2013, p. 383) also reported that:

> Nazma is extremely reluctant to communicate in English. She understands most instructions given to her but obstinately refuses to say anything. Occasionally, she will say a whole sentence but soon becomes silent again. She communicates with other Asian children in her home language. Nazma is a British-Pakistani who is almost four-years-old. Her teacher reported that she 'hardly ever speaks unless she wants something' and that she doesn't look at the teacher. (Drury 2013, p. 384)

A desire for something, as suggested in Drury's report (2013), appears to motivate a child to overcome their reluctance to speak.

Emotions were explored by Drury (2007, pp. vii–viii) when she returned to interview Nazma six years after her original ethnographic study when Nazma was preschool-aged. Drury asked Nazma, with regards to nursery class, "What did it feel like?", to which Nazma replied, "Scary". Drury further probed, "Why was it scary?", and Nazma offered, "Because this teacher…, shouted at me 'cos sometimes she used to shout at me because I never used to speak to her.". Next, Drury questioned, "Why didn't you speak to her?", and Nazma responded, "I was shy with teachers". Drury then asked, "Did you speak to anyone?", and

Nazma responded, “I speak to Mussarat.”—her Pahari bilingual teacher’s assistant. Paralleling the interpretation of the observations of Patty, and the reports of educators and Patty’s mother, Nazma recalled feeling shy among English-speaking educators but not with an adult speaker of her first language.

Shyness, as a risk factor for immigrant preschoolers learning EAL, is again highlighted by Keller, Troesch and Grob (2013, p. 328). They argue that ‘a highly pronounced degree of shyness impairs local language acquisition’. Such statements side with Krashen’s view of emotions as debilitative to language learning. Shy children make more speech pauses, produce sentences of lower complexity, and ask fewer questions, compared with their non-shy peers (Asendorpf & Meier 1993; Crozier & Perkins 2002; Evans 1987; Spere et al. 2008, cited in Keller et al. 2013, p. 328). Tasmin, from Bligh’s (2014) study also reflected on her early childhood experience as an EAL learner and noted that she did not feel comfortable:

> ‘I felt like a “fish out of water” … I remember withdrawing, thinking that this was … not part of my experience. What I was watching was not part of my world. I didn’t speak; I just watched, looked and listened … I wanted to go home. I didn’t feel comfortable. I felt alone and isolated.’ (Bligh 2014, p. 87)

A teacher’s difficulty in assessing whether a child was shy, lacked confidence, or deliberately did not maintain eye contact, was explored in Millar’s (2011) study. It has been suggested that Vietnamese-speakers may not look into your eyes as you speak to them, as avoidance of eye contact can be considered as being courteous (FKA Children’s Services 2009, p. 11). At Gumtree Preschool, Patty’s Vietnamese-speaking educator did not believe that Patty’s lack of eye contact was a cultural sign of respect; she confirmed that Patty was shy. Much evidence in the research literature corroborates with the notion that shyness is a factor impacting on additional language learning, and more specifically, language production. Research consistently shows that shy children often avoid conversational interactions in English with adults.

As mentioned in the findings chapter, children’s ‘un’willingness to communicate, a play on McCroskey’s (1992) original willingness to communicate concept, was used to described Patty’s look of discomfort and refusal when called upon to speak. Although Patty had attended preschool for several terms prior to the study’s commencement, she was still identified by preschool director, teachers and Vietnamese bilingual staff as a child who was speaking little English. Whilst the present study did not capture Patty’s earliest transitional experiences in learning EAL at Gumtree Preschool, is it probable that Patty experienced the traditional ‘silent period’, as described in past studies on English language learners (ELLs) (Clarke 1996; Krashen & Terrell 1983). In Bligh’s (2014, p. 67) study, the concept of

selective mutism—choosing not to communicate—was mentioned, although limited proficiency in the required language is one of the exclusion criteria (Toppelberg et al. 2005, p. 2). Bligh's (2014) study presented a vignette of a mother sharing that her daughter displayed stiffness and silence upon arrival at an early childhood setting. Another report by Bligh (2014) confirmed that it was scary for her focus child to talk to others. Educators also referred to Bligh's (2014) focus child as shy. The silent period is referred to as the non-verbal period in Tabors' (2008) research. Patty, however, was not completely silenced—she was not only non-verbal—she was still able to continue communicating in Vietnamese throughout the day to a number of interlocutors who also spoke her first language. Patty did not present as shy in the Vietnamese-speaking social context, only in English-speaking scenarios.

Patty displayed two contrasting personalities. While she was referred to as 'shy' by Vietnamese bilingual staff and her mother (in contexts when speaking English) yet, in Vietnamese, Patty was confident, chatty, and sometimes a leader among her Vietnamese-speaking peer group. Toohey (2000, p. 57) reported a similar scenario in her research, which identified Amy, a Cantonese speaker, as forthright and assertive in her first language exchanges, but initially reticent in English. Ball (2012, p. 81), likewise, noted that, in their home language, children can display dominance over other children and order them around.

Over time, Patty eventually developed her WTC and started to speak more regularly in English lingua franca with non-Vietnamese-speaking peers. When this occurred, it was noted that her initiations in English were often directed at age-mates. This observation relates to Halliday's (1985a) and Derewianka and Jones' (2012, p. 36) explanations of the systemic functional linguistics perspective and context of situation, which highlights that the tenor (the characteristics of the relationship between the child and the person with whom a child speaks) influences children's spoken language. The age, status, role, cultural affiliation, spoken language/s, and power of the person with whom a child speaks, essentially impacts upon the productive language choices a child makes when they speak. For example, a child may speak differently (perhaps more confidently) to someone who is younger, less powerful, who is familiar, and of equal status (a student), and may use different types of functions with them, than they would with an older, more powerful, adult person such as a teacher in the relationship.

Patty's experience with age-mate, Linda, highlights that peers interact on an 'equal footing' (Berk 2012, p. 372) and may be more relaxed and casual about speaking to fellow age-mates. Speaking with age-mates, rather than adults, appeared to lower Patty's 'affective filter' (Krashen & Terrell 1983) with regards to Patty's productive speech. Fassler's (1998, p. 390)

findings additionally demonstrate that '[m]any early uses of English were embedded in children's sociability, their eagerness to communicate and their efforts to cultivate friendships'. Patty's emotional context of feeling comfortable when interacting with Linda (in an interpersonal context of peer to peer tenor) extended Patty's use of English commands and demonstrated that peers can be strong influencers of bilingual learners' functional and productive language—perhaps more so than educators, in cases when children avoid conversations with adults due to fear.

'Communicative competence and social competence are inextricably linked', argues Tabors (2008, p. 34). To socialise, one requires language, and to learn a language, one needs to socialise. Limi and Van Van did not display any discomfort in speaking English (possibly due to it being their only means to successfully communicate at preschool as well as Van Van having recently experienced childcare). They socialised confidently, initiated conversations with a range of educators, and engaged in parallel and social play among peers who were more competent speakers of English. Tabors' (2008, p. 79) research explains how an outgoing personality can have an impact on how quickly a child learns a language. Dixon and Fraser (1986, p. 35) also report that some children were more active at attempting to make contact with others. Van Van also appeared to be a risk taker, who, despite making grammatical errors in his EAL speech, persisted in 'having a go' at speaking in EAL. Both Van Van and Limi displayed a greater willingness to communicate in English, than Patty. Tabors (2008) notes that personality plays a large part in a child's language learning, for example, a child experiencing shyness will likely speak less than an outgoing child, and 'risk taking children often plunge almost fearlessly into communication in a new language, making many mistakes but getting by nonetheless while receiving a lot of exposure' (Tabors 2008, p. 81). Whilst Limi did not appear apprehensive in speaking English, he did, however, encounter a different emotional challenge when he separated from his mother, during the early weeks of transition to preschool.

Separation challenges

There were times when Limi became upset, tearful, and clingy to his mother on separation. Limi's emotions, following separation from his mother, also led him to cry, often uncontrollably, and either withdraw (such as when he hid himself beneath the table), or seek support from educators. On the positive, Limi's emotions, in response to his separation challenges, motivated him to communicate, initiate dialogue, and seek resolutions with educators. For example, he expressed that he wanted "mam" and "I want to go home". Crying "I want Mum!" thereby rehearsed Limi's instrumental function of speech. Limi's

actions of withdrawal and seeking support both endorse the view that emotions motivate action, as proposed by MacIntyre (2002, p. 61), who asserts that:

> 'Emotion functions as an amplifier, providing the intensity, urgency, and energy to propel behavior'.

Further support for this view is found in Swain's (2013) research, where the emotion of embarrassment was seen to motivate a learner's attention to improve upon their vocabulary knowledge.

Whilst it is apparent that learning a new language poses a challenge for all people, for preschool children the challenge is often heightened by the unfamiliarity of the new preschool setting during transition. Intensifying this circumstance further, preschool marks the first time many children separate from their parents' care, to the care of unfamiliar people. Secure attachment has been identified as a major influence upon children's wellbeing and is a crucial element for children's healthy emotional development and learning (Berk 2013). When parents are no longer available at children's services, children are left to form relationships with educators, and this does not necessarily happen instantly. Crying can often be the result when preschoolers' parents depart and leave children at preschool on their own, as documented in this study, and as confirmed in other case studies on bilingual children in early childhood settings (Ball 2012; Bligh 2014; Clarke 1996; Drury 2007; Dixon & Fraser 1986; Shao 2005). In Dixon and Fraser's (1986, p. 34) study on multicultural children, the typical entry behaviours of preschoolers' included withdrawal and sobbing uncontrollably.

Behaviours, such as being upset during separation, indicate fear according to Bowlby (1973). Fear is one of the basic emotions linked to the amygdala's response in the brain (Ekman 1982, p. 147; Killcross 2000; Plutchik 2001, p. 349). As a response to fear, crying has the benefit that the tears and sobs can attract others to socially interact with upset children. Crying can result in educators talking with a distressed child as they comfort them. Such talk can afford a crying child opportunities to extend their EAL skills—both their comprehension and their productive language. Shao (2005, p. 230) asserts that 'if they do not cry they will be left all by themselves'; hence crying can be viewed as positive for promoting social interactions. Through tears and sadness, Limi attracted a number of educators to console him. His crying was also explained as one of the reasons why his peer, Wendy, chose to play with him. Bligh (2014) similarly mentioned how her preschool-aged participants' tears led her, as a researcher, to comfort them. In summary, crying can lead to more social interaction and more opportunities to listen to and produce EAL.

Crying has been identified by Drury (2013, pp. 382–383) who described how Nazma (a four-and-a-half-year old girl), like Limi, cried a fair amount during the first month of her transition to nursery, which resulted in her sitting on her bilingual assistant's lap and having cuddles. Limi cried for the first four weeks. Nazma's records are demonstrated in the following text, where the **bold** writing highlights her crying and finger sucking.

April 17th first nursery visit, **clung to mum crying**
April 18th played with sister Yasmin
April 23rd started nursery today, **cried, wouldn't settle for an hour or so, just sobbed and sucked fingers and had cuddles**
April 24th **cried most of the time**, stayed with her sister for a little while
April 25th BTA brought Nazma and Yasmin from home, **upset**, mum stayed and joined in
April 29th mum said she would keep her at home and bring her to nursery after the summer holiday, teacher suggested she only comes to nursery on Wednesdays and Thursdays when BTA is there
May 1st came in happily with mum, but then **upset all afternoon**
May 2nd **started to cry when mum left,** sat on BTA's lap, followed BTA around
May 3rd **crying**, teacher again suggested she only attends on Wednesdays and Thursdays
May 7th absent, doesn't seem to be attending very regularly
May 8th more settled, played in home corner
May 9th **cried for a while**, did some colouring
May 15th **sobbed quietly for a bit**
May 20th came in with her sister, Yasmin, did drawing
May 23rd Yasmin holds her hand and leads her around, she watches, **sucking her fingers**
June 4th did tracing, wouldn't attempt tracing over her name until helped
June 10th wouldn't try to trace over her name unless helped by an adult, **keeps putting fingers in her mouth**
June 17th separating a bit from Yasmin today

(Drury 2013, pp. 382–383)

The transition to school has been associated with being upset by Bligh and Drury (2015, p. 267), who stated that 'Nazma was clearly distressed by the early transition to school'. As the weeks progressed, Limi often positioned himself on the perimeter of the group-time mat, in a periphery location, rather than close to the teacher or among other peers. Similarly, in Bligh's (2014, p. 71) research, Tasmin was reported to have kept on the periphery. In Bligh's (2014, p. 69) study, a practitioner offered, 'I think they can feel overwhelmed at carpet time and need to be allowed some space to sit quietly and watch. It must be like going to another planet really'. A teacher's comments on Kimoto (a three-year-old Japanese/French speaking bilingual child) further offered:

> 'I have noticed that the children who can't speak English usually sit at 'the back' during 'carpet time'. 'They' don't like to sit at the front and won't move forward if you ask them to. I brought Kimoto next to me at the front of the carpet one morning, but he started crying, so I won't do that again. 'They' seem to feel happier just sitting at the back.' (Bligh 2014, p. 85)

Sitting at the back, Limi's longing for his mother's return was apparent, as he repeatedly looked behind in order to view the glass door from which his mother would later return. This

anticipation—another of Plutchik's (2001) set of emotions affecting learning—evidently distracted Limi from concentrating, engaging and participating during English language activities. He was seen to have difficulty concentrating at story and song times after his mother left. In such instances, Limi's negative emotions evidently hindered Limi's learning through listening and participation, aligning with Krashen's (1982) view that anxiety and the affective filter blocks learning.

Separation challenges were also noted in Shao's (2005, pp. 228, 261) study of Chinese three-and-a-half-year-old boy, Baobao. She used the term '*separation anxiety'* to describe Baobao's long adaptation period of four weeks during which he cried continuously. Shao argued that preschoolers who are learning EAL have 'special difficulties in comparison to English-speaking children who are also new to school' (Shao 2005, p. 225). She described children of language minority backgrounds as appearing 'to be invisible beings to teachers' unless they cry (Shao 2005, p. 230). Baobao was observed constantly crying, a concern to parents and a challenge for his teachers. Shao proposes that such children are disadvantaged by not being able to speak the school language and require a longer time to adjust. Shao also noted that Baobao stopped crying upon the Mandarin-speaking researcher's arrival. She stipulated that having an adult who spoke Baobao's language eased his anxiety and his transition. If Limi had had an Albanian ECWB, he may have responded differently and may have been more settled, like Shaun and Patty.

Separation challenges were also reported in Tabors' (2008, p. 163) research. She described Taro, a Japanese boy's experience, at the age of two years and nine months. He cried, displayed shrieking behaviour, and would display 'wild bursts' following the departure of his mother, during his transition to preschool. In the present study, Limi was more discreet about his sobbing. In Tabors' (2008) study, an educator often stayed close to Taro to support his transition. Taro required a lot of support to gain independence in the daily routines of eating and packing up. It was reported that Taro 'demands their full attention' (Tabors 2008, p. 164). Crying, therefore, often exposes a child to interpersonal experiences involving conversations with educators. The context of situation (as a result of crying) then involves a child with an adult/educator type of tenor. The adult may then ask the child many questions to which the child will likely respond with informative answers.

Similar to Limi's emotional experience, several children's 'tremendous separation anxiety in the early days of school' were reported in Fassler's (1998, p. 388) research investigating 31 EAL learners and peer support for getting into English in an EAL kindergarten classroom. In Millar's (2011, p. 14) study, which interviewed slightly older Korean children in schools in

Australia, one seven-year-old-child reported feeling ‘sad and lonely’ upon transitioning to school. Sung Kook, a five-year-old, also reported the concern that ‘he had no friends’, when he first arrived. The teacher said ‘positive relationships with other students had facilitated his adjustment’. For Limi, in the present study, the positive relationship was with Wendy, who befriended and supported him. Having same-language peers was also identified as beneficial for supporting children’s adjustment by Thu in the present study and in Drury’s research (2007). Bilingually-matched peers were not available to Limi at Gumtree Preschool. As Limi started developing peer relationships with children who spoke English, his separation challenges decreased, and opportunities to be exposed to comprehensible input and to trial his use of English increased.

The present study questions the view that emotional challenges are only negative and detrimental to children’s language learning. In some circumstances, emotions surrounding upset can invite social interactions conducive to language learning and sadness can motivate the development of relationships. Such emotions can propel children to interact and initiate language exchanges that they may not have encountered otherwise. Emotional challenges do not necessarily need to be viewed as purely negative, but rather as influential, in both negative and positive ways, during the language learning process.

Essentially, basic emotions, which relate to fear or sadness (distress), anger, disgust, happiness, surprise (Ekman 1982, p. 147), or trust (Plutchik 2001, p. 349), ignite related behaviours such as speaking with either confidence or reluctance. Emotions impact upon whether or not children speak, and can motivate what functions they communicate, such as seeking assistance, offering information, commanding or replying to a question. Motion is an echo of emotion, meaning that people act and use language functionally according to their emotions.

7.2.3 Functional language use

As established, children’s context of situation is influenced by social interactions (their interpersonal relationships) and emotional challenges. Social interactions and emotional challenges also motivate the production of different forms of functional language use.

The sub-questions stemming from the focus on bilingual children’s functional language use were:

1.3.1 What are the frequencies of bilingual preschoolers’ functional language—*instrumental, regulatory, personal, interactional, heuristic, imaginative,* and *informative*—when speaking EAL at preschool?

1.3.2 Which language functions are most and least commonly expressed?

As specific studies on the functional language use of bilingual preschoolers communicating in EAL settings are scarce, the following discussion compares findings from the present study against available studies on English as a foreign language (EFL) speakers and English-speaking children using Halliday's (2004) functional language analysis. The discussion also draws on other studies that implement alternative functional language analyses such as Hymes (1974), Piaget (1959, pp. 9-11), and Dore, Gearhart and Newman's (1978) coding schemes.

The most and least frequently expressed language functions in EAL

Results from the functional language analyses Chapter Five, *The Children's Experiences*, provided confirmatory evidence that focus children mostly used English to *inform* and *regulate* others, and also to talk about their *personal* selves. Gort and Pontier (2013, p. 231), on the other hand, reported that the functions of preschoolers' language, in two dual Spanish/English preschools, served to: offer explanations, share comments, ask questions, and answer teachers' questions. The high prevalence of the informative function in the results of the present study is consistent with Christoffersen's (2015) research involving kindergarten to second graders speaking Spanish and English, which identified the common use of *assertions* (giving information). This study's results are also consistent with research by Ambrosio et al. (2015, p. 110), involving Filipino/English-speaking seven-year-old children, which reported that the *informative function* was most common, covering a 21% proportion of spoken utterances in their study. Bluiett (2009, p. 99), once again, found that the *informative* function was most prevalent in functional language codings of non-specific preschoolers. Responding to questions was also reported to be common (ranging between 17.1–42.3% of functional utterances) in Tabors' (1987) six-month ethnolinguistic study. Tabors specifically coded *responsives* or answering questions. Lastly, the present study's findings, highlighting the common expression of *informative* functional language, additionally corroborates with Llinares García's (2005, 2007) Spanish studies with five-year-olds, learning EFL; although comparatively, Llinares García's research indicated that, pre-intervention, the *regulatory* function was most frequent, followed by the *informative* function. Post-intervention results found that the reverse order of, *informative* followed by *regulatory* functions, were the most frequently expressed. Llinares García mentioned that the *personal* function was highly common in her research, and in this study, the personal function came in as third most frequent for the four bilingual preschoolers combined, as well as in Shaun, Limi and Van Van's individual results.

Assertives, or informing-type utterances (involving describing or identifying) were, again common in Tabors' (1987) study, much like the present study, ranging between 14.5– 36.2%

of all functional utterances spoken by Tabors' (1987) children. The outcome of coding *requestives*, a combination of questions and requests, in Tabors' (1987) study were consistent with the present study's findings in that *heuristic* utterances were less common. In Tabors' study, questions and requests, ranged between 0–10.3%. Ambrosio et al. (2015, p. 110) also identified the *heuristic* function as one of the least common with zero codings in their study.

Regulatives, or attention getters, regulating others behaviours, also ranged from 8.7–30.4% in Tabors' (1987) study, much like the present study, where regulatory functions were second most common. The common prevalence of pragmatic-type *regulatory* expressions, in the present study, was also identified in Drury's (2007, pp. 61–63) research which posited that the purpose of children's use of early English utterances in the silent period is often to assert possession and protect children's personal space. In her research, Drury gave examples of Samia saying commands and regulatives: "no", "look", "shut up"; and Maria saying: "let my do it", "get off", and "you come down down down". These regulatory-type phrases were also similar to Patty's common, "*Stop! Hey that's mine*", Shaun's, "*here*", "*stop*", and "*look*", Van Van's "*Look at my mix*", and Limi's, "*No!*".

Assertions and *requests* were most frequent in Spanish according to Christoffersen's (2015, p. 63) study of Spanish/English bilinguals from kindergarten to 2nd grade. Gort and Pontier (2013, p. 231), on the other hand, also reported that the functions of preschoolers' language in two dual Spanish/English preschools served to: offer explanations, share comments, ask questions, and answer teachers' questions. The answering of educators' questions was also apparent in the present study. According to Havigerová and Burešová (2014, p. 65), the period between toddlerhood and preschool includes 'rapid development of the skills of asking questions', although in the present EAL preschool context, the asking of questions was rarely witnessed.

Heuristic questioning was much more common in the case of un-defined preschoolers in Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler's (1992, p. 166) research on presumably English-only speakers. Their finding contrasts to the results of the present study. In another case study by Thomas et al. (1992, p. 166), *heuristic* questions were calculated as being spoken 18%, 2%, 18% and 6%, for the four focus children. Unlike the current study, informative utterances were not seen to be as common for three of the children in the study by Thomas et al. (1992). They reported 10%, 15% and 10% for heuristic utterances; however, informative utterances were common for one child, Robbie, who expressed informative utterances at 62%. Thomas et al. (1992, pp. 155–156) also noted that when children transitioned to more formal kindergarten (the school year following pre-kindergarten), the *informative* function increased

and the *imaginative*, *interactional*, and *heuristic* functions decreased, due to a decrease in child-initiated talk. Gumtree Preschool's educators also appeared to contribute a lot of teacher-directed talk when asking questions to preschoolers. Learning through listening has been the focus of research by Flowerdew and Miller (2005); however, productive language is also considered valuable for learning (Swain 2005).

The focus children in the current study asked relatively few *heuristic* questions, less than 5% of their total of all utterances codings for all four children. When focus preschoolers did question, the types of questions were of a limited variety, for example, Limi used intonation to question the colour of a hoola hoop several times during the one language exchange. Bluiett's (2009, p. 202) findings are consistent with the present study, as she concluded that the *heuristic* function and the *instrumental* function, were the two least prevalent functions in her study with English-speaking preschoolers. Bluiett's (2009) study focused upon socio-dramatic play; she found that *interactional* speech was second most common followed by *regulatory* speech. Contrary to the present study, Llinares García's (2007) research identified that *instrumental* and *interactional* functions were the least frequent functions, rather than the *heuristic* function. The *heuristic* function was, however, the third least common in Llinares García's study and questions were significantly less frequent than *informative* and *regulatory* utterances.

The finding that the heuristic function was relatively scarcely expressed by the focus preschoolers at Gumtree Preschool raises concern for educators, as Halliday suggests that:

> When he is questioning, he is seeking not merely facts but explanations of facts, the generalizations about reality that language makes it possible to explore (Halliday 2004, p. 274).

The *heuristic* function is a *mathetic* function: a learning function linked with cognition and thought (Halliday 2004). Hence, a lack of questioning may have implications concerning the reduction of inquiry, exploration, and other aspects of learning. Bilingual children's newly emerging ability to grammatically master and formulate questions in EAL offers one explanation for the resulting lack of *heuristic* questioning at Gumtree Preschool. Differences in the heritage cultures of the children, and the types of interactions children are familiar with in their homes and cultural-linguistic communities, may also impact upon focus preschoolers' *heuristic* language use (Nicoladis & Genesee 1997). Children may not be encouraged to question adults in some communities. It is unknown whether the focus children at Gumtree Preschool questioned their parents regularly in their first languages.

Awareness of the influence of culture in questioning discourse is highlighted by Painter (1985, p. 38) and draws attention to the possibility that some bilingual children may be

discouraged from questioning in their home environment. Questioning practices may also be dependent upon a person having a familiar relationship and sense of trust with a particular person. A contribution to research from the present study is that the heuristic function of questioning is shown to be minimally produced by bilingual preschoolers. This scarcity appears to be due to the interpersonal aspect of the context of situation and the cultural-institutional practices involved in communications between adult/educators and children. The scarcity of heuristic questioning can also be explained by drawing attention to the emotions of preschoolers and the presence of fear or anxiety over speaking up. Further investigation is needed to ascertain why the act of questioning is reportedly minimal for bilingual preschoolers and how to encourage development in this area. Questions are valuable tools for learning, problem solving, and inquiry; questions activate thinking, cognitive abilities, and sociability (Havigerová & Burešová 2013, p. 65). If a child is challenged by the act of asking a question in their additional language, and they cannot communicate in their first language in the preschool context, it can then be assumed that the frequency of *heuristic* questions serving to seek information from others will be impacted. Not being able to ask questions has broader implications for bilingual preschoolers' learning, beyond language development, for cognition and concept development.

The formulation of questions, in Tarone and Lui's (1995) study of a six-year-old Mandarin-speaking boy speaking English, was suggested to have depended on the people with whom their focus child interacted. Their study posited that their focus child was less willing to ask questions in front of his teacher and more likely to ask questions in the home and with peers. In the present study, Patty also appeared comfortable to ask her age-mate Linda, "*What is that?*", and did not conceal her lack of knowledge in naming the owl in front of her peer. The asking of a question may depend on a child feeling emotionally comfortable to do so in different interpersonal situations with different tenor. Asking, or not asking questions, may additionally be linked to practices within a child's culture such when avoiding losing face. This example draws connections with SCT and SFL, by emphasising the influence of culture and social interactions, yet also incorporates an emphasis on emotions and functional language use. According to research by Smith (2006, p. 416), children may be less willing to make mistakes in front of a teacher. In Drury's (2007) study, however, the asking of questions by bilingual children was mentioned with reference to Samia. In the study, Samia asked questions such as, 'What is this teacher?' and 'Where shall I put this?', in Pahari (her first language) to her bilingual educator. By the end of Samia's second nursery term, Samia reportedly asked questions, among her Pahari-speaking peers, in English, by asking, 'Where

that go?', while doing a puzzle. Drury (2007, p. 69) described Samia's bilingually-matched peer, Bahriye, as someone who provided a 'supportive framework' for her.

Other language functions have been identified in Parke and Drury's (2002, p. 84) nursery class study of English language learning, which provided a short analysis of a transcript of four-year-old Pahari speaking bilingual child, Maria, to identify language functions. They also drew from Halliday's functional language approach and the researchers suggested—'rather than look at what the language *is*, we can look at what it does' (Park & Drury 2002, p. 84). In Maria's discourse, Parke and Drury (2002, p. 86) noted that language was used for purposes such as negotiating, assessing one's own behaviour, making a suggestion, eliciting opinion, criticising others, and directing others. There was no mention of questioning in Park and Drury's (2002) article.

The informative function was reportedly commonly spoken by children in Llinares and Pastrana's (2013) study that reported that, during teacher-directed whole-class discussions, the informative function was expressed in 72.8% of utterances. This was followed by 22.8% being personal utterances and only 3.7% heuristic. The teacher's dialogue, on the other hand, was mentioned to be commonly regulatory and heuristic. In contrast, the language functions expressed by children during peer group-work discussions were 29.5% informative, 30% personal and a higher 12.5% heuristic (Llinares & Pastrana 2013, p. 86). Children were found to question their peers more than their teachers.

Various styles of questions, as expressed by bilingual preschoolers, were identified in Wong Fillmore's (1976, pp. 610–632) study. These included rising intonation (the earliest form of questioning), as well as invariant tags (adding ', no?' to the end of a statement to form a question). The third type of questioning, involved using formulas such as "Can I…?" or "What is…?", were suggested to be one of the first 'wh-' questions that children formed. Wong Fillmore (1976, p. 618) noted that 'Ana took a longer time to produce some questions' and reported that 'She managed to avoid them by using Spanish when she wanted to ask questions of this type'. The asking of questions in children's home language was not investigated at Gumtree Preschool, as transcribing speech into home languages was not feasible in this study. It is unknown whether the children at Gumtree Preschool asked questions regularly in their home languages with bilingually-matched peers and educators at Gumtree Preschool, more than in their social interactions in English.

7.2.4 The interrelatedness of bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language

The final research question asked:

1.4 How can children's functional language use be explained in relation to each individual child's context?

The interrelatedness of bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use was explored in the present study. Understandings of focus children's individual contexts of situation (focusing on their social interactions and emotional challenges) served to explain the nature of bilingual preschoolers' functional language use. Although commonalities existed between the four children's functional language utterances, obvious individual differences were apparent (see **Figure 5-10**, **Figure 5-23**, **Figure 5-34**, and **Figure 5-45** for pie chart comparisons). Past research has generally reported quantitative findings to analyse the frequencies of functional language of preschool-aged children, and have not taken qualitative approaches to further identify social and emotional reasons for individual's differences in relation to their context of situation, or contexts of culture (Thomas, Rinehart & Wampler 1992; Llinares García 2005, 2007). Thomas, Rinehart and Wampler's (1992, p. 166) study demonstrated that Robbie expressed more informative utterances than the other three children. The report, however, did not provide details on the context surrounding Robbie's speech to offer an explanation as to why certain types of functional language resulted more often than others.

A higher frequency of *informative* utterances—a *mathetic*, learning-based function (Painter 1985, p. 21)—was displayed by Shaun and Patty in the present study. Analysis demonstrated that due to Patty and Shaun's social context of receiving more contact with allocated bilingual educators (adult and teacher-status types of tenor), more questions were asked of Patty and Shaun. This resulted in more *informative* utterances being provided in Patty and Shaun's responses. Shaun also had additional exposure to Sarah's language and communication support educator, who would often ask the two children many questions. Forty-four percent of Shaun's coded utterances were coded to the *informative* function, as educators' questions provoked this type of response.

Children's *informative* utterances have been suggested in other studies to result from their responses to educators' *questioning (*Llinares García 2005, 2007). This finding complements the present study's findings, as it was noticed that educators' common use of questioning strategies similarly elicited *informative* responses from Patty, Shaun, Van Van, and Limi. Bluiett's (2009, p. 99) research, likewise, reported that the *informative* function was coded mostly on days when there was more adult interaction (once again relating to availability of an adult/teacher tenor). It could be inferred that, the frequent use of *informative* language on such days resulted from the common practice of educators prompting children by asking them questions. Llinares García (2005, 2007) and Bluiett's (2009) attention to the influence

of educators lends support to the present study's claim of the interrelatedness of social interactions and children's functional language—educators elicit more informative utterances from children via their questioning practices.

Relationships have been considered to influence children's social and emotional development (Kim 2016). Kim (2016) researched the impact of peer interactions upon bilingual children's literary responses with Korean four-year-olds in the US, and asked: 'How do social interactions with peers facilitate children's literary responses in a dual-language context?' A connection was established between relationships, emotions, peer interactions and bilingual children's literary responses. For example, a bilingual child tended to agree with a close peer's responses to books when their relationship was strong; however, later on, when the relationship was more strained, the bilingual child disagreed with her peer's responses to literature. Research has neglected to draw attention to the impact of emotion and social interactions on bilingual preschoolers' functional language use.

Patty, the oldest child in the current study, encountered numerous peers in her Vietnamese social group—age-mates who she could order, command, and delegate. When one Vietnamese/English speaking peer told her "*You not my friend, Patty*", Patty responded emotionally in English, "*Don't say that*!". Patty employed the regulatory function more frequently than the other three children, who had smaller communities of close peers. Patty demonstrated 92 counts of regulatory utterances that included her commanding, instructing, and requesting actions from age-mates. Schofield's (2011, p. 128) research described 'selected participant-peer interactions that show differences in the individual participants' social skills and behaviours, and how these may have influenced the type of language experiences that they had with their peers'. A functional language approach was not specifically implemented in that study however. In Schofield's (2011) study, it was reported that Ruby displayed more aggressive language with younger peers, such as calling names to gain attention, than she did with older peers, when she asked permission to play with dolls. Another child in Schofield's (2011) study was evidenced commanding often to his age-mates.

In the present study, the instrumental function was expressed by Limi more so than the other children. He was the youngest and most emotionally distraught child during his transition to preschool. He was more dependent on adult educators' support than the other children as he transitioned to preschool and independence from his caregiver. Limi spoke 29 instrumental utterances in EAL, often communicating his want for 'mum', 'hat', or 'drink bottle', to adults. Patty, on the other hand, expressed 15 instrumental functions, and Shaun and Van Van

expressed only three. Limi's emotions of desperation to see his mother and to seek help in finding things motivated Limi to interact with certain people and produce certain language functions. Limi's emotional experience relates to the conceptual framework of the study which combines both SCT and SFL. Starting with SCT, Limi's cultural-institutional experiences of being separated from his mother at preschool led to his tears and curiosity surrounding his mother's return. The feelings resulted in Limi initiating interpersonal interactions with educators to meet his needs to express that he wanted something. In a SFL analysis, the context of culture (Limi being in a preschool setting) and context of situation (Limi experiencing a circumstance whereby he missed his mother or was distressed over a lost item—the field surrounding his communication exchange) led Limi to seek an interlocutor to speak with to state what he wanted 'Mam'.

The aim of studying bilingual preschoolers' functional language, in an EAL context in Australia, was to identify the nature of bilingual preschoolers' functional language use. The study also determined whether there were any gaps in focus children's range of producing various language functions. The study drew connections between children's productive and purposeful language, children's social interactions, and emotional challenges. Previous research along with the present study has highlighted the impact of English dominant contexts upon bilingual preschoolers' balancing of bilingualism, and have similarly noted the challenges that preschoolers who are learning EAL face regarding efforts to branch-out of their first language peer groups and play among a range of children. This study is one of few which have identified the role of LKOs in bilingual preschoolers' learning, although research with older populations of language learners has drawn attention to partnerships, dyads, and less capable peers. The present discussion has mentioned numerous studies reporting similar social, emotional, and functional language experiences to that of Patty, Shaun, Limi, and Van Van. Studies on functional language have highlighted that heuristic questions are often rarely expressed by bilingual children, and informative functions are the most common, although most studies involve small numbers of children and few are specific to bilingual preschoolers who are learning EAL. Understanding the emotional, social, and cultural context, surrounding children's speech—their context of situation and interpersonal circumstances, their context of culture and cultural-institutional influences, their personal experiences and emotional challenges—contributes to identify intentional, explicit, and facilitated teaching scaffolds for supporting bilingual preschoolers' language learning.

The following section complements the discussion on children's experiences by discussing the educators' implemented and proposed strategies to support bilingual children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use.

7.3 Educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers

Understanding bilingual children's experiences provides a foundation for recommending strategies to support bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL. The following discussion arises from answering the second research question, which asked:

- What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

A number of innovative strategies were observed and reported by educators at Gumtree Preschool. Many of the strategies, mentioned below, impact on children's context of situation, particularly aspects of the field (the content of what is said in relation to the experience) and/or the tenor (the relationship between a child and the people they speak to). Three distinct types of strategies emerged from the data:

Strategies addressing social interaction:

- implementing the bilingual program and providing opportunities for children to maintain their first languages
- loaning out bilingual books
- involving parents
- facilitating branch-out; and
- facilitating LKO and MKO peer partnerships.

Strategies addressing emotional challenges:

- developing trust and relationships
- supporting children's confidence and willingness to communicate
- easing transitions by offering half-day visits; and
- presenting visual schedules of the daily routine.

Strategies addressing functional language use:

- staging questioning-type conversations
- asking forced-choice questions
- teaching songs; and
- facilitating role-play.

The following sections elaborate on each of these groups of strategies in relation to the research literature.

7.3.1 Strategies addressing bilingual social interaction

Implementing bilingual programs and providing opportunities to maintain first languages

Active promotion of first language maintenance is becoming more prevalent in modern day preschools, as recommended by all four bilingual educators and the director at Gumtree Preschool. Shao (2005, p. 256) also endorses that there needs to be more teachers who are qualified in working with children learning EAL—this could also include bilingually-

matched educators. Bilingual grouping has been promoted in Jones Díaz's (2007) research to '[e]ncourage same background friendships', as was advised by Thu at Gumtree Preschool. Smidt (2008, pp. 78-79) also suggests that bilingual children 'should be invited to speak in their first language to one another'. Translanguaging and polylingual learning are endorsed by experts (García & Wei 2014; Gutiérrez et al. 2011, p. 233). Drury (2007) states that same language friends can assist enculturation and both maintain and further develop first languages. In Drury's research (2007, p. 75), their four-and-a-half-year-old preschooler, Nazma, and her 'use of her mother tongue' was considered as 'virtually her only lifeline to learning'; furthermore, '[h]er nursery teacher commented on the fact that Nazma "came to life" with the bilingual classroom assistant. This teacher viewed Nazma's 'mother tongue support as crucially important for her personal, social, emotional, and language development' (Parke & Drury 2001, p. 124). Cabezas and Rouse (2014) described a child's home language as a valuable resource and Drury's (2007, p. 99) research additionally argued that 'bilingual staff have an important role in helping mediate a continuity between the cultural and linguistic expectations of the home and school'. Drury (2007) also highlighted, however, that:

> 'the official literature produced in England clearly fails to recognise the distinctive nature of teaching and learning EAL adequately. And it is even less informative about the role of bilingual staff like Mussarat.' (Drury 2007, p. 99)

Drury (2007, p. 100) previously expressed that '[a]lso lacking is any guidance—or even research—on the use of BCAs [bilingual support] of both mother tongue and English to support children's learning'. The present study contributed several examples of a bilingual ECW's implementation of Vietnamese during bilingual sessions to somewhat address this void of previous research. The findings reveal how the bilingual educator switched back and forth from English to Vietnamese when reading a story to: (a) maintain children's first languages, (b) support children's comprehension of texts, and (c) assist in the learning of vocabulary in both English and Vietnamese. Research is presently directing more interest towards multilingual classrooms and polylingual learning (Gutiérrez et al. 2011, p. 233) in education.

With regards to retaining children's first languages, Cabezas and Rouse (2014, p. 65) interview research reported a teacher saying '*…believe me they will forget Vietnamese, fast enough when they come into this school system, unless you keep it up…'* Robertson, Rose and Drury's (2014, p. 617) bilingual practitioner in their study also offered, '*Allowing them to speak their home language is very important*'. García and Wei (2014) furthermore explored the practice of encouraging children's translanguaging—bilingual children's more complete

use of their full spectrum of language repertoires—in educational settings. Providing bilingual books is another technique used to support first language maintenance according to research (Morgan, Chodkiewicz & Jones Díaz 2013). Gumtree Preschool took the provision of books one step further by loaning bilingual books out for children to read at home.

Loaning out bilingual books

Although Limi did not encounter many opportunities to speak his first language at preschool, the preschool did endeavour to purchase and loan out Albanian bilingual texts (and texts in other first languages of the bilingual children at Gumtree Preschool). Loaning out books served as a means to value and encourage Limi, and others, to speak Albanian, or other first languages spoken by children at the centre, with family members at home. The preschool also attempted to purchase Burmese books for Van Van; however, the dialect they located was unfortunately not in Chin. Morgan, Chodkiewicz and Jones Díaz's (2013, p. 30) research, with bilingual learners in playgroup in Sydney, endorses the benefits of having bilingual books available to validate and promote home languages. Ball's (2012, p. 72) research again highlights the role of bilingual staff in maintaining first languages, particularly when reading books, stating, 'the two languages nurtured each other'. Teachers from Cabezas and Rouse's (2014) study also highlighted the use of bilingual books in children's home languages. The bilingual early childhood practitioners in Robertson, Drury and Cable's (2014, p. 617) study noted how stories were told in first languages. The educators in their study mentioned, '*If I'm having a story with them […] then I'm allowed to use my first language, their first language.*' Loaning out bilingual books was not reported in the literature initially reviewed for this study; hence, Gumtree Preschool's practice of loaning out bilingual books to families to read at home was considered to be a contribution to research and educational practice that was gained from this study. Loaning out bilingual books books provided an innovative way to involve parents in the maintenance and use of children's first languages. In addition, loaning bilingual books encouraged the consolidation of vocabulary in English—such as when Limi later selected the same familiar text to 'read' and discuss with a peer at preschool in English. It was the same text that Limi had read at home with his mother in Albanian.

Involving parents in the program

Parents were invited to participate in Gumtree Preschool's program on numerous occasions—a cultural-institutional practice of the preschool. They were welcome to speak in their first language and often first language friendships formed among parents, such as in the case of the parents of Shaun and Sarah who spoke Khmer. Gumtree Preschool endorsed the continued use of children's home languages. The value of first language use was evident when bilingual educators conversed with parents and children in Vietnamese and Khmer

regularly at the preschool. A teacher in Cabezas and Rouse's (2014, p. 65) study in a preschool in Melbourne, advised parents not to try to make children speak English at home because they will forget their first language once they enter the school system. Another teacher in the study offered '*It's really important you hold on to your home language, 'cause if you know one language really well, research has shown that they will pick up English very easily*'. Others offer that children's services need to consider being more bilingually supportive (O'Connor et al. 2014). In the absence of peers or bilingual support educators, parents are largely responsible for first language maintenance, although ethnic schools are available in South Australia in various languages (outside of school hours) to promote children's continued development of their first language. Educators and peers are in a better position to provide conversational partners for extending English, rather than parents. If parents were to increase their English usage at home, the adverse effect would be a reduction of opportunities for their bilingual children to use and maintain their first languages. In Limi and Van Van's case, only their family members could expose them to Albanian and Chin, as no one spoke those languages at preschool. For Patty and Shaun, however, parents, educators, and peers spoke their first languages at preschool; this created a need to facilitate branching-out (scenarios where children played among English-speakers who were not speakers of first languages) in order to set up circumstances where Patty and Shaun could play with a range of children—a criterion noted in the AEDC (2012) for rating children's social skills.

Facilitating branching-out

Whilst the 'branching-out' concept emerged from observations of Patty during this study, some of Gumtree Preschool's educators also recommended suggestions (of an interpersonal nature) that children play with native English-speaking children, role models, or 'other' children, as suggested below:

> Inclusion in small groups with *other* children which include native speakers of English (Erl's questionnaire response)
>
> Having good *role models* with bilingual children (other children) (Pam's questionnaire response)
>
> Encourage children to play with other children (Ria's questionnaire response)

In another recent case study in a South Australian preschool (Scrafton & Whitington 2015, p. 12), a teacher similarly recommended, '*I feel it is better to group them [CALD children] with English-speaking children to give them exposure to language*'. Bligh (2014) also recommends that children need good role models of English; they need to be paired with children they can learn from. Shao's study (2005, p. 274) of the functions of adult intervention to shorten bilingual children's adaptation period, recommended that educators in

early childhood classrooms 'find ways to encourage native speaking children to interact with non-native learners'. Hirschler's (1994) research also pointed out that teachers need to support children who are isolated to find ways to socialise with others.

Branching-out entails bilingual children playing among others in contexts where their English can be extended due to it being the only lingua franca to successfully communicate in. Soderman and Oshio (2008, p. 309) further suggested that parents could arrange playdates with children outside of preschool hours to scaffold different types of friendships for first and additional language learning and extend their use of English. Hirschler (1994, p. 6) believed that 'native speakers should be trained to interact with second language learners' to initiate, speak slower, enunciate better, request clarification, to recast and expand utterances. This was based on results revealing that children increased their initiation with target children, increased their utterances and turn taking, and increased interactions with the Khmer-speaking children after the intervention, hence exposing bilingual children to more English. Palermo and Mikulski's (2014) research recommended facilitating positive peer interactions (sharing, helping, and cooperating) among Spanish/English bilinguals and English-speaking peers to positively enhance Spanish/English bilinguals' expressive language skills (their English vocabulary knowledge and letter-word skills). One of their suggestions for supporting branching-out included teaching children the English vocabulary needed to invite others to play with them or to ask to join others who are more competent English speakers.

Facilitating peer partnerships with less knowledgeable others and more knowledgeable others

Gumtree Preschool's educators facilitated various interpersonal opportunities for focus children to interact with both MKOs (English role models) and LKOs (less advanced English users such as Sarah and younger occasional care children). Past studies have tended to focus upon MKOs, such as in Schofield's (2011, p. 195) research which indicated that 'interactions with English-speaking peers still play a vital role in English language acquisition of lone ESL children'. In her study, Schofield (2011, p. 131) provided several examples of Melissa (a three years-and-four-months old Afrikaans speaker) playing in the older children's area, asking peers questions and engaging in discussions. Melissa's peers 'provided the participant [Melissa] with prolonged exposure to peers' English language' and '[provided] her with appropriate language acquisition opportunities'. Shao's (2005, p. 274) study recommended that educators need to explore ways to encourage native English speakers to initiate interactions with non-native learners. Hirschler's (1994) research also experimented with pairing bilingual children with English role models. Bligh (2014), as previously stated, recommended that children need to be paired with children they can learn from.

The present study additionally highlights the role of LKOs—who provide a different category of tenor for children's interactions, and an alternative type of interlocutor relationship to that of a 'role model'. LKOs appear to have been overlooked in past studies with bilingual preschoolers, whereas at Gumtree Preschool, Henrietta, the language and communication support educator, directly facilitated the LKO/MKO partnership between Shaun and Sarah. The occasional care service additionally promoted the formation of LKO peer interactions by catering for a small group of children, aged two to four, in a three-hour session, which ran simultaneously with preschool sessions. Interacting with LKO occasional care children has not previously been identified as a beneficial strategy for supporting bilingual language learners and is hence a new contribution to research and practice. In the present study, Limi confidently explored EAL commands with younger occasional care children.

Teachers' efforts to encourage bilingual children to participate in English were mentioned in Clarke's (1996, pp. 264, 288) research observing Thao, a Vietnamese-speaking preschooler. Clarke (1996) also recommended that teachers' interventions need exploration in further studies with children learning EAL. Whilst studies often draw attention to strong role models of English to support language learning, studies highlighting the valuable role of LKOs are scarce. Alanis (2011, p. 22, 2013) has, however, focused on the benefit of '*bilingual pairing*' by mentioning the emotional scaffolds it can provide children to become 'more willing to take risks'. Explorations of LKO partnerships, which take into consideration emotional aspects of support, and reassign EAL learners into the position of mentor or MKO, are presently scant—apart from the present study.

7.3.2 Strategies addressing emotional challenges

Little previous research has intentionally investigated emotional methods of support for preschoolers as they learn EAL, apart from drawing attention to reducing anxiety and developing trust and relationships. Gumtree Preschool focused on relationships, transitions, and attachment by implementing the circle of security program and offering a provisional process to gradually transition children between home and preschool. The preschool educators also discussed strategies that supported children's 'willingness' or confidence to communicate.

Reducing anxiety, developing trust and building relationships

Shyness or anxiety has been found to have a negative impact on language learning, thus it has been noted that shy children are likely to require extra support in conversational activities (Strand et al. 2011, p. 368). It has also been noted that speaking anxiety can hinder language learning; thus, steps for building trust, to reduce anxiety, are recommended (Horwitz 2001).

Trust has also been identified as an additional primary emotion by Plutchik (2001, p. 349). Trust and relationships have been identified as crucial factors that influence children's learning environments (Fumoto, Hargreaves & Maxwell 2007; Howes & Ritchie 2002).

The preschool educators at Gumtree Preschool demonstrated an awareness of attachment theory, and preschool staff delivered workshops in the Circle of Security framework (Dolby 2007; Marvin, Cooper, Hoffman & Powell 2002) to ease children's transition from home to preschool. The circle of security notion details the process of children leaving their caregivers to explore independently and then later returning to their caregivers' care in a cycle. Over time, repetition of the circle of security process leads a child to develop trust and resilience. Limi was allocated to a small group session facilitated by teachers, Pam and Erl, who served the role of *primary caregiver*, while he adjusted to the absence of his mother. He sought assistance from educators regularly to meet his pragmatic needs. The practice of providing a primary caregiver was another strategy implemented at Gumtree Preschool to support the formation of relationships and trust.

The need for 'secure and trusting relationships between children and early childhood professionals' was highlighted by Clarke (2009, p. 7). Harvey and Myint (2014, p. 42) furthermore recommend that 'home language use can nourish trusting relationships [and] restore safe places' for children learning EAL in early childhood settings, particularly those from refugee backgrounds. In Patty's case, building trust was crucial to support her attempts to speak productively in English and overcome her apprehension. A teacher interviewed in Scrafton and Whitingtons's (2015, p. 12) case study similarly affirmed that '*Children's relationships with staff are really important. It's about trust (Teacher 1)*'. Scrafton and Whitington (2015) furthermore recommended that adults need to develop unique personal relationships with children by modelling entry strategies to play so that children trust them as co-players. It is essential that educators emotionally convey warmth and empathy towards learners in order to establish a relationship of trust (Williams & Burden 1997, p. 36). Shao (2005, p. 271) additionally pointed out the value of 'empathy' from educators who themselves have experienced life as an emerging bilingual. Richard (2007, p. 36), lastly, suggests that 'to most effectively prepare their students, teachers should aim to build not only cognitive and language skills, but social-emotional skills as well'. Educators need to make 'a strong attempt to lower affective filters' (Krashen & Terrell 1985, p. 100), so that learners gain confidence in oral language and communicating.

Supporting children's confidence to communicate

Confidence, or trust in one's abilities, relates to self-efficacy (Britner 2014, p. 5, 22) and involves reflections of one's own overall competence and capabilities across situations. Building children's confidence was suggested by both the director and Vietnamese bilingual educator in the questionnaire. Gumtree Preschool's educators demonstrated several linguistic techniques to encourage confidence and dialogue. Some educators such as Erl used humour (deliberately saying the wrong word for items or actions to make children relax and laugh), while others would '*up the ante*' (Tabors 2008, p. 94) and display an expectation for a verbal response before complying with children's requests. Such an expectation was demonstrated, for example, when Jade waited for Limi to ask her to tie his shoe before she continued to tie it. Limi evidently uttered, "*circle*", to instruct Jade to loop his shoelace. Forced-choice questioning was another strategy recommended by the Gumtree Preschool director to encourage speech and simplify the process for children of retrieving the vocabulary they needed to respond to educators' questions. The educators minimised the challenge yet expected an utterance.

The relationship between social-emotional factors of bilingual children's development, while being a topic rarely studied, was highlighted in Richards' (2007) Miami based research involving preschoolers. It was concluded that preschool teachers should support children's social and emotional developmental needs in order to provide a foundation for learning their additional language. Fumoto, Hargreaves and Maxwell's (2007, p. 135) study also suggests 'the importance of teachers' sensitivity towards EAL children's emotional experiences'. Gumtree Preschool's educators responded to children's emotional circumstances by easing transitions.

Easing transitions by offering half-day visits

To ease transitions the preschool offered half-day visits to Limi at the beginning of the year. Shao (2005, p. 273) recommends that bilingual children need help adjusting to the new environment in the beginning stages. Gumtree Preschool's half-day progression of visits supported bilingual preschoolers' gradual adjustment to the preschool EAL context. Ball (2012, p. 70) also highlighted an educator's belief in her study, that children who did not have English as a first language were more vulnerable and needed longer transition times to prevent emotional distress, 'W*e don't have the first language, so we have the longer transition period and that's the way we've been able to stop the fretful crying and upset*.', explained their participant. Another teacher in Ball's (2012, p. 71) study offered, '*A Korean child was crying…very upset. We didn't have a Korean teacher. The child just kept on crying till he fell asleep, exhausted. It was a big challenge for us*'. The educators in Ball's (2012)

study hence encouraged family members to stay with children, while children were settling in to preschool, and also phoned parents so that children could be reassured over the phone in their home language.

It took several weeks for Limi to adjust and settle into Gumtree Preschool without his mother's presence. Limi sat on the periphery as did Tamsin and Uzma in Bligh's (2014) research. Likewise, Limi cried for his mother. The preschool director's reduction of the preschool day offered Limi a more manageable half-day transitional visit from the start of his enrolment, particularly during his first term. In South Australia, an *Early- Entry Program* invites children from three-and-a-half years of age to start introductory visits to preschool prior to commencing pre-entry or full-time preschool sessions. The ability to offer such places usually depends on services enrolment numbers and whether preschools have availability in their staff to child ratios. Recently, DECD has been trialing bilingual playgroup programs in South Australia to support transitions to preschool. The strategy of transitional visits was not mentioned in research by Shao (2005), Clarke (1996) or Tabors (2008). Some preschools in South Australia, with high numbers of bilingual preschoolers, also offer only half-days on the first week of the preschool year, in order to ease the transition and result in positive emotional outcomes and less trauma or distress. Parents are also phoned to collect children early if they are not coping with the full-day routine.

Providing visual schedules of the daily routine

The visual schedule of the daily routine that Kate, the director, organised at Gumtree Preschool supported Limi in his experience of emotional challenges. Six out of the ten educators also mentioned routines in their questionnaire responses. The preschool's visual schedule (that was displayed on the wall at children's height) demonstrated when to expect home time and what activities would occur in the meantime. Gumtree Preschool used actual photographs of the children doing such activities. The use of photographic visual schedules has not been noted in the studies previously cited in the literature review, although, Tabors' (2008) research noted that predictable routines can ease anxiety. de Courcy and Farndale (2017, p. 58) have since recommended using visual time boards. The visual schedule particularly supported Limi, who sought reassurance and confirmation about when his mother would return. In general, recommendations cited in the literature have often focused upon linguistic strategies, or social strategies, and only to a lesser degree on emotional and functional language strategies to support bilingual preschoolers.

7.3.3 Strategies addressing functional language use

Many of the language based strategies used and recommended by Gumtree Preschool's educators included using: 'visuals', 'simple language', and 'repetition'. These strategies were consistent with the general strategies documented by Tabors (2008), Barone and Xu (2008), Clarke (2011), Díaz-Rico (2008), Hardin et al. (2010), and Facella, Rampino and Shea (2005). Advice to provide wait time (Tabors 2008) and to pause after questioning so that children can formulate a response is one effective strategy mentioned in past studies to elicit the informative function from children. Educators' questions play a role in encouraging children to 'engage in extended conversations, facilitate comprehension, and stimulate thinking', as stated in Davis and Torr's (2016) research on educators' in long day care, in Australia. More specific strategies for addressing functional language use when teaching bilingual preschoolers are, however, needed. In the present study, support for certain language functions was generally demonstrated rather than suggested by educators. Some functions were elicited more than others such as the informative function or the imaginative function (incorporating singing and role-play), compared to teaching heuristic questioning. Educators did not make specific reference to the functions of language when recommending strategies to support preschoolers' learning of EAL, nor did they demonstrate their own knowledge of what types of functions of language existed. Educators were not primed on this focus of the study, hence the data was naturalistic and there was no intervention or change to the educators' usual practices when supporting bilingual preschoolers. The finding that the heuristic function was minimally expressed by children, and rarely elicited from children, was determined within the natural setting.

Supporting the heuristic function

Questions were rarely explicitly supported by Gumtree Preschool's educators, and they do not appear to be heavily promoted in the literature on bilingual preschoolers. Birbili (2017) recently published suggestions for '*Supporting young children to ask productive questions*'. Llinares García (2015, p. 85) posits that '[a]s can be expected in any classroom context, the student gives information in response to the teacher's question'—children do not seem to ask questions as often themselves. In relation to the context of culture, Millar's (2011, p. 15) research with older Korean ELLs highlighted that one learner 'was still getting used to asking questions because this was not encouraged by Korean teachers'. Research with mainstream five to seven-years-olds, on the topic of children's ability to ask questions, recommends explicitly encouraging children to ask questions using strategies such as inviting children to '[t]hink of as many questions beginning with the word "what"' (Havigerová & Burešová 2014, p. 71). Other experts suggest that educators invite parents to support questioning

(Birbili 2017, pp. 18). Birbili (2017, p. 5) also questions whether questions are becoming 'endangered' in early childhood settings. Schofield (2011, p. 31) discussed educators' questioning practices in her thesis and noted the teaching strategy of 'Initiation Response and Evaluation'; she suggested that these types of conversations generally begin with a question from the teacher. Conteh's (2005b, p. 54) school-based research highlighted the quality of teachers' talk in a job share circumstance where two teachers, in three-way conversations with children, asked questions and modelled ways that talk could be used. Llinares García's (2005, 2006, 2007) intervention research demonstrated how preschool programs could be structured to intentionally encourage different language functions, such as questions, from preschoolers learning EFL. Gumtree Preschool's main support for heuristic questioning took shape in the form of modelling staged questioning-type conversations between educators. Staging questions was not found in previous literature, although categories for types of questions posed to children were (Hay & Fielding-Barnsley 2012).

Asking forced-choice questions

Forced-choice questioning, similar to the multiple choice options questioning in Farndale's (2011) research, was mentioned numerous times by Gumtree Preschool's director as a strategy to encourage children to verbally communicate, even if they were only able to respond non-verbally. Forced-choice questions serve to close the *expressive language gap* and promote children's willingness or competence in communicating (Hay & Fielding-Barnsley 2012, p. 25). Forced-choice questions are a type of level one question as identified in research by Blank, Rose and Berlin (1978a, 1978b). These questions have minimal complexity and are therefore more likely to achieve a verbal response from children, often in the form of an informative function. The question, "Is it a cup or a plate?", is an example.

Teachers often ask questions as demonstrated in Llinares García (2006) and Llinares García and Trillo's (2007, p. 207) research with EFL five-year-olds. Likewise, at Gumtree Preschool, children often replied to questions with informative or personal statements as their answer. Interestingly, answers, as a function, were mentioned by Piaget (1959, pp. 9–11), while in Kumpulainen and Wray's (1997, p. 8) research, *responsives*, were considered a function which related to children's answering of questions. Havigerová and Burešová's (2014, p. 63) research with mainstream classes of five to seven-year-olds, concluded that 'schools should encourage and develop children's ability to ask questions' as 'questions are a mediator for both communication and thinking'. Neither answering, nor responding to questions, was considered in Halliday's (2004) original coding system for the seven initial functions. The seven initial functions show no differentiation between informative-type language that is initiated by children or elicited by interlocutors' questioning.

A review of research on educators' questioning, by Siraj-Blatchford and Manni (2008, p. 9), noted how 'adult's tendency to overuse 'controlling' moves, such as questions… had definite consequences for the way children responded or participated in classroom talk'. This statement identifies the impact of the tenor (the relationship between children and their interlocutors during social interactions) to influence the productive and functional language of bilingual preschoolers. Siraj-Blatchford and Manni (2008) prefer to promote sustained shared thinking, and opened questions rather than closed questions, with children. Some experts believe that over-questioning actually inhibits conversations. Adults at Gumtree Preschool tended to promote the informative function through children's answering of questions, the personal function through children telling educators about themselves and the imaginative function through educators facilitating group-time singing. In the present study, the imaginative function incorporated songs.

Teaching songs

In the questionnaire data, six educators suggested songs as a strategy to support EAL learners. Patty, Shaun, and Van Van, in particular, would sing regularly at group-times led by educators. It was also noted in observations that singing led children to rehearse lengthy strings of words into sentences. Singing has been recommended in much research to support bilingual learners, and has been linked to the benefit of the 'musical din' (Bird 2007, Clarke 1996; Miranda 2011; Paquette & Rieg 2008; Priester 2011; Shao 2005, p. 194; Shin 2010). The 'musical din' leads children to subconsciously practice new words (Priester 2011, p. 8). Research also suggests that the act of singing can reduce speaking pressure and anxiety, and can increase one's willingness to communicate and produce language (Priester 2011, p. 8). Singing can be suitable for anxiety sufferers and shy children (Beaty & Pratt 2011, p. 71; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986, p. 127). In Clarke's (1996, p. 265) study, singing was considered to have had a positive effect on Thoa's 'entry into English'. At group-time, preschool teachers play a strong role in facilitating singing and actions for role-play (the other form of imaginative utterance).

Facilitating role-play

Gumtree Preschool's educators often programmed make-believe play activities by providing props and costumes during playtimes. Play creates a zone of proximal development and when playing (such as in role play) it is as if the child is a head taller than himself and so behaves in a more mature manner (Vygotsky 1978, p. 102). A number of researchers promote the benefits of dramatic play in supporting bilingual children's language development (Li 2012; Rieg & Paquette 2009; Scrafton & Whitington 2015, p. 12). Dramatic play scaffolds the imaginative function of language, although at the same time, while in role-play, the present

study showed that children's imaginative language might also serve instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, informative, or heuristic purposes. Many utterances were coded as imaginative as well as other forms of functional language in the study.

7.3.4 Unexpected findings

The double coding of imaginative functions was not anticipated in the study. Another unexpected finding during the study was that bilingual preschoolers rarely questioned and that Gumtree Preschool's educators did not specifically and explicitly teach questioning to the bilingual preschoolers learning EAL. Gumtree Preschool's educators were informed of this finding, and the following year the director prioritised questioning in their annual report.

The many findings that emerged from the present study, however, relate to the development of the conceptual framework.

7.4 How the findings contribute to theory

The present study combined numerous theoretical frameworks from SCT, SFL, and research on emotions in SLA. What they all share in common is their emphasis on context. The triangulation of multiple theoretical perspectives, as well as multiple methods and types of data from different sources, produced new knowledge on the context surrounding, weaving and influencing children's productive language use.

> Triangulation means that researchers take different perspectives on an issue under study or—more generally speaking—in answering research questions. These perspectives can be substantiated by using several methods and/or several theoretical approaches. Both are, or should be linked. Furthermore it refers to combining different types of data on the background of the theoretical perspectives, which are applied to the data. As far as possible, these perspectives should be treated and applied on equal footing and in an equally consequent way. At the same time, triangulation (of different methods or types of data) should allow a principle surplus of knowledge. For example, triangulation should produce knowledge on different levels, which means they go beyond the knowledge made possible by one research approach and thus contribute to promoting quality in research (Flick 2008, cited in Flick 2018, p. 452)

The present study offered an extension of the current SFL and SCT based conceptual frameworks surrounding the context of language learning and language use (refer back to literature review section 2.2.1 and 2.4.1). This study incorporated an explicit emotional lens of focus (additional to the cultural-institutional, interpersonal and personal lenses) and highlighted an emotional context (additional to, and relating to, the context of culture and the context of situation, and more specifically relating to aspects of field and tenor). The study drew from other theoretical perspectives on emotions and language learning by SLA researchers such as MacIntyre (2002) who defends that emotions motivate action; Swain

(2013) who argues that emotion and cognition are interrelated; Horwitz (2001) who notes that anxiety can silence speech; and Krashen and Terrell (1983) who originally highlighted that the affective filter has an effect on speaking (refer back to the literature review section 2.5). Emotions are part of the context and can be considered one of the sub-contexts surrounding speech. Emotions are related to culture, social interactions, a child's actions and their speech.

Context or *contextere* can be defined as the weaving of aspects (like a thread), as well as that which surrounds something (Cole 2017, pp. 85–87). The following conceptual image of nesting circles and weaving threads (see **Figure 7-1**) illustrates how the multiple sub-contexts surrounding speech interact in relation to the experiences of two of the bilingual preschoolers in this study. This conceptualisation offers a more thorough explanation and understanding of bilingual children's productive language use in relation to the context of their experiences. The conceptualisation takes into consideration the culture, the social, the mind and the behaviours concerning functional language use. The present study merges what was learned from the past emphases of social interactionist, nativist, behaviorist, sociocultural and systemic functional linguistic perspectives and contributes future focuses on emotions, the functions of language and context.

Figure 7-1: Merging conceptual frameworks in order to more thoroughly understand bilingual children's language use

In example 1 (Ex.1), Limi's experience (refer back to findings section 5.5.3) is explored. The contextual thread begins with the cultural context surrounding the cultural-institutional practice of Limi's parent's departure from preschool. This circumstance led to Limi experiencing sadness and fear over his separation from his mother—the emotional context. Limi's emotional response to the preschool routine motivated Limi to seek social interaction and assurance from an adult. The practice of seeking assistance from an adult was likely encountered by Limi quite regularly in his home culture as he lived with his paternal grandparents and parents. The motivational force of seeking emotional reassurance from an adult educator resulted in a certain tenor (adult to child / teacher to student type interaction). This resulted in Limi appealing to his teacher—the person with the power and teacher

status—that he wanted his mother. Limi, in effect, produced speech belonging to the instrumental category, "*I want mum*", as a result of the overall emotional, cultural and social contextual influences surrounding his speech. The various sub-contexts threaded together to result in Limi's spoken utterance.

In the second example of Patty's experience (Ex.2), Patty was observed playing alongside adults and peers with a book (refer back to the findings section 5.3.3 and the preceding paragraph). Patty noticed a picture of a bird but did not know its name. Not having the vocabulary for this bird led to Patty's concern of losing face (a concept relating to Patty's Vietnamese culture). Patty's *fear* and *apprehension*—a basic and extended emotion according to Plutchik (2001)—due to the risk that she would display her lack of knowledge to the teacher, impacted upon Patty's decision not to question the teacher. However, Patty's confidence and *trust* (again, one of Plutchik's emotions) with her age-mate peer, Linda, led to Patty whispering to her friend to query, "*What is that?*", before telling the teacher confidently afterward, "*It's a owl*". Patty, therefore, expressed the heuristic and informative functions of language due to the socio-emotional scaffold available from her peer, but also as a result of the cultural context surrounding the event. If Linda was not present, Patty may not have spoken at all.

There were many other examples of how emotions impacted upon children's productive language, such as the time when Patty refused to participate in a game at large group time; when Limi frustratedly commanded "no" to a younger child who was opening cupboards; when Van Van's nerves on his first day of preschool led to him zipping his face up in his hoodie, thereby reducing his opportunities to talk with others; and when Shaun started to trust his ability to speak English and eventually displayed confidence when speaking aloud to mentor his less experienced peer, Sarah.

In summary, there is a rationale for the emotional context to be more explicitly emphasised in the conceptual framework surrounding language use. Emotions arise in connection with the field and tenor, the 'what is happening?' and 'who is taking part?' in the context of situation (Halliday 2004, p.277). Emotions can also be related to a child's culture as well as their own unique personal thoughts. Another contribution to theory, resulting from the present study, is that emotions integrate with Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974) scaffolding concept and can be incorporated into Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD. By incorporating emotions into the ZPD, the presence of an LKO peer can be considered to have more value than an MKO, in the case of bilingual children learning to rehearse their new language. The emotionally supportive effect of an LKO can motivate speech. An LKO can inspire bilingual children to rehearse their

productive language and talk in circumstances where they would otherwise not, should there only be MKOs present. Refer back to the fish analogy and discussion on MKOs and LKOs in **Figure 5-19**.

7.5 Summary of the discussion on children's experiences and educators' strategies

Throughout this study, much evidence has corroborated the notion that interplay exists among the social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language spoken by bilingual preschoolers learning EAL. It has been argued that the people with whom a bilingual preschool learner interacts (or the people who they are separated from—in the case of Limi's mothers' departure) can influence whether children encounter emotional challenges that influence their productive speech. Likewise, a child's emotional experiences of crying can also attract certain people to interact with and speak with a child. Vice versa, an emotional experience can lead to a child seeking out certain people, associated with a certain tenor, to initiate speech with and to achieve comfort and support. As noted by a teacher in Bligh and Drury's (2015, p. 267) research, Nazma "*hardly ever speaks unless she wants something*". Emotions, indeed, provide the motive to act, to speak, and to seek out certain interlocutors.

The influence of the context of situation—the field, tenor and mode—is illuminated in Halliday's (2004) research on children's utterances. This study drew particular attention to how emotions and social interactions relate to the field and tenor, and furthermore relate to the functions of language as children express themselves verbally. With regards to the tenor, aspects of power, familiarity, role, and status in relationships can impact on children's productive and functional speech. In this study, the context of situation was seen to incorporate: the people preschoolers interacted with, the feelings they had, and the circumstantial purposes surrounding their spoken communication. Together, these motivated what a child said, how their productive language skills developed, and what kinds of linguistic formulas they consolidated through practice. In agreement with Vygotsky, learning leads development.

The three domains of bilingual children's social interaction, emotional challenges, and functional language use interrelate and ultimately impact upon the types of productive language a child has the opportunity to rehearse at preschool. Rehearsing different types of language functions leads to automaticity in expressing: wants, commands, social speech, personal details, pretend-speech and song, questions, and information. In simple terms, 'we cannot fully understand a text if we do not know something about its context' (Figueiredo 2010). If we want to gain a thorough understanding of the ways bilingual preschoolers learn to speak English, then we need to be aware of the context in which they speak.

8. The Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

To conclude the investigation of four bilingual preschoolers' experiences and ten variously qualified educators' strategies to support bilingual children's learning this final chapter serves several purposes. The first purpose is to review the aims and context of the study as well as the research gap and the research design. The second purpose is to summarise the main empirical findings related to each research question. The third purpose is to posit the argument that bilingual children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use interrelate. And the final purpose is to present a number of theoretical, methodological, practical, political, and pedagogical implications, along with recommendations for the direction of future research. The study concludes with a note reiterating the value of incorporating systemic functional linguistics and the concept of culture and context of situation into studies of language that combine attention to the social, emotional, and functional language experiences of bilingual preschoolers.

8.2 Aim and context of the study

The purpose of the present case study was to describe and more thoroughly understand the context surrounding the experiences of bilingual preschoolers as they learned to speak EAL, by focusing on four focus children's social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use at preschool. The research was driven by my own 15 years of personal experience as a preschool educator, as well as recent quantitative Australian research based on checklists (AEDC 2014). The Australian Early Development Census identified the rise in four to seven-year-old bilingual children, and that a concerning 58% of children from language backgrounds other than English (LBOTE) who were not proficient in English, were at risk, or considered developmentally vulnerable, in social, emotional, and communication domains (AEDI 2009; AEDC 2014; Goldfeld et al. 2011). This qualitative case study, therefore, aimed to deliver detailed descriptions (through participant observation) to achieve thorough understandings of the social, emotional, and functional language experiences of Australian bilingual three to five-year-old preschoolers, in a natural context.

Past research on bilingual preschoolers has investigated mostly American and British children (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Shao 2005), and has identified the linguistic stages, periods, or sequences of bilingual children's EAL learning (Clarke 2009; Tabors 2008), but has not focused on children's functional language use. Other studies have explored some aspects of bilingual preschoolers' social interactions (with peers and educators), but have not linked social interactions specifically to children's functional language use (Hirschler 1991, 1994; Fassler 1998, 2003; Soderman & Oshio 2008). Emotions have rarely been intentionally focused upon at the outset of research with bilingual children (Kang et al. 2014; Priest, Baxter & Hayes 2012; Ren & Wyver 2014), although emotional events have been described within case study reports (Bligh 2014; Drury 2007; Shao 2005). A combined focus on all three aspects—social interaction, emotional challenges, and functional language use—drawing attention to how they interrelate, has not been investigated in previous studies with bilingual preschoolers. Finally, past research has rarely compared the experiences of children who encountered matched-bilingual support with children who did not at preschool.

The second focus of the current study was to identify implemented and suggested educators' strategies to support bilingual children learning EAL. This provided more information on the preschool context from a cultural-institutional lens. Strategies were sought to address social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use. Past research has mostly conducted interviews with mainstream teachers to determine recommendations for teaching practices (Facella, Rampino & Shea 2005) or has administered questionnaires, to gain information on strategies to support the home language (Jones Díaz 2007). This study combined interviews, questionnaires, and observations and involved—not only teachers—but a variety of educators: the director, teachers, early childhood workers, bilingual support educators, and a language and communication preschool support educator. The research site was a preschool recommended by the state Bilingual Manager and northern region's Early Childhood Consultant for supporting bilingual preschoolers in South Australia.

The case study drew from an interpretive epistemology and was based on the social interactionist conceptual framework and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, with a focus on two concepts: zone of proximal development (ZPD) and more knowledgeable other (MKO). Wood, Bruner and Ross's (1974) scaffolding concept was also incorporated. The research design additionally drew from themes derived from research incorporating emotions, in combination with Halliday's (2004) functional language theory and the context of situation within systemic functional linguistics. The emphasis on 'context', be it social/interpersonal, emotional/personal/intrapersonal or cultural/cultural-institutional, was a common theme shared by the multiple theories. Patty, Shaun, Limi, and Van Van's social interactions,

emotional challenges, and functional language use, and their ten educators' strategies for support, were investigated through multiple lenses. The study delivered illustrative and contextually detailed descriptions and transcriptions to demonstrate the bilingual learners' experiences and the educators' practices. The following section summarises the empirical findings

8.3 Summary of empirical findings

The following questions were answered by the present study.

1.1.1 With whom do bilingual preschoolers interact regularly at preschool?

When analysing the interpersonal circumstances of the preschoolers' preschool context, it was found that the focus preschoolers in this study often interacted with bilingually-matched peers and educators who spoke their first language (if they were available). Patty and Shaun spoke combinations of Vietnamese and English, or Khmer and English, with bilingually-matched peers. If bilingually-matched peers or educators were not available—the focus preschoolers were then found to only interact with peers and adults through English. It was additionally noticed that the peers and adults with whom the focus children interacted were also people who attended the focus preschoolers' allocated small group sessions. All focus children developed close relationships with certain peers and some additionally played regularly among various children. One child, Patty, demonstrated a preference for speaking with age-mates over adults. Some parents also participated in aspects of the preschool program.

1.1.2 What languages do focus children speak in these interactions?

The focus children who encountered bilingually-matched peers, Patty and Shaun, spoke their first language frequently at preschool. The use of their first languages was in addition to speaking English; however, Patty took longer to use English regularly. The focus children who did not encounter bilingually-matched peers or educators, Limi and Van Van, showed a remarkable difference, as they were found to speak almost only English, apart from a couple recordings of dilingual discourse with an educator, or using their first language when speaking with a parent. For the most part, the first languages of the children without bilingually-matched educators and peers appeared to be silenced.

1.1.3 What language learning opportunities do these social interactions afford?

This study revealed that having bilingually-matched peers and educators available at the preschool (as experienced by Patty and Shaun) afforded *balancing bilingualism*—where

bilingual children were able to express themselves in both their first and additional languages at preschool. Children with bilingually-matched peers and adults were able to retain their identity at preschool as *productive bilinguals*—someone who not only understands but speaks two languages (Wei 2000, p. 5). At the same time, it was apparent that the children who encountered bilingually-matched peers were occasionally deterred from playing with peers from different linguistic backgrounds, due to the pressure from their bilingually-matched peers to play together. Patty and Shaun encountered difficulties when attempting to *branch-out* to play with preschoolers who did not speak their first language. The struggle to branch-out was seen to restrict children's opportunities to experiment with productive English among MKO speakers of English—native-English speakers or more competent English-as-lingua franca speakers.

The bilingual children, Limi and Van Van, who did not have matched first-language-speaking peers and educators available at preschool, encountered an imbalance of opportunities to speak both EAL and their first language. Limi and Van Van were not afforded as many opportunities to have their first language actively valued and maintained at the preschool, when compared with Patty and Shaun. On the other hand, these children, who were without bilingual support, experienced numerous opportunities to interact with English-speaking peers. There was no alternative option afforded to Limi and Van Van and no peer group pressure present to stop them from playing with English speakers from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Branching-out was not a concern for children who were without bilingual support as the only 'branches', or people available for them to play with, were peers who could speak, or were learning to speak English.

The affordance of having a less knowledgeable other (LKO) peer, to extend productive speech, was identified at Gumtree Preschool. During the study, an LKO peer afforded Shaun the social-emotional scaffold to produce English speech, whereas he had previously appeared to lack the confidence to communicate. As a result, Vygotsky's ZPD and MKO concepts are expanded in the present study, to identify the emotional scaffolds that an LKO peer provided. Shaun's LKO, Sarah, appeared to boost Shaun's confidence and decrease his apprehension about speaking aloud in English. Shaun adopted the role of mentor with his LKO, Sarah, an interlocutor offering a less intimidating type of tenor in his context of situation. Halliday (2004, p. 70) drew attention to tenor by noting that with different tenor 'the speaker adopts a role'. In the context of Shaun interacting with Sarah, his new role upgraded him to the status of MKO, as he was more advanced in relation to his productive English language skills. The presence of Sarah appeared to prompt Shaun to produce numerous EAL utterances, utterances that might not have been produced had Sarah not been present. With Sarah, Shaun

was confident and competent when speaking English. The value of Shaun's outspoken language production in Sarah's presence furthermore, afforded Shaun benefits of greater automaticity, hypothesis testing, and clarification checks, as reported by Swain (2000, 2009).

1.2.1 What emotional challenges are encountered by bilingual preschoolers who are in the early stages of learning to communicate in EAL?

Shyness—the lack of confidence, awkwardness, anxiousness, nervousness, apprehension, reluctance to speak, and an observed discomfort while communicating—was experienced by two of the four preschoolers: Patty and Shaun. Both children had the option to use their first languages at preschool yet appeared uncomfortable when they were encouraged to speak English in front of adults or in front of a large group on numerous times. Shaun was sighted putting his hands to his mouth on several occasions like a pacifier—a behaviour identified in Glennon and Weisz's (1978) observational approach to the assessment of anxiety in young children. Patty, on the other hand, would stare and freeze in adults' company. She was verbally unresponsive many a time when educators engaged with her in English by asking her questions in order to coax her to speak in EAL. Patty had already attended Gumtree Preschool for three terms (i.e. 9 months). She experienced a long silent period. Shyness was reported by educators and parents, in consensus, as a likely explanation for Patty's awkward behaviour, whereas Shaun's initial quietness was later theorised to have been related to his less experienced EAL speaking status in the hierarchy of his original Khmer peer group consisting of many MKOs. In Shaun's small group, the more competent children tended to speak up to answer educators' questions. Shaun was initially quiet.

An emotional *separation challenge* was experienced by Limi when his mother departed during the earlier weeks of his introduction to preschool. Limi would cry, hide under the table, sit at the perimeter during mat time, and constantly look backwards to monitor the glass door entrance while awaiting his mother's return. Limi would speak to educators while seeking after his mother; and expressed that he wanted to go home. Van Van, the other focus child who was newly inducted at Gumtree Preschool, did not display separation anxiety or any observed discomfort when interacting with others (with the exception of his first day). He had previously experienced a transition to childcare in an English-speaking context away from family before attending Gumtree Preschool. Van Van thus appeared emotionally stable and settled, although it is unknown whether he encountered emotionally challenging experiences during his introduction to childcare.

1.2.2 How are emotional challenges incorporated into children's context of situation and how do they influence children's productive language learning??

Reflection on how emotional challenges related to children's context of situation suggested a connection between emotions and the tenor and field. Shyness, for example, was observed in relationships between children and adults. Trust and confidence with interlocutors impacted on whether a child would speak, or not. Furthermore, the circumstance of being upset during events, such as separation from parents, influenced the field—the topic spoken about. For further discussion see 1.4.

> 1.3.1 What are the frequencies of bilingual preschoolers' functional language—*instrumental, regulatory, personal, interactional, heuristic, imaginative,* and *informative*—when speaking EAL at preschool?

The frequencies of bilingual preschoolers' functional language were provided in **Table 6-1**. There were similarities and differences among the four children.

> 1.3.2 Which language functions are most and least commonly expressed?

The *informative* language function, followed by the *regulatory,* then *personal* functions, were the most frequently expressed functions by the four focus preschoolers. The *heuristic* function, which involved inquiring through questions, was the least commonly expressed function for all four preschoolers.

> 1.4 How can children's functional language use be explained in relation to each individual child's context?

Children's context of situation, their emotions, and social interactions, often impacted upon bilingual preschoolers' production of functional utterances. The children's emotional experiences were incorporated into Halliday's *field*—the content or topic surrounding a language exchange. The emotional aspect of the field appeared to motivate what focus children said on certain occasions (for example, Limi communicated the instrumental function to mean, "*I want Mum*", when he experienced separation challenges). Emotions also impacted upon whether children spoke productively at all. For example, Patty displayed a preference for speaking in English with age-mates over adults; she also seemed to regulate peers behaviour more than adults saying, "*Don't say that!*" during a tense situation with a peer who had said, "You not my friend, Patty!"

The *tenor* in a language exchange—the characteristics of the relationship between a child and the people they speak with—appeared to impact on the types of functional utterances children produced. Commanding or 'regulating' others commonly occurred with familiar age-mates and 'informative' statements frequently occurred during responses to adults' questions. When Patty interacted with adults she sometimes did not respond verbally and looked away. Shaun, on the other hand, appeared to speak up more often in conversations involving his LKO, in comparison to times when he was among more competent EAL

speakers, or MKOs such as Zia, a girl from his Khmer bilingual group who was about to start school. This finding that children rarely ask questions was compared with other studies of educators' functional language (Bluiett 2009; Llinares García 2005, 2006, 2007; Tabors 1987; Tarone & Lui 1995). Some children posed some questions to age-mates and others posed some questions to educators. There were too few questions overall to link questioning to certain types of tenor. The cultural historical practices of children and their prior experiences of asking questions were also reflected upon during the study of children's experiences and educators' strategies.

> 2. What strategies do various educators recommend or implement that address bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges and functional language use during their early stages of learning to speak EAL?

Recommended and demonstrated social strategies, deriving from the educators' questionnaire responses as well as observed practices at Gumtree Preschool, included social strategies: providing a bilingual program and balancing bilingualism; providing bilingual books for loan; encouraging parental participation to support children's first languages; and supporting interactions with English-speaking peers (particularly native-English speakers). The provision of the occasional care service and the strategy of integrating preschool play with younger occasional care peers afforded bilingual preschoolers various interactions with LKOs, although generally the educators focused upon MKOs or '*role models*' (as recommended by Sue, Henrietta, and Pam). Strategies addressing emotional challenges included developing relationships and trust (and adopting ideas from the Circle of Security program), encouraging children to 'have a go' at speaking, supporting transitions through providing visuals of the daily routine to children, and offering early-entry shortened preschool visits. Occasional care and playgroup sessions, prior to preschool entry, were also offered at Gumtree Preschool's centre to support transitions to preschool and deliver a continuity of practice.

Strategies addressing functional language use were not deliberately sought in the questionnaire, hence only the function of singing was mentioned. Strategies to address functional language use were documented during observations of educators' professional practice, however, and were identified in the content of interviews, casual conversations or programming documents. Strategies included using forced-choice questions to elicit the informative function in children's responses, modelling questioning to children, '*upping the ante'* to prompt the regulatory function, and facilitating singing and dramatic play activities to encourage the imaginative function). Strategies to enhance instrumental, personal, and interactional functions did not seem to be strategically or intentionally encouraged. Their incidences were more organic. Children, however, often spontaneously initiated the personal

and interactional functions, providing social interactions were available for them to do so. Strategies for scaffolding children's formulation of questions were scarce.

8.4 Theoretical implications

The themes and theoretical notions which emerged from the present case study drew from a combination of social interactionist perspectives and theoretical concepts including Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD and MKO concept and Wood, Bruner and Ross' (1974) scaffolding concept. The emotions-inclusive approaches of Swain (2011, 2013), Krashen (1978), Horwitz (2001), and MacIntyre (2002, 2003) were also drawn on, as was Halliday's (2004) systemic functional linguistic perspective (focusing on the seven initial functions of language and children's context of situation: field, tenor and mode). Together, all of these perspectives led to the identification of the impact of various social-emotional encounters which influenced whether children spoke, why they spoke, and what they said when they spoke. This combination of perspectives generates three sets of theoretical implications which contribute to the field of knowledge on language learning, relating to the functional language use of bilingual preschoolers. The first relates to incorporating emotions and social interactions in the context of situation surrounding functional language use; the second proposes expanding the ZPD and MKO concepts to include LKOs; and the third suggests expanding Halliday's initial language functions.

8.4.1 Incorporating emotions and social interactions in the context of situation surrounding functional language use

This study substantiates the proposition that context of culture, context of situation, social interactions, and emotional experiences impact upon the functional language spoken by three to five-year-old bilingual preschoolers in the early stages of learning to speak in EAL. It also incorporates bilingual preschoolers' emotional challenges into Halliday's (2004) systemic functional linguistic theory through the context of situation sub-categories of field and tenor, noting how emotions can impact upon a child's functional language use and can influence the people children interact with.

Emotions can also be linked to contexts of culture, for example, the shyness or reserved behaviour of Patty—a child of Asian heritage—might have had its roots in Patty's Vietnamese cultural background and social/emotional practices relating to the concept of losing face. Vietnamese culture is reported to be influenced by Confucian values (FKA Children's Services 2009). The context of culture may offer an alternate explanation for Patty's displays of apprehension and discomfort with adults—adults whom she may have considered to hold higher status and power than herself—adults of authority. Patty's minimal

acts of asking adults questions could also have been a result of her cultural associations with the practice of questioning elders, but could also have resulted from her developing competence to pose questions in English to adults. Patty may have been more capable of asking advanced questions in Vietnamese, however, this is unknown.

This thesis posits that the emotional context of children's experiences can be incorporated into the field aspect of the context of situation. For example, Limi's display of being upset when missing his mother became the topic or content of his speech and led him to express verbally that he wanted: "*ma*", "*mum*", and "*mummy*"', on several occasions. On another occasion Limi's frustration also led to his commanding, "*No!*", to a younger child—a child who was interrupting his play in the home corner by opening cupboards that Limi evidently wanted closed. In relation to the macrofunctions, emotions can lead to the use of pragmatic functions, to meet basic needs or to make emotive commands such as Patty's "*Don't say that!*"

The influence of emotions on functional language use can be linked to functional definitions of emotions. For example, Leont'ev (2011) defines emotions as a function or motive, and Holodynski (2013, p. 8) furthermore suggests that '[a] functional definition enables emotions to be anchored in both spheres: the material world of behavior and the mental world of feelings' (Holodynski 2013, p. 8). This idea resonates with the ideational, experiential, and logical metafunction of language in systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which connects the material world of a language exchange and the mental world of the experience, the inner thoughts about it and the content of what is said (Halliday 1975, p. 53). This study has shown that thoughts and feelings (such as an upset branching from sadness or fear) can lead children to act and speak about an issue or topic (such as about their mum).

Holodynski (2013) elaborates further on emotions and posits that emotions also have an activity-regulating function—influencing what one does and does not do (or say). In the present study, emotions impacted on whether a Patty spoke, or not, and on what she said, and to whom. The interpersonal metafunction in SFL, which relates to the expressive-conative, social, and evocative aspects of language, blends with the emotional aspects focused upon in the present study. The interpersonal metafunction draws attention to the power, status and relationships among the people involved in a language exchange (Halliday 1975, p. 53), which includes activity-regulation. This can be illustrated from Patty's interaction with adults, where it was clear that emotions such as apprehension had an activity-regulating function manifested through the interpersonal function whereby she provided limited one word responses or refused to respond or participate in talking at all.

Emotions were additionally found to influence children's mathetic functions, such as when Patty whispered at her less intimidating age-mate, Linda, the question, "*What is that?*", in an effort to decipher the name for an owl. I do not believe that she would have asked her teacher such a question, for the risk of exposing herself as lacking knowledge. Parke and Drury (2000, p. 12) and Tabors (2008, p. 33) also drew attention to how reduced 'pressure' in social situations scaffolded bilingual children's spoken communication. A child may be confident when speaking assertively with an age-mate, yet may be shy and speak little with a senior person.

Emotions can also influence whether children speak instrumentally, and express what it is they want, or whether they regulate, command, request assistance, direct others, interact using social phrases, share personal information, ask questions, role-play, answer questions, or provide information to certain others. Emotions influence the field, the circumstances surrounding the context of situation, yet emotions can also be aroused from the relationship between a child and their interlocutor—the tenor. Swain (2013) noted the *effect of affect* in her research when exploring the link between emotion and cognition, although she did not focus on functional language use. Swain's research (2011, 2013) noted how embarrassment, when making an error while speaking before peers, can motivate future efforts in learning vocabulary. The findings from the present case study have led to the proposition that emotions and social interactions interplay with children's purposeful and functional language production as they learn EAL.

The role of productive language and the contributions of automaticity to speech, has been emphasised by Swain (2000). In the present study, it was later queried whether automaticity in productive speech might result from children's practices in purposeful functional language use at preschool. Children were capable of answering questions and providing information as they rehearsed this often; however, it is possible that the scarcity of the practice of children questioning at preschool (an aspect of the cultural-institutional context) may have lessened the automaticity of children in constructing questions using English inquiry-type sentence stems. The automaticity notion deriving from Swain's (2000) output hypothesis serves to remind educators that rehearsing language aloud leads to faster productive retrieval in the future. Bilingual children may require more explicit practice at formulating questions in English, as the types of language functions they practise producing may impact upon the types of language structures they consolidate in their automatic expressive language.

Bilingual preschoolers' ability to express heuristic questioning may be lagging compared to English-only or competent EAL speaking preschoolers who appear to question in larger

proportions (Thomas, Rinehart & Wampler 1992). Halliday (2004, p. 274) comments that '…every child makes it quite obvious that this is what language is for by [his/er] habit of constantly asking questions'; however, does this stand true for bilingual children who speak various languages who are new to English? The lack of heuristic questioning for bilingual children has implications for children's overall language development and may well have ramifications for their conceptual development as well. Through practising questioning a child learns to publicly inquire and explore reality (Halliday 2004; Havigerová & Burešová 2013). Language can afford children the opportunity to express curiosity, demonstrate critical thinking, explore the world, and seek answers from others. If a child cannot or does not formulate questions verbally in the language of communication available in a preschool setting, one might ask—how might this limitation impact upon children's cognitive and conceptual learning?—particularly if bilingual children only feel confident to question their age-mates.

To summarise, this study demonstrates the power of the context of situation, emotions, and different types of social interactions upon bilingual preschoolers' functional use of English. It shows that what children say depends on factors such as with whom they play, interact, and converse, as well as how they feel, or whether they are in fact emotionally challenged, shy, motivated, willing, or confident to speak with such people.

8.4.2 Expanding the zone of proximal development to include LKOs

The second theoretical contribution of this research identifies the affordance of the LKO (in interpersonal contexts) in scaffolding and extending the functional language use of another bilingual preschooler—thus re-framing Vygotsky's concept of guidance by another within the ZPD, which previously focused on the impact of MKOs. The applicability of the LKO concept to bilingual education emerged from the interactions between Shaun and Sarah in this study. Observations displayed the role of the LKO in providing a safe and encouraging environment for extending shy, unwilling, or unconfident children's productive language opportunities. This notion, of the valuable influence of LKOs for bilingual preschoolers' learning EAL, has implications for changing future teaching pedagogy to better support preschoolers who encounter an extended quiet, shy, or silent period.

The argument is that by having an LKO, a bilingual child may extend their own language development by increasingly rehearsing their target language. The presence of the LKO thus carries potential to extend a learner's ZPD to the distance between what they can achieve on their own and that which they can achieve in the 'presence' of a '*less*' capable peer. The premise emerging from the present study is that LKOs have the potential to motivate EAL

learners to perform more advanced skills than is possible when the EAL learner is on their own, with adults, or with only more-expert peers. Van Lier (1996, p. 193) extends that 'a learner's zone of self-regulated action can be expanded in a number of different ways, not only through the assistance of teachers and other experts' but also by 'equal peers' and 'less capable peers'. Scaffolding, in this sense, is not only attributed to MKOs, but also LKOs. LKO, as an acronym and intended definition is used provokingly to prompt reflection on alternative scenarios to 'more' knowledgeable others, to identify a peer who is less advanced in the targeted skill (such as speaking EAL) as valuable in boosting other further progressed learners to advance their own skills in language production. An LKO peer can provide a platform for a bilingual learner to extend their productive language abilities in their target language in response to the change in their social dynamics promoting them to the status of mentor or more competent target language user, in comparison to another peer. The LKO concept therefore complements Vygotsky's MKO concept, reinforces Van Lier's notion of the value of less capable peer, and reintroduces the original version of Wood, Bruner and Ross' (1974, p. 98) scaffolding (inclusive of frustration control) used to support children's learning in the broader application of education.

This study concludes that what children say depends on factors such as with whom they play, interact, and converse, as well as how they feel, and whether they are in fact emotionally challenged, shy, motivated, willing, or confident to speak with a particular person. The social and emotional focus of the present study hence draws attention to the second theoretical application of the research which led to identify the affordance of the LKO in scaffolding and extending others—thus re-framing Vygotsky's ZPD concept, which previously focused on the impact of MKOs. The applicability of the LKO concept to bilingual education, in relation to extending shy, unwilling, or unconfident children's productive language opportunities, emerged from the study of Shaun and Sarah. This new found notion of the valuable influence of LKOs for bilingual preschoolers' learning of EAL has the potential to change future teaching pedagogy to better support bilingual preschoolers who encounter an extended quiet, shy, or silent period.

8.4.3 Expanding Halliday's initial language functions

A third theoretical implication which arose from this study is for Halliday's (2004) seven initial language functions to be extended and refined in future research analysis. This applies specifically to the problematic multi-coding of the imaginative role-play function together with other functions, such as informative statements and regulatory commands, which arose as an issue during analysis, and was noted in the reflective journal. Halliday (2004) refers to the imaginative functions as the 'make-believe' (p. 73), ''let's pretend' world of songs,

rhymes and stories' (p. 93), 'to create a fictional environment', or 'narrative' (pp. 191-192) during 'dramatic games' (p. 275). Llinares García (2006, 2007), for an unknown reason, did not analyse imaginative utterances in her research and only coded the six other functions. The recommendation emerging from analysis in the present study is to divide imaginative codings into two separate categories to identify whether such utterances occur via role-play or singing. Specifying the type of imaginative utterance would offer more precise information as to children's use of imaginative expressions. Alternatively, singing could also potentially be identified as a stand-alone function in its own right, divided into: spontaneous individual singing or interactive singing prompted by group-times.

Another possibility for expanding Halliday's functions could be to split the informative functions into: 'initiated' informative statements and 'response-type' informative utterances (or answers). This is proposed because during analysis it was noticed that it was the educators who often elicited information from children in response to the educators' questioning practices, rather than questions being initiated by the children. Piaget's (1959) research considered 'answers' as an eighth function of speech and Kumpulainen and Wray (1997) identified 'responses' as a function of language. Tabors (1987) also coded children's responses to questions. The following **Figure 8-1** illustrates proposed adaptions to Halliday's seven initial language functions.

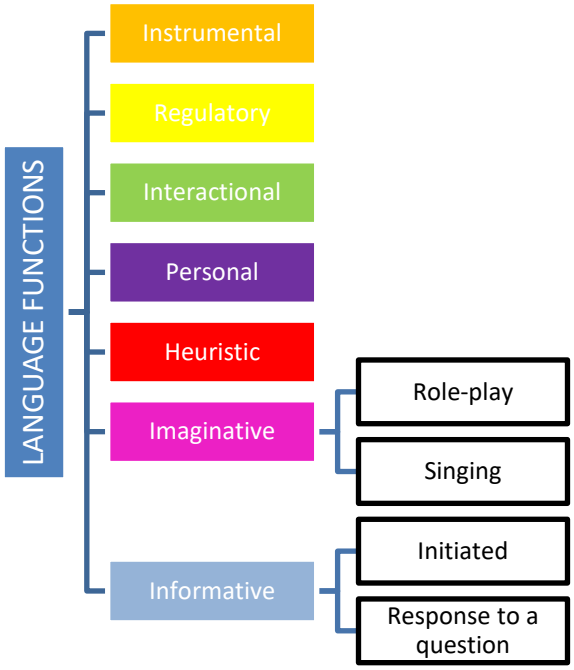

Figure 8-1: A potential expansion of the imaginative and informative functions

More recommendations, in relation to methodological practices, follow in the next section.

8.5 Methodological implications of the research

Several methodological implications arose from the study. Most relate to the use of modern technological advances. The use of a smart phone to multitask and promptly record typed field notes and capture images, movie-mode, and audio recordings, as used in the present study, is recommended in future observation research. Using 'the multiple approach' or implementing multiple devices simultaneously is also recommended, although an additional research assistant would be advisable to overcome the difficulties associated with multitasking and transcribing hours of audio-records. Palermo and Mikulski's (2014) study benefited from 18 research assistants; however, assistants were not an option in this PhD study.

Using a discreet Galaxy smart phone was more beneficial than using a larger bulkier device such as an iPad. iPads also tend to draw greater attention from preschoolers who want to play with them as opposed to smart phones, which small children seem to consider the property of adults. Emailing field notes and other data, as was practised in this study, was a useful technique which ensured that confidentiality and reliable storage was achieved due to private-password protection. Emailing typed data also prepared for swift transfer to NVivo and replaced the slower process of writing with pen on paper, as used traditionally in ethnographic research. NVivo was another useful tool which organised data and enabled reliable and systematic processes to analyse data, either according to emergent themes or using *a priori* coding. To date, few previous studies involving bilingual preschoolers have reported use of NVivo. A lesson learned in this present study was the importance of converting large data files into smaller compressed files before importing movie-mode footage into the NVivo program. ITHelpdesk support was called upon numerous times to resolve technical difficulties associated with managing the large capacity of audio-visual files collected in the study. A final technological implication for future research methods is the affordances of modern technological advances on word-processing programs which enable the distortion and blurring of images so to protect children from identification when publishing images.

Another methodological implication of this research is the impact of the subjectivities of the researcher. My own sociocultural identity, prior experience, and identity as a trained early childhood teacher likely influenced the attention that I paid to certain events and behaviours during the study; although discussions with my two supervisors served to broaden my attention to various details. Whilst I consider that my professional experience as an educator benefited the study in many ways, it may also have led to some of the teaching practices of the educators at Gumtree Preschool going unnoticed, or being unmentioned. I may have

assumed that some strategies were common knowledge to others. It would be insightful, therefore, for the study to be repeated by an alternatively trained professional. A researcher such as a psychologist, linguist, or speech pathologist may notice and identify other educators' strategies and children's experiences in future studies.

8.6 Implications for practice

Many of the implications for practice resulting from this study have been mentioned in the sections on educators' strategies and discussions chapters. Key recommended strategies are:

- balancing bilingualism
- facilitating branching-out
- facilitating LKO as well as MKO partnerships
- promoting trust and relationships
- supporting children's WTC
- scaffolding gradual transitions to the preschool routine; and
- explicitly teaching questioning structures and encouraging child questioning.

This last item stems from the implications of the finding that preschoolers learning EAL rarely ask questions; it highlights that more explicit emphasis on questioning is required in preschools. Future educators could not only explicitly teach the structures of questioning, but intentionally encourage bilingual preschoolers' purposeful questioning experiences and critical thinking, integrating curriculum areas such as science, technology, engineering, and mathematics with the learning of English. A focus on encouraging questions from bilingual preschoolers is timely, given the present STEM learning strategy in Australian schooling from preschool to year 12, incorporating inquiry-based learning, critical thinking, and asking and answering questions (DECD 2016b).

Critical thinking refers to the ability to ask, answer, and use critical questions, at appropriate times, to display curiosity, wonder, and intellectual adventure (Browne & Keeley, 2007, p. 2). Activities such as asking children to brainstorm questioning-type interrogative words and encouraging children to formulate questions (such as in Llinares García's 2005 and 2007 research where children questioned what was in a box) would be beneficial for bilingual preschoolers as they learn EAL. Tabors (2008, p. 131) suggests that '[c]hildren engage in data gathering about the world by asking questions of adults who are willing to take time to answer their questions.' It may be beneficial to emphasise to parents and educators the value of encouraging children's questioning, especially given that in some cultures parents reprimand children for questioning too much. Bilingual support educators could also scaffold children to pose questions in their first languages and demonstrate how to translate them into

English. Explicitly teaching bilingual preschoolers questioning-type formulations could enhance new forms of formulaic speech. In fact, adult modelling of various questions, during staged inquiries about topics, was one of few strategies that Gumtree Preschool's educators were observed to employ that supported children to learn about the practice of asking questions in English.

Benefiting from LKOs is another vital strategy to be explored across the field of education. The affordances for learning during interactions with LKOs could be generalised to many contexts within the field of education—to learners of various target languages, or learners of many other skills. Interacting with an LKO could be useful in situations where progress depends on confidence and a sense of competence in order to motivate practice and the active advancement of skills. Learners in contexts such as speaking, dancing, reading, presenting, leadership, and so forth, may experience an emotional boost of confidence when interacting with someone, or numerous people, who are less skilled than themselves in a particular activity. This confidence may then motivate a learner's production and practice of a skill which they may have previously shied from, felt apprehensive in, or avoided.

The LKO concept has the potential for application with learners of all ages—in activities where low self-confidence might hinder a person's efforts to publicly demonstrate or practise particular skills. By intentionally re-positioning a struggling student/learner as an MKO in a peer partnership with a more novice/less capable learner, the MKO learner might be prompted to extend their own ZPD due to their new found mentor role. In this emotions-considerate situation, the ZPD is the difference between what a child produces/performs in circumstances when a novice/less capable peer is *not* present, and that which a child produces/performs when a novice/ less capable peer to feel confident with and demonstrate to *is* present. Pairing younger children with older students in schools traditionally focuses on support for the younger children (such as in class buddy systems when older kids assist younger kids), but such a strategy could be implemented to support struggling older, or wiser, students who are hindered by their own lack of confidence.

Take, for example, the case of a year seven student who avoids reading, as they are the lowest level reader in their class and consider them self a bad reader. Having an opportunity to read to a five-year-old in a reception class or year five class might boost an older child's self-esteem and confidence as well as motivate them to practise. The same is effective for speaking EAL—a child may develop confidence and feel more competent in their abilities and may practise English more often when they are with peers who they feel they are able to mentor.

A final implication for practice arising from this study is for educators to intentionally manipulate the interlocutors in a preschooler's context of situation. Intentionally pairing and grouping children in various ways would alter the tenor, and hence manipulate opportunities for increased productive language use, and different types of functional language use. For example, if parents spent more time with their children at preschool, perhaps the children would question more often as their parent is someone they trust. Another way to alter children's functional language use is to change the cultural-institutional practices of the preschool to focus upon children's questioning. If educators were to encourage children's questioning as much as they themselves question children, children might then communicate in heuristic functional ways more often.

8.7 Implications for policy

The documentation of Limi's experience of separation anxiety provided through this research suggests the need for a policy response. It is recommended that, at the beginning of the preschool year—perhaps during the first week or month—more educators be recruited to emotionally and linguistically support bilingual preschoolers who are new to English and new to separating from their parents. This will require the funding of salaries. Pam drew attention to the pressures in the early weeks of the year during children's induction to preschool, stating: 'there are a lot of tears inside'. When educators are available, a positive result is that educators often respond to distressed children by interacting with them and talking to them in an attempt to comfort them. This comforting process can afford children increased exposure to English. In preschools, crying children are often read a book, offered an iPad (with a translator app), or taken outside for a calming swing, in the company of an educator. The number of crying children has implications for supervision and staff-child ratios. The ratio needs to safely cover educators who are supervising the remaining group of children as well as educators who are tending to children who are upset.

Staffing also needs to ensure that bilingually-matched educators are available, particularly at the commencement of the preschool year. Bilingually-matched educators can help to settle children and build trusting relationships and support children's circle of security. An increased variety of bilingual educators is recommended to support the various languages spoken in children's services and to promote translanguaging. It is often the children who speak the majority languages other than English (LOTE) who encounter bilingual support, rather than the children, like Limi and Van Van, who are isolated linguistic minorities. Children who speak the rarer minority languages equally deserve matched bilingual support. Whilst it may be problematic and expensive to allocate all bilingual children with regular

matched bilingual support every week, bilingual educators could be employed on a casual basis, several times each term. At the very least, bilingually-matched bilingual support educators could be invited to visit preschools several times throughout the year to assist in the maintenance and valuing of bilingual children's first languages—their funds of knowledge. They could also assist other educators to learn some basic vocabulary in the languages spoken by enrolled children, especially during the introduction to preschool. Educators' visits to children's home may also be of benefit.

A second implication for policy, and for practice, is for community presentations to be regularly available to inform parents from language backgrounds other than English of the value of maintaining children's first languages at the beginning of the preschool year. Services in Melbourne (such as the Free Kindergarten Association) currently assist educators and families. Presentations by Micheal Clyne on '*raising children in more than one language*' are presently occurring interstate. In Sydney, Multicultural Community Services provide regular professional development and parental information. Inclusion services in Adelaide, South Australia are also developing. Local presentations in preschools could advise parents and educators how they can support children's bilingual development, and how multilingualism can be incorporated into the preschool curriculum to balance bilingualism. As demonstrated, Limi was only observed speaking Albanian on two occasions at preschool during the six-month study, and those were with his mother. Increased opportunities for integrating first languages could be facilitated by education departments, preschool partnerships, and bilingual managers. It is also suggested that educators who work with bilingual families receive appropriate training and development regarding the value of incorporating first languages in the preschool curriculum. DECD preschool educator training now recommends that educators 'honor the first language'. Increased first language acknowledgement via transcription of children's first languages is also needed in research.

8.8 Addressing the limitations of the study

More funding is recommended for future studies on bilingualism, to financially compensate bilingual educators for their valuable contributions to research. Compensation for bilingual educators' involvement would achieve greater attention to translations of first language speech in data and enable more reliable and culturally appropriate interpretations of children's actions and speech. Translations would also enable identification of bilingual children's functional language use of first languages at preschool. Bilingual research assistants are recommended in all research involving CALD preschoolers. Home visits are another recommendation.

8.9 Recommendations for future research

Final recommendations for future research include exploring teacher-research/practitioner-research, as described in Loughran (2003), with bilingual preschoolers, or implementing action research projects in preschools to deliver a closer first-hand account of educators' strategies to support bilingual preschoolers. In the future, inquiring as to whether certain strategies are higher priorities than others might serve to identify which practitioner skills, knowledge and advice is more vital than others for supporting bilingual preschoolers. As mentioned in the limitations of this study, home visits could also be incorporated into future studies in Australia to gather more information on bilingual preschoolers' context. Parents could also be requested to assist in translating preschoolers' first language descriptions of their social and emotional experiences of learning EAL at preschool. Future studies could also investigate possible interventions to investigate bilingual children's social interactions with LKOs, as well as interventions to dissipate shyness or separation challenges, or ways to enhance functional language experiences as preschoolers learn EAL.

Recommendations for future topics of investigations include drawing more attention to educators' own functional language use at preschool to note how this elicits different responses from bilingual preschoolers learning EAL. This was implemented in Llinares García's (2005) short EFL study to note educators' common use of questioning. Another possible extension of the current study is to use a questionnaire to ask educators how they explicitly promote the seven initial functions of language from bilingual children learning EAL in preschool. Finally, more investigations are recommended to further analyse how the frequency of functions produced by bilingual children in EAL might alter in contexts with various participants and tenor—age-mates, educators, and parents. Two questions on functional language use might be: 'Do children question parents more often at home than they do their educators?' and 'Do children use regulatory language with peers more often than their teachers?' Native English-speaking preschoolers' functional language use could also be investigated and compared to that of bilingual children to provide a response to the question of whether native English speakers pose heuristic questions more often than EAL speakers at the same preschool?

As mentioned in the literature review, '[l]anguage is a mirror of the culture of its speech community' (Senft, Verschueren & Östman 2009, p. 6). An area for future probing (which was beyond the scope of the current study) is to what extent children of different cultural groups ask questions in their first language, both at home and preschool. It may be possible that certain CALD learners question less often due to the cultural expectations placed upon their questioning practices. Studying differences among cultures may provide insights into

why questions (in English) were rarely asked by the children in this study who were bilingual in the three Asian languages as compared to the child bilingual with an Albanian (European) first language. Comparing the formulation of questions in first languages with the formulation of questions in English could serve to support English language learners to ask more questions.

More intervention research with EAL preschoolers is recommended in future studies to explore ways to enhance and balance out children's use of the full spectrum of language functions and languages. A focus on the heuristic function is particularly pertinent, due to its scarcity in this and other studies. Future research could also investigate whether children from different linguistic communities encounter different emotional experiences related to learning EAL in preschool. Children from Vietnamese and Chinese backgrounds, for example, appear to be less confident producing English in the early stages.

As a final suggestion, future research could also interview older children to gather their reflections on their past preschool experiences. This would provide first-hand accounts of bilingual children's emotional, social, and functional language experiences. Patty, Shaun, Van Van, and Limi, for example, could be followed up longitudinally, when more mature and competent in EAL, to describe their own experiences and memories of learning EAL at Gumtree Preschool. Collecting personal accounts would strengthen the reliability of findings and conclusions which are presently derived from observations and other informants' interpretations. Bligh (2014) and Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2015), for example, achieved several personal accounts from older bilingual interviewees, who reflected on their childhood experiences of learning additional languages.

8.10 Concluding thoughts

A number of issues have been raised by the present case study, which extended past understandings of the context surrounding bilingual preschoolers' oral language. The study investigated four bilingual preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and functional language use, and 10 educators' strategies to support their learning. A theme throughout the thesis identified bilingual children's right to retain their first language while adding the new language, English. This right is noted in The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (2016) and the Early Years Learning Framework (2011) which respect children as citizens of Australia and citizens throughout the world whose languages and origins are also worthy of respect. A future question to ask is 'what is the nature of translanguaging in preschools?'

By combining participant researcher observations and informants' contributions, and analysing these by reflective writing, thematic analysis, *a priori* coding, and memoing, this study has identified and illustrated three sets of issues which relate to the context surrounding—or sub-contexts weaving together to influence—bilingual preschoolers' functional language use. These are: social issues—balancing bilingualism, branching-out, and the value LKOs bring to the ZPD; emotional issues—shyness vs confidence and separation challenges; and functional language issues—the abundant use of the informative function and minimal production of heuristic questioning. The investigation layered three lenses of analysis, to explore the interrelationship between social interactions, emotional experiences, and functional language use. The study has drawn attention to how a child's context of situation incorporates the social and emotional context, as they speak for different purposes at preschool. The emotional context influencing a child's speech may also have its roots in a child's culture.

The study unveiled numerous teaching strategies, implications for practice and policy, recommendations for future methodological approaches, and suggestions for extending research on the topics of education, bilingualism, and EAL learning in preschools. The study has expanded the concept of the ZPD, by relating it to the experiences of bilingual preschoolers as they learn to be productive speakers of EAL. The inclusion of LKOs, as well as MKOs, as sources of help to the learner has implications for instigating change in education, psychology, speech pathology, and linguistics.

The final premise developed and refined in this study is that there exists a dynamic interrelationship between preschoolers' social interactions, emotional challenges, and their functional language use. The context surrounding bilingual preschoolers' speech is multifaceted and incorporates emotions. The various sub-contexts, cultural, social, and emotional weave together to ultimately influence bilingual children's productive speech and functional language use. Children's functional language use is a result of: the culture of the setting; the cultures children identify with; the cultures their interlocutors identify with; the relationships between the children and the people with whom they interact; the details of the event taking place; and the emotions the children experience that prompt them to talk or not, and if so, what to say. Various contextual details interrelate and impact upon how bilingual children learn to use language in society. Cultures, social interactions, personal experiences and emotions influence functional speech.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Information sheets

To the Director,

I, **Amy Farndale**, a de Lissa Scholarship PhD student at UniSA invite your preschool site to participate in a research project titled: **Supporting preschoolers who are new to English.**

This case study investigates how preschoolers who are new to English respond to the preschool environment and seeks to identify effective teaching strategies to support them. Up to four children, selected with your assistance, who currently speak an alternate language and do not speak English, or speak very little English, will be the focal participants of the study. A budget for the costs of translating information and consent communications into children's parents' first language has been allocated by the university to ensure families are fully informed to consent to their child's participation. This research values all languages.

I request to visit your preschool on two 'half days', every week, over two terms. During visits I intend to record observations of children and their daily interactions using field notes, photographs, movie-mode recordings and conduct audio recorded interviews with staff and parents in your centre. Whilst the focus participants of the study are the preschoolers who are new to English, attention will also be drawn to educators' use of strategies for supporting these children. Each staff member's consent for the researcher to observe staff interacting with the focus children will be additionally requested. I, the researcher will invite some educators to participate in short 15 minute interviews and random informal discussions during visits relating to the focus preschool children's response to the preschool environment and teaching strategies implemented to support them. The research also seeks parental participation to compile a case history of their child's language experiences and prior exposure to English and other languages. I hope to share the information I collect with yourself and other preschool educators at the site, and hope to collaborate with preschool staff to identify strategies which support preschoolers who are new to English. I also seek permission to access and photocopy some records for example: routines, programs, observations and/or checklists of focus children as permitted by yourself and other staff.

As other children will be present during data collection visits and may be included in data collection (field notes, photographs, movie-mode recordings) whilst interacting with the focus participants, I will also seek consent from a parent of each child present during my data collection visits. I will supply such forms and if a child has not provided consent I will take measures to prevent such children's inclusion in photographic or movie-mode recordings. Data will be kept for 7 years following completion of the study.

Non-monetary compensation for your time whilst participating in the project will be negotiated in a verbal reciprocal agreement. For example, the researcher (a DECD ECE TRT teacher of over 10 years of experience) may offer to share literary resources, support the general setting up/pack-up and organisation of the centre's activities. I also offer to provide an informative presentation regarding the stages of English Language Learning and currently reported theories or practices which support English Language Learners as well as a summary of the project's findings. A paper copy summary report of the research will be provided to the preschool director and emailed to the DECD research unit several months following the completion of the project.

Your site's anonymity will be protected through the use of pseudonyms and your privacy and confidentiality will be upheld by carefully storing any information collected during the study in accordance with UniSA codes of practice. Data will be password protected and locked away securely.

Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw consent from the project at any time without prejudice. This project has been approved by the DECD research unit and the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or question about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of the UniSA ethics committee tel: +61 8 8302 3118 email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.

It is not anticipated that any harm or risk will result from participation in the project however as a precautionary measure, pamphlets for counselling services such as the free DECD EAP employee service and parent's helpline may be pinned up on site noticeboards and will be provided in information packs to all participants should any adverse effects be experienced by participants of the research project.

If you agree to take part in this research, a consent form is attached for you to sign.

Should you require any additional information regarding this research, please contact myself, Amy Farndale, the researcher on Ph. [redacted] or email amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au or my supervisor:

Prof. Pauline Harris on 8302 4637 or email pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au**.**

Thank you for consideration of this research project.

Signed *(Amy Farndale*)

Bachelor of Early Childhood Education (with honours)
Master of Education (Specialising in Early Childhood)
PhD in Education Student (UniSA)

To the Parent/Carer of …….., December 2012

I would like to introduce myself to you. My name is Amy Farndale. I am a **PhD research student at UniSA** researching the experiences of **preschoolers who are new to English** and how to support their learning. I am hoping to study up to four preschoolers who currently speak an alternate language and currently do not speak English, or speak very little English. Children who are both new to preschool and new to English like your child ……..……

The study aims to support new preschoolers to make progress both in their English language as well valuing the language/s used at home. If you are interested in volunteering consent for your child to participate I will observe your child when I visit your preschool on two 'half days' every week over two terms. I will collect information about your child's experiences and make observations during the preschool session at playtimes and group-times. As a researcher I will not interrupt your child at play and will give your child space so as not to disturb their normal daily routine. I will record notes and occasionally take photographs and movie-mode (video type) recordings (with your permission) to describe how your child responds to the preschool environment. I may sometimes request permission from your child to photocopy/photograph their artwork/drawings, if considered useful to the study. I am a registered teacher, as well as a PhD student. I have a police clearance and am a mandated child abuse reporter meaning I am obligated by law to report suspected abuse toward children as are other teachers and professionals.

As a parent I also invite you to take part in either an audio recorded interview or 15 minute questionnaire to gather information about your child such as their prior exposure to English and other languages. The information you provide will be shared with preschool staff in aim to support your child's learning. Preschool staff will also share their records (eg. enrolment info, assessments and written observations) with myself the researcher, if you consent to them doing so. This will assist in the study. Your identity and privacy will be protected and the results of the research will be reported using pseudonyms (pretend names) in the thesis and future academic publications/presentations. Information will be treated confidentially, stored electronically (on computers) with passwords to protect files as well as in locked cabinets in locked rooms. Your privacy will be respected. Only the researcher and her supervisors, as well as your child's preschool staff will view the information collected. Data will be kept for 7 years following completion of the study. A paper copy summary report of the research will be provided to the preschool director for sharing with staff and families of the preschool and will also be emailed to the DECD research unit several months following the completion of the project. A thesis will result also as part of the researcher's PhD degree in Education.

Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw consent from the project at any time without prejudice. This project has been approved by the DECD research unit and University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or question about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee tel: +61 8 8302 3118 email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au. A free telephone counselling service is available via the parent helpline on 1300 364 100 (at a local call cost) should you experience any psychological discomfort during the study. Brochures are attached.

Two consent forms are provided with this information sheet. One consent form is for you as a parent to consent to participate in interviews/questionnaires/discussions and the second consent form is for your child to participate and be observed during preschool sessions. Please read, complete and return to the preschool should you agree to take part. It is anticipated that the results of the study will be beneficial in creating awareness of the needs of preschoolers who are new to English and how they can be supported at preschool. You are encouraged to ask your child if they agree to their own participation in the project however the parental consent forms must be signed by a parent so your child can be involved.

Should you require additional information regarding this research, please contact myself**, Amy Farndale,** amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au[redacted] or my supervisor Prof. Pauline Harris on 8302 4637 or email pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au**.** Thank you for consideration of this research project request.

Signed (*Amy Farndale*)

Bachelor of Early Childhood Education (with honours)
Master of Education (Specialising in Early Childhood)
PhD in Education Student (UniSA)

December 2012
Dear Director/Teacher/ECW/Bilingual ECW,

Amy Farndale, a de Lissa Scholarship PhD student at UniSA invites your preschool staff to participate in her research project titled: **Supporting pre-schoolers who are new to English.**

This research investigates how preschoolers who are new to English respond to the preschool environment and seeks to identify effective teaching strategies to support them. Up to four children who currently speak an alternate language and do not speak English, or speak very little English, will be the focal participants of the study however attention to educators' interactions with focus children and the strategies they use to support the focus children is also significant in the study.

The preschool director has consented to the researcher visiting your preschool workplace on two half days a week for two terms to record observations via field notes, photographs and movie-mode recordings (video) of focus children and their interactions with others (staff included). The researcher also hopes to conduct audio recorded interviews and informal discussions with staff members regarding the strategies they employ to support the preschoolers learning English as an additional language.

Your personal consent (as a staff member) to participate in the research is invited to enable the researcher to collaborate with you in investigating the experiences of the focus pre-schoolers as well as how they can be supported through implementation of effective teaching strategies. The researcher will also request your permission to view information you may have recorded on the focus children such as written observations, anecdotes, checklists, assessments and programming documentation.

Your identity and privacy will be protected through the use of pseudonyms (fictional names) in data collection and reporting of the research. Data will also be stored electronically (on computers) with passwords to protect files as well as in locked rooms. Only the researcher and her supervisors will view the information collected and data will be kept for 7 years following completion of the study. A paper copy summary report of the research will be provided to the preschool director to be shared with staff and emailed to the DECD research unit several months following the completion of the project. A thesis, as part of the student researcher's PhD degree in Education will also result.

Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw consent from the project at any time without prejudice**. A consent form is attached to this information sheet. Please read, sign and return to the researcher** to enable the study to commence. This project has been approved by the DECD research unit and University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or question about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of the ethics Committee tel: +61 8 8302 3118 email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au. If as a result of involvement in the study you experience distress, counselling services through DECD are available through calling converge international on 1800337068. Brochures are attached.

Your time and support of this project is most appreciated and the researcher will endeavour to provide non-monetary compensation for your time and involvement in the project. This may involve assistance in general setting up and packing up procedures. The researcher is a DECD ECE TRT teacher with over 10 years of experience working in preschools and schools and is grateful for the opportunity to learn from your expertise in working with children learning English as an additional language.

For further information please contact the researcher (details below), or supervisor Pauline Harris at ph. 8302 4637 or email: pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au

Thank you for your consideration to participate in this research project.

Signed *(Amy Farndale)*

Phone: [redacted] Email: amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au

December 2012

Dear Parent,

……(Preschool name)…….. has agreed to take part in Amy Farndale's PhD research project titled: **Supporting preschoolers who are new to English**. The researcher will be visiting your child's preschool on two half days each week for two terms to investigate the experiences of preschoolers who **new** to both preschool and the English language. Whilst your child is not a focus participant of the research it is noted that during the investigation your child may coincidently be photographed, or filmed during the project whilst in interaction with the focus preschoolers. Therefore this letter aims to inform you of the research undertaken at the centre and seek your permission for your child's possible involvement.

Please respond whether you consent to photographs or movie-move (video) footage of your child being recorded and securely stored in electronic format protected by passwords in locked rooms in accordance with the University of South Australia's codes of conduct in data storage. Photographs or movie-mode footage with evidence of your child's presence will be kept confidential, shared only between the researcher, her university supervisors and preschool staff members. Photographs or movie-mode footage containing your child's image will only be shown to others outside the project in circumstances whereby you have viewed the material and provide additional specific consent for the photographs or video-footage to be published. Your child's right to privacy and confidentiality will be respected and they will not be identified by name or preschool location. Pretend names will be used in reports of the research and data will be kept for 7 years following completion of the study.

Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw your consent from the project at any time without prejudice. The researcher is a registered teacher, as well as a PhD student, she has a police clearance and is a mandated child abuse reporter meaning the researcher is obligated by law to report suspected abuse toward children as are other teachers and professionals who work with children.

This project has been approved by the DECD research unit and the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or question about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of the UniSA ethics Committee tel: +61 8 8302 3118 email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au. A paper copy summary report of the research will be provided to the preschool director and emailed to the DECD research unit several months following the completion of the project. A thesis will also result as part of the researcher's PhD degree in Education.

A consent form is attached to this information sheet. Please read, sign and return to the researcher to enable the study to commence.

For further information please contact the researcher (details below) or supervisor Pauline Harris at ph. 8302 4637 or email: pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au

Thank you for your consideration to consent to your child's (non-specific) participation in this research project.

Signed *(Amy Farndale*)

Phone: [redacted] Email: amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au

Bachelor of Early Childhood Education (with honours)
Master of Education (Specialising in Early Childhood)
PhD in Education Student (UniSA)

Appendix 2: Consent forms

Site consent

UniSA | Research and Innovation Services

Human Research Ethics Committee
CONSENT FORM

Use this consent form when taped materials, photographs or original works are to be retained

This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118; Email: Vicki.Allen@unisa.edu.au

SECTION 1: CONTACT AND PROJECT DETAILS

Researcher's Full Name:	Amy Farndale
Contact Details:	amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Prof. Pauline Harris
Contact Details:	Pauline.Harris@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000030389
Project Title:	Supporting pre-schoolers who are new to English.

SECTION 2: PARTICIPANT CERTIFICATION

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read the information sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project as well as the site's involvement in it. I understand and agree for our service to take part.
- I understand that my consent for the service's participation in this research project is voluntary.
- I understand that there will be no payment for taking part in this study.
- I am aware that I should retain a copy of the information sheet and consent form for future reference.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, our service will not be identified by name, a pseudonym will be used and results will remain confidential.
- I understand that audio, visual (photography) and audio-visual (video) recordings will be gathered at our service during data collection. Such recordings will be stored electronically and password protected along with all data collection. Only the researcher, her supervisors and preschool staff will have access to information.
- I understand that the researcher may request to show photos/video footage involving our service in the thesis or in associated presentations. Only photo/videos that have been viewed and further approved by me (on behalf of the service) via an additional consent process can be shown to audiences other than the researcher and her supervisors.

Participants under the age of 18 normally require parental consent to be involved in research. The consent form should allow for those under the age of 18 to agree to their involvement and for a parent to give consent.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to the participant and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

	Amy Farndale	
Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Focus child's consent (on behalf of parent)

UniSA Research and Innovation Services

Human Research Ethics Committee
CONSENT FORM

Use this consent form when taped materials, photographs or original works are to be retained

This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118; Email: Vicki.Allen@unisa.edu.au

SECTION 1: CONTACT AND PROJECT DETAILS

Researcher's Full Name:	Amy Farndale
Contact Details:	amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Prof. Pauline Harris
Contact Details:	Pauline.Harris@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000030389
Project Title:	Supporting pre-schoolers who are new to English.

SECTION 2: Participant CERTIFICATION

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read and understand the information sheet. The nature and purpose of the research project and my child's involvement in it has been explained to me and I agree for them to take part.
- I understand that my child's participation in this research project is voluntary; a decision not to participate will in no way affect their relationship with the children's service.
- I understand that there will be no payment for my child taking part in this study.
- I am aware that I should retain a copy of the information sheet and consent form for future reference
- I understand that I may withdraw my child from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, my child will not be identified by name, a pseudonym (pretend name) will be used for my child and the preschool site's name and my child's personal results will remain confidential beyond the researcher, their supervisors and the preschool staff.
- I consent to the preschool site providing my child's information to the researcher (e.g. enrolment form, assessments.)
- I understand that audio, visual (photography) and movie-mode recordings will be gathered of my child during data collection. Such recordings will be stored electronically and password protected along with all data collection. Only the researcher, her supervisors and my child's preschool staff will have access to information on my child.
- I understand that the researcher may request to show photos/movie-mode footage involving my child in the thesis or in associated presentations. Only photo/movie recordings that have been viewed and further approved by my signing an additional consent can be shown to audiences other than the researcher, her supervisors and preschool staff.

Participants under the age of 18 normally require parental consent to be involved in research. The consent form should allow for those under the age of 18 to agree to their involvement and for a parent to give consent.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to the participant and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

	Amy Farndale	
Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Parent's consent for self

UniSA Research and Innovation Services

Human Research Ethics Committee
CONSENT FORM

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Researcher's Full Name:	Amy Farndale
Contact Details:	amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Prof. Pauline Harris
Contact Details:	Pauline.Harris@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000030389
Project Title:	Supporting preschoolers who are new to English.

SECTION 2: CERTIFICATION

Participant Certification

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read the information sheet. The nature and purpose of the research project and my involvement in it has been explained to me and I agree to take part.
- I understand that my participation in this research project is voluntary; a decision not to participate will in no way affect my relationship with the children's service
- I understand that there will be no payment for taking part in this study.
- I am aware that I should retain a copy of the information sheet and consent form for future reference
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified by name, a pseudonym (pretend name) will be used and my personal results will remain confidential.
- I understand that audio, photography and movie-mode (video) recordings may be gathered of me during data collection. Such recordings will be stored electronically and password protected along with all data collection. Only the researcher, supervisors and preschool staff will have access to information.
- I understand that the researcher may request to show photos/video footage involving me with my child in the thesis or in associated presentations. Only photo/videos that have been viewed and further approved by me via an additional consent process can be shown to audiences other than the researcher and her supervisors.

Participants under the age of 18 normally require parental consent to be involved in research. The consent form should allow for those under the age of 18 to agree to their involvement and for a parent to give consent.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to the participant and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

	Amy Farndale	
Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Educators' consent

UniSA Research and Innovation Services

Human Research Ethics Committee
CONSENT FORM

Use this consent form when taped materials, photographs or original works are to be retained

This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118; Email: Vicki.Allen@unisa.edu.au

SECTION 1: CONTACT AND PROJECT DETAILS

Researcher's Full Name:	Amy Farndale
Contact Details:	amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Prof. Pauline Harris
Contact Details:	Pauline.Harris@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000030389
Project Title:	Supporting pre-schoolers who are new to English.

SECTION 2: PARTICPANT CERTIFICATION

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read and understand the information sheet. The nature and purpose of the research project and my involvement in it has been explained to me and I agree to take part.
- I understand that my participation in this research project is voluntary; a decision not to participate will in no way affect their academic standing or relationship with the children's service
- I understand that there will be no payment for taking part in this study.
- I am aware that I should retain a copy of the information sheet and consent form for future reference
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified by name, a pseudonym will be used and my personal information will remain confidential.
- I understand that photographs and movie-model (video) recordings will be gathered of me during data collection. Such recordings will be stored electronically and password protected along with all data collection. Only the researcher, supervisors and preschool staff will have access to information.
- I understand that the researcher may request to show photos/movie-mode footage involving me in the thesis or in associated presentations. Only photo/videos that have been viewed and further approved by me via an additional consent process can be shown to audiences other than the researcher and her supervisors.

Participants under the age of 18 normally require parental consent to be involved in research. The consent form should allow for those under the age of 18 to agree to their involvement and for a parent to give consent.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to the participant and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

	Amy Farndale	
Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Other preschooler child's consent (on behalf of parent)

UniSA Research and Innovation Services

Human Research Ethics Committee
CONSENT FORM

Use this consent form when taped materials, photographs or original works are to be retained

This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118; Email: Vicki.Allen@unisa.edu.au

SECTION 1: CONTACT AND PROJECT DETAILS

Researcher's Full Name:	Amy Farndale
Contact Details:	amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Prof. Pauline Harris
Contact Details:	Pauline.Harris@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000030389
Project Title:	Supporting preschoolers who are new to English.

SECTION 2: CERTIFICATION

Participant Certification

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read the information sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me along with my child's possible involvement in it. I understand and agree for my child to take part.
- I understand that our child's participation in this research project is voluntary; a decision not to participate will in no way affect their academic standing or relationship with the children's service
- I understand that there will be no payment for taking part in this study.
- I am aware that I should retain a copy of the information sheet and consent form for future reference
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, our child's name and that of the service will not be identified. Pseudonyms will be used and information will remain confidential.
- I understand that photography and movie-mode (video) recordings will be gathered at our service during data collection and may involve our child. Such recordings will be stored electronically and password protected along with all data collection. Only the researcher, her supervisors and preschool staff will have access to information.
- I understand that the researcher may request to show photos/video footage involving my child in the thesis, report or in associated presentations. Only photo/videos that have been viewed and further approved by me (on behalf of my child) via an additional consent process can be shown to audiences other than the researcher and her supervisors.

Participants under the age of 18 normally require parental consent to be involved in research. The consent form should allow for those under the age of 18 to agree to their involvement and for a parent to give consent.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to the participant and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

	Amy Farndale	
Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Appendix 3: Talent release form

Talent release form

For use of images (photographic, movie and audio) for research publication and presentation purposes.

I: .....
(parent's/guardian's name – PLEASE PRINT)

of: .....

.....

(address – PLEASE PRINT)

on behalf of: .....
(child's name – PLEASE PRINT)

1. Consent to approved images photos/movie/audio recordings of my child being used by Amy Farndale (PhD student at UniSA) for a variety publications and presentations relating to her PhD research for an undefined period of time.
2. Understand that the approved images (photo/movie/audio) may be shown in relation to Amy Farndale's PhD research in a public environment (in South Australia, interstate and/or overseas).
3. Agree that my child's images (photo/video/audio) may be edited at the sole discretion of Amy Farndale.
4. Release Amy Farndale (UniSA) from any claim by me or anyone on my behalf and arising out of my child's appearance in images (photo/movie/audio).
5. Acknowledge that there is to be no payment or further consideration paid for my child's images.

Signed by: .....
(parent's/guardian's signature)

Email address: .....

I have verbally explained the request and demonstrated images to the child's parent (using bilingual assistance where required)

Signed by: .....(Amy Farndale)

Date: / /

Appendix 4: Translation of information and consent forms

Khmer

ជូនចំពោះមាតាបិតា / អ្នកមើលថែរបស់ ..... ថ្ងៃទី ខែធ្នូ ឆ្នាំ២០១២

ខ្ញុំសូមណែនាំលោកអ្នកឲ្យបានស្គាល់ឈ្មោះខ្ញុំ។ ខ្ញុំឈ្មោះ Amy Farndale Mujema ជាសិស្សបណ្ឌិតផ្នែកស្រាវជ្រាវនៅសាកលវិទ្យាល័យ **UniSA (PhD research student at UniSA)** កំពុងស្រាវជ្រាវលើបទពិសោធន៍របស់ក្មេងរៀននៅមត្តេយ្យសាលាដែលទើបតែរៀនភាសាអង់គ្លេសថ្មីៗ ដែលអំពីរបៀបផ្តល់ឥទ្ធិពលនៃការរៀនសូត្ររបស់គេ។ ខ្ញុំសង្ឃឹមថាខ្លឹមបានសិក្សាអំពីក្មេងរៀននៅមត្តេយ្យសាលាអស់ទៅហើយ តែលក្នុងពេលបច្ចុប្បន្ននេះខ្ញុំយាយសាសាគ្នាស់គ្នា ហើយក្នុងពេលបច្ចុប្បន្នពុំទេនិយាយភាសាអង់គ្លេស ឬនិយាយភាសាអង់គ្លេសតិចតួច។ ក្មេងតែលទើបតែចូលមត្តេយ្យសាលាថ្មីៗ ដែលរៀនភាសាអង់គ្លេសថ្មីៗមួចចូនរបស់លោកអ្នក ..... ជាដើម។

ការសិក្សានេះមានគោលបំណងដើម្បីផ្តត់ផ្គង់អស់ក្មេងតែលទើបចូលរៀននៅមត្តេយ្យសាលា ឲ្យគេបានល្អលាស់ទាំងភាសាអង់គ្លេសរបស់គេ និងការចូលចិត្តមស់ភាសាតែលនិយាយនៅផ្ទះ។ ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកចាប់អារម្មណ៍ក្នុងការស្ម័គ្រចិត្តយល់ព្រមឲ្យកូនរបស់លោកអ្នកចូលរួម ខ្ញុំនឹងពិនិត្យមើលកូនរបស់លោកអ្នកនៅពេលខ្ញុំមកមត្តេយ្យសាលារបស់លោកអ្នកចំនួនពីរ ‘ពាក់កណ្តាលថ្ងៃ ’ រៀងរាល់អាទិត្យសម្រាប់ពីរដងមាស។ ខ្ញុំនឹងប្រមូលយកពត៌មានបទពិសោធន៍របស់កូនលោកអ្នក ហើយធ្វើការពិនិត្យឃ្លាំមើលក្នុងអម្មុងវគ្គមត្តេយ្យសាលានៅពេលលេង និងនៅពេលមានាបិតា និងកូនៗលេងជាមួយគ្នា។ ក្នុងភាពជាអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ ខ្ញុំនឹងមិនបង្ហាក់កូនរបស់លោកអ្នកនៅពេលគេកំពុងលេងឡើយ ហើយខ្ញុំនឹងផ្តល់ពេលវេលាសម្រាប់កូនរបស់លោកអ្នកដើម្បីកុំឲ្យមានការរំខានដល់កិច្ចការប្រចាំថ្ងៃរបស់គេ។ ខ្ញុំនឹងកត់ចុះខ្លះកំណត់ចំណាំទាំងឡាយ ហើយយូរៗម្តងនឹងមានការថតរូប និងថតវីដែអ៊ូនិង (នោយមានការយល់ព្រមពីលោកអ្នក) ដើម្បីរៀបរាប់អំពីរបៀបតែលកូនរបស់លោកអ្នកធ្វើយតបទៅនឹងបរិយាកាសនៅមត្តេយ្យសាលា។ ជូនកាល ខ្ញុំប្រហែលជាស្នើសុំការអនុញ្ញាតពីកូនរបស់លោកអ្នកដើម្បីថតចម្លង /ថតរូបនៃកិច្ចការសិល្បៈកម្ម / គំនូររបស់គេ ប្រសិនបើយល់ឃើញថាមានប្រយោជន៍ដល់ការសិក្សាស្រាវជ្រាវ។ ខ្ញុំជាគ្រូបង្រៀនតែលជាឧបត្ថម្ភ ក៏ជាសិស្សផ្នែកបណ្ឌិតផងដែរ។ ខ្ញុំបានទទួលការត្រួតពិនិត្យដោយប៉ូលីសរួចហើយ ព្រមទាំងមានការពិនិត្យតាមរយៈការណ៍អំពីការធ្វើបាបកុមារផងដែរ មានន័យថា ច្បាប់បានតម្រូវឲ្យខ្ញុំរាយការណ៍អំពីការធ្វើបាបចំពោះកុមារណាម្នាក់តែលត្រូវបានគេសង្ស័យ ក៏ដូចគ្នាដែរត្រូបង្រៀន និងអ្នកវិជ្ជាជីវៈបង្រៀនដែរ។

ក្នុងភាពជាមាតាបិតា ខ្ញុំសូមអញ្ជើញលោកអ្នកផងដែរឲ្យមានចំណែកក្នុងការធ្វើសម្ភាសន៍ជាសេរីមួយថត ឬធ្វើបញ្ជីសំនួរមួយតែលត្រូវការពេល១៥នាទី ដើម្បីប្រមូលយកពត៌មានអំពីកូនរបស់លោកអ្នក ដូចជាមុខការងាត់គេប៉ះពាល់ដែនភាសាអង់គ្លេស និងភាសាតែនៅផ្ទះ។ ពត៌មានតែលលោកអ្នកផ្តល់ និងយកទៅចែកចាយជាមួយបុគ្គលិកមត្តេយ្យសាលាក្នុងគោលបំណងដើម្បីផ្តត់ផ្គង់អស់ការរៀនសូត្ររបស់កូនលោកអ្នក។ បុគ្គលិកមត្តេយ្យសាលាគំនឹងចែកចាយកំណត់ត្រារបស់គេផងដែរ (ឧទាហរណ៍ ពត៌មានអំពីការចុះឈ្មោះចូលរៀន ការវាយតម្លៃ និងការពិនិត្យឃ្លាំមើលជាលាយលក្ខណ៍អក្សរ) ជាមួយខ្ញុំក្នុងឋានៈជាអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកយល់ព្រមឲ្យគេធ្វើយ៉ាងនេះ។ ការចេះនឹងក្តួយអស់ការសិក្សារបស់ខ្ញុំ។ អត្តសញ្ញាណ និងភាពជាឯកជនរបស់លោកអ្នកនឹងត្រូវបានការពារ ហើយលទ្ធផលនៃការស្រាវជ្រាវនឹងត្រូវបានរាយការណ៍ដោយប្រើឈ្មោះក្លែងក្លាយនៅក្នុងការចេះរុម្ភក្សាយ /ការបង្ហាញណែនាំផ្នែកសិក្សានៅពេលអនាគត។ ពត៌មានខ្លឹងត្រូវបានចាត់ទុកជាសម្ងាត់ រក្សាទុកតាមបែបអេលិកត្រូនិក (ក្នុងទុមព្យធ៌រ) ដោយមានពាក្យសម្ងាត់ដើម្បីការពារឯកសារ ហើយថែមទាំងអាត់នៅក្នុងទូចាត់សោនៅក្នុងបន្ទប់ចាត់សោផងដែរ។ រឿងឯកត៌ររបស់លោកអ្នកនឹងត្រូវបានគេរោរព។ មានតែអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ និងអ្នកត្រួតពិនិត្យរបស់គាត់ ព្រមទាំងបុគ្គលិកមត្តេយ្យសាលារបស់កូនលោកអ្នកប៉ុណ្ណោះនឹងអាចពិនិត្យមើលពត៌មានដែលប្រមូលបាន។ ទិន្នន័យនឹងត្រូវរក្សាទុករយៈពេលរាប់ឆ្នាំក្រោយការបញ្ចប់នៃការសិក្សា។ សេចក្តីចម្រងនៃរបាយការណ៍សង្ខេបនៃការស្រាវជ្រាវជាសញ្ញាឧត្រអាស ដែលបានផ្តល់ទៅឲ្យមត្តេយ្យសាលាសម្រាប់ការចែកចាយជាមួយបុគ្គលិក និងត្រូសារនៃមត្តេយ្យសាលា ថែមទាំងធ្វើតាមអ៊ីម៉ែលផងដែរទៅឲ្យក្រុមស្រាវជ្រាវ DECD ក្នុងរយៈពេលពីរបីខែក្រោយការបញ្ចប់នៃគំរោងការ។ ឱកាសបានដែលទទួលផែលជាផ្នែកនៃសញ្ញាបត្របណ្ឌិតក្នុងផ្នែកអប់រំរបស់អ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ។

ការចូលរួមគឺជាការស្ម័គ្រចិត្ត ហើយលោកអ្នកអាចបកការយល់ព្រមចេញពីគំរោងការនេះនៅពេលណាក៏បានដោយគ្មានលំអៀង។ គំរោងការនេះបានទទួលការគាំទ្រពីក្រុមស្រាវជ្រាវ DECD និងគណៈកម្មការផ្នែកសិលធម៌ស្រាវជ្រាវមនុស្សរបស់សកលវិទ្យាល័យរដ្ឋអូស្ត្រាលីទាងត្បូង។ ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកមានកង្វល់ផ្នែកសិលធម៌ណាមួយអំពីគំរោងការ ឬសំនួរអំពីសិទ្ធិរបស់លោកអ្នកក្នុងភាពជាអ្នកចូលរួម សូមទាក់ទងជាមួយភ្នាក់ងារប្រតិបត្តិរបស់គណៈកម្មការនេះ តាមទូរស័ព្ទលេខ +61 8 8302 3118 ឬអ៊ីម៉ែល vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au។ មានផ្តល់ជូនកិច្ចបំរើតាមទូរស័ព្ទឥតគិតថ្លៃ តាមរយៈទូរស័ព្ទជំនួយមាតាបិតា លេខ 1300 364 100 (អស់ដង្ហៅមួចទូរស័ព្ទក្នុងតំបន់) ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកមានបទពិសោធន៍មិនសុខស្រួលផ្នែកផ្លូវចិត្តណាមួយក្នុងអម្មុងពេលសិក្សានេះ។ កូនសៀវភៅមានតម្លាប់មកជាមួយផងដែរ។

ពាក្យយល់ព្រមចំនួនពីរ មានផ្តល់មកជាមួយនឹងសន្លឹកពត៌មាននេះ។ ពាក្យយល់ព្រមមិមួយ គឺសម្រាប់លោកអ្នកក្នុងឋានៈជាមាតាបិតា សម្រាប់ផ្តល់ការយល់ព្រមដើម្បីចូលរួមនៅក្នុងការធ្វើសម្ភាសន៍ / បំពេញបញ្ជីសំនួរ /ការពិភាក្សា ហើយពាក្យយល់ព្រមទីពីរ គឺសម្រាប់កូនរបស់លោកអ្នកដើម្បីចូលរួម ហើយទទួលការពិនិត្យឃ្លាំមើលក្នុងអម្មុងវគ្គមត្តេយ្យសាលា។ សូមអាន បំពេញ ហើយបញ្ជូនទៅមត្តេយ្យសាលាវិញ ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកព្រមព្រៀងចូលរួមក្នុងការសិក្សានេះ។ នេះត្រូវបានសង្ឃឹមថាលទ្ធផលនៃការសិក្សានេះនឹងបានជាប្រយោជន៍ក្នុងការបង្កើនជូវការនឹងយល់ ពីរបៀបតែលកូនរបស់លោកអ្នករៀនភាសាអង់គ្លេសថ្មីៗ និងអំពីរបៀបផ្តត់ផ្គង់ការរៀនសូត្ររបស់គេនៅមត្តេយ្យសាលា។ លោកអ្នកត្រូវបានលើកទឹកចិត្តឲ្យសួរកូនរបស់លោកអ្នក ប្រសិនបើគេយល់ព្រមចូលរួមអោយខ្លួនគេនៅក្នុងគំរោងការនេះ។ ទោះជាយ៉ាងណាក្តី ពាក្យយល់ព្រមរបស់មាតាបិតាត្រូវតែបានចុះហត្ថលេខាអោយមាតាបិតាណាម្នាក់ ដើម្បីឲ្យកូនរបស់លោកអ្នកអាចចូលរួម។

ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកត្រូវការពត៌មានបន្ថែមទាក់ទិនទឹងការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះ សូមទាក់ទងមកខ្ញុំ Amy Farndale Mujema អ៊ីម៉ែល: amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au ទូរស័ព្ទ: [redacted] ឬអ្នកត្រួតពិនិត្យរបស់ខ្ញុំ គឺសាស្ត្រាចារ្យ Pauline Harris ទូរស័ព្ទ: 8302 4637 ឬអ៊ីម៉ែល: pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au។ សូមអរគុណលោកអ្នកចំពោះការពិចារណាលើគំរោងការស្រាវជ្រាវនែលបានស្នើសុំនេះ។

ហត្ថលេខា (Amy Farndale Mujema)

បរិញ្ញាបត្រផ្នែកអប់រំកុមារបឋមវ័យ (សញ្ញាបត្រគិត្តិយស)

បរិញ្ញាទៅផ្នែកអប់រំ (មានមុខវិជ្ជាឯកទេសផ្នែកកុមារបឋមវ័យ)

អោយការចុះហត្ថលេខាលើពាក្យយល់ព្រមខែ ទុំសូមបញ្ជាក់ថា:

- ទុំបានអានសន្ធឹកពតិមាខខែ។ លក្ខណៈ ខិងគោលបំណងនៃគំរោងការស្រាវជ្រាវ ខិងការចូលរួមរបស់ទុំនៅក្នុងគំរោងការខែ ត្រូវបានគេពន្យល់ច្រាប់ទុំ ហើយទុំយល់ព្រមតើម្បីចូលរួម។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ការចូលរួមរបស់ទុំនៅក្នុងគំរោងការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះគឺជាការស្ម័ត្រចិត្ត សេចក្តីសំរេចមិនចូលរួម ខិងពុំប៉ះពាល់អល់ទំនាក់ទំនងណាមួយរបស់ទុំ ជាមួយកិច្ចប៉ើរបស់កុមារឡើយ។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ខិងគ្មានការបង់ប្រាក់ចំពោះការចូលរួមនៅក្នុងការសិក្សានេះឡើយ។
- ទុំឥងថា ទុំគួររក្សាទុកសេចក្តីចម្លងនៃសន្ធឹកពតិមាខ ខិងពាក្យយល់ព្រមនេះជាឯកសារយោងសម្រាប់អនាគត។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ទុំអាចឥកខ្លួនទុំចេញពីគំរោងការនេះនៅពេលណាក៏បាន ហើយការនេះខិងពុំប៉ះពាល់អល់ស្ថានភាពរបស់ទុំក្នុងពេលបច្ចុប្បន្ននេះ ឬនៅអនាគតឡើយ។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ក្នុងទណៈ:នៃលពតិមាខប្រមូលបានក្នុងអម្លុងពេលសិក្សាអាចត្រូវគេយកទៅបោះពុម្ពផ្សាយក្តី ឈ្មោះរបស់ទុំខិងពុំត្រូវគេសម្គាល់ឥងឡើយ ហើយឈ្មោះក្លែងក្លាយខិងត្រូវបានគេយកប្រើជំនួសវិញ ហើយលទ្ធផលផ្ទាល់ខ្លួនរបស់ទុំខិងត្រូវបានរក្សាទុកជាសម្ងាត់។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ការថតជាសម្លេង រូបថត ខិងវីឌីអូអំពីរូបទុំខិងត្រូវបានគេប្រមូលយកក្នុងអម្លុងពេលប្រមូលទិន្នន័យ។ ការថតទាំងនេះខិងត្រូវបានរក្សាទុកតាមបែបអេឡិកត្រូនិក ហើយមានឆាត់ពាក្យសម្ងាត់ជាប់គ្រប់ទិន្នន័យដែលបានប្រមូលទាំងអស់។ មានតែអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ អ្នកត្រួតត្រា ខិងបុគ្គលិកមន្ទេយ្យសាលាប៉ុណ្ណោះ មានលទ្ធភាពប្រើប្រាស់ពតិមានទាំងនេះ។

ទុំយល់ឥងថា អ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវអាចស្នើសុំឥើម្បីឆាត់បង្ហាញរូបថត /វីឌីអូទ្វីៗទាក់ទិនខិងរូបទុំ ជាមួយក្លខរបស់ទុំ នៅក្នុងឱកេបទ ឬការបង្ហាញណែនាំដែលទាក់ទិន។ មានតែរូបថត/វីឌីអូដែលបានពិនិត្យមើល ហើយយល់ព្រមបន្ថែមអោយទុំតាមរយៈអំណើរការយល់ព្រមបន្ថែមប៉ុណ្ណោះ អាចនេយកទៅបង្ហាញណែនាំដែលទស្សនិកជនស្វែងពិអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ ខិងអ្នកត្រួតត្រារបស់គាត់។

អោយការចុះហត្ថលេខាលើពាក្យយល់ព្រមខែ ទុំសូមបញ្ជាក់ថា:

- ទុំបានអាន ហើយយល់ឥងអំពីសន្ធឹកពតិមានខែ។ លក្ខណៈ ខិងគោលបំណងនៃគំរោងការស្រាវជ្រាវ ខិងការចូលរួមរបស់ក្លខទុំនៅក្នុងគំរោងការខែ ត្រូវបានគេពន្យល់ច្រាប់ទុំ ហើយទុំយល់ព្រមឱ្យក្លខរបស់ទុំចូលរួម។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ការចូលរួមរបស់ក្លខទុំនៅក្នុងគំរោងការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះគឺជាការស្ម័ត្រចិត្ត សេចក្តីសំរេចមិនចូលរួម ខិងពុំប៉ះពាល់អល់ទំនាក់ទំនងណាមួយរបស់ក្លខទុំ ជាមួយកិច្ចប៉ើរបស់កុមារឡើយ។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ខិងគ្មានការបង់ប្រាក់ចំពោះការចូលរួមរបស់ក្លខទុំនៅក្នុងការសិក្សានេះឡើយ។
- ទុំឥងថា ទុំគួររក្សាទុកសេចក្តីចម្លងនៃសន្ធឹកពតិមាខ ខិងពាក្យយល់ព្រមនេះជាឯកសារយោងសម្រាប់អនាគត។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ទុំអាចឥកក្លខរបស់ទុំចេញពីគំរោងការនេះនៅពេលណាក៏បាន ហើយការនេះខិងពុំប៉ះពាល់អល់ស្ថានភាពរបស់ទុំក្នុងពេលបច្ចុប្បន្ននេះ ឬនៅអនាគតឡើយ។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ក្នុងទណៈ:នៃលពតិមាខប្រមូលបានក្នុងអម្លុងពេលសិក្សាអាចត្រូវគេយកទៅបោះពុម្ពផ្សាយក្តី ឈ្មោះរបស់ក្លខទុំខិងពុំត្រូវគេសម្គាល់ឥងឡើយ ហើយឈ្មោះក្លែងក្លាយខិងត្រូវបានគេយកប្រើជំនួសឈ្មោះក្លខរបស់ទុំ ហើយខិងឈ្មោះទីកន្លែងមន្ទេយ្យសាលារបស់ក្លខទុំ ហើយលទ្ធផលផ្ទាល់ខ្លួនរបស់ក្លខទុំខិងត្រូវបានរក្សាទុកជាសម្ងាត់ ត្រៅពីអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ អ្នកត្រួតត្រា ហើយខិងបុគ្គលិកមន្ទេយ្យសាលា។
- ទុំយល់ព្រមឱ្យកន្លែងមន្ទេយ្យសាលាផ្តល់ពតិមានស្តីអំពីក្លខរបស់ទុំទៅឱ្យអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ (ឧទាហរណ៍ ពាក្យចុងឈ្មោះចូលរៀខ ការវាយតម្លៃ)។
- ទុំយល់ឥងថា ការថតជាសម្លេង រូបភាព (រូបថត) ខិងវីឌីអូអំពីរូបក្លខរបស់ទុំខិងត្រូវបានគេប្រមូលយកក្នុងអម្លុងពេលប្រមូលទិន្នន័យ។ ការថតទាំងនេះខិងត្រូវបានរក្សាទុកតាមបែបអេឡិកត្រូនិក ហើយមានឆាត់ពាក្យសម្ងាត់ជាប់គ្រប់ទិន្នន័យដែលបានប្រមូលទាំងអស់។ មានតែអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ អ្នកត្រួតត្រារបស់គាត់ ខិងបុគ្គលិកមន្ទេយ្យសាលារបស់ក្លខទុំប៉ុណ្ណោះ មានលទ្ធភាពប្រើប្រាស់ពតិមានអំពីក្លខរបស់ទុំ។

ទុំយល់ឥងថា អ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវអាចស្នើសុំឥើម្បីឆាត់បង្ហាញរូបថត /វីឌីអូទ្វីៗទាក់ទិនខិងរូបក្លខរបស់ទុំ នៅក្នុងឱកេបទ ឬការបង្ហាញណែនាំដែលទាក់ទិន។ មានតែរូបថត /វីឌីអូដែលបានពិនិត្យមើល ហើយយល់ព្រមបន្ថែមអោយមានការចុះហត្ថលេខាលើពាក្យយល់ព្រមបន្ថែមប៉ុណ្ណោះ អាចនេយកទៅបង្ហាញណែនាំដែលទស្សនិកជន ស្វែងពិអ្នកស្រាវជ្រាវ អ្នកត្រួតត្រារបស់គាត់ ខិងបុគ្គលិកមន្ទេយ្យសាលា។

Vietnamese

Kính gởi Cha mẹ/Người chăm sóc cho …….., Tháng Mười Hai 2012

Tôi xin phép giới thiệu về tôi. Tôi tên là Amy Farndale Mujema. Tôi là **sinh viên nghiên cứu cho một Luận án Tiến sĩ ở Đại học UniSA** nhằm nghiên cứu về trải nghiệm của các em **trong lớp mẫu giáo và mới học tiếng Anh** đồng thời tìm xem có cách nào giúp đỡ việc học tập của các em. Tôi hy vọng sẽ được nghiên cứu khoảng bốn em ở lớp mẫu giáo và hiện đang nói một ngôn ngữ nào khác chứ không nói tiếng Anh, hoặc chỉ nói được chút ít tiếng Anh. Các em đang mới bước vào mẫu giáo và mới tập nói tiếng Anh như con em của quý vị ……

Mục đích của cuộc nghiên cứu nhằm hỗ trợ các em mới vào mẫu giáo để tiến bộ cả về tiếng Anh lẫn quý trọng ngôn ngữ dùng ở nhà. Nếu quý vị muốn tự thỏa thuận cho con mình tham gia, tôi sẽ quan sát con của quý vị khi tôi đến viếng trường mẫu giáo của em hai 'buổi' mỗi tuần trong suốt hai học kỳ. Tôi sẽ thâu thập thông tin về trải nghiệm của con em của quý vị và quan sát cách sinh hoạt của em trong các buổi học mẫu giáo trong giờ chơi và khi học nhóm. Là nghiên cứu viên tôi sẽ không làm gián đoạn việc chơi đùa của con của quý vị và sẽ giữ khoảng cách để không làm xáo trộn sinh hoạt thường lệ hàng ngày của em. Tôi sẽ ghi chú trong sổ tay và thỉnh thoảng chụp ảnh hoặc quay phim (có sự cho phép của quý vị) để mô tả phản ứng của con của quý vị đối với môi trường ở mẫu giáo. Đôi khi tôi có thể hỏi con của quý vị cho tôi được sao chụp/chụp ảnh các hình vẽ/tác phẩm nghệ thuật của em, nếu tôi thấy có hữu ích cho cuộc nghiên cứu này. Tôi là một giáo viên có đăng bộ, đồng thời là sinh viên học lấy bằng Tiến sĩ. Tôi có giấy chứng nhận không có tiền án do cảnh sát cấp và tôi là người phải báo cáo việc trẻ em bị hành hạ, có nghĩa là luật pháp bắt buộc tôi, cũng như các giáo viên hoặc chuyên viên khác, là phải báo cáo các trường hợp nghi ngờ trẻ em bị hành hạ.

Tôi cũng xin mời quý vị trong vai trò cha/mẹ, tham gia vào một buổi phỏng vấn có ghi âm hoặc bỏ ra 15 phút trả lời các câu trên một bản câu hỏi, để tôi biết thêm chi tiết về con của quý vị chẳng hạn như em đã từng nói tiếng Anh hoặc các ngôn ngữ khác trong trường hợp nào. Các chi tiết mà quý vị cung cấp sẽ được san sẻ với nhân viên lớp mẫu giáo nhằm mục đích trợ giúp việc học hỏi của con của quý vị. Nhân viên lớp mẫu giáo cũng san sẻ các chi tiết (ví dụ như chi tiết ghi danh, thẩm định và tường trình về các quan sát) với tôi trong vai trò nghiên cứu viên, nếu quý vị đồng ý cho việc này. Điều này sẽ giúp cho cuộc nghiên cứu. Chi tiết nhận dạng cũng như việc riêng tư của quý vị sẽ được bảo vệ và kết quả của cuộc nghiên cứu sẽ được tường trình dùng biệt danh (tên giả vờ) trong luận án và các xuất bản phẩm/ bài thuyết trình học thuật trong tương lai. Các chi tiết sẽ được bảo mật, lưu trữ trong hệ thống điện tử (trên máy vi tính) được bảo vệ bởi mật mã và cũng lưu trữ trong tủ khóa kín trong các phòng được khóa kín. Việc riêng tư của quý vị sẽ được tôn trọng. Chỉ có nghiên cứu viên và các giám thị của cô ấy, cùng nhân viên lớp mẫu giáo của con của quý vị mới có thể xem các chi tiết thâu thập được. Các dữ kiện này sẽ được lưu giữ đến 7 năm sau khi hoàn tất việc nghiên cứu. Một bản sao tóm lược của bản tường trình sẽ được gởi cho giám đốc của trường mẫu giáo để san sẻ với nhân viên và các gia đình trong trường mẫu giáo; và cũng sẽ được gởi qua điện thư cho toán nghiên cứu DECD vài tháng sau khi hoàn tất cuộc nghiên cứu. Hoàn thành luận án là một phần cần thiết để nghiên cứu viên đạt được bằng Tiến sĩ về Giáo dục.

Tham gia là việc tự nguyện và quý vị có thể rút lại thỏa thuận tham gia đề án này bất kỳ lúc nào mà không bị thành kiến xấu. Đề án này được chấp thuận bởi toán nghiên cứu DECD và Ủy ban Kiểm soát Nội quy về Nghiên cứu Nhân loại của Đại học Nam Úc (University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee). Nếu quý vị có quan ngại gì về nguyên tắc xử thế hoặc có bất kỳ câu hỏi nào về quyền lợi của quý vị trong vai trò người tham gia, hãy liên lạc với Nhân viên Điều hành (Executive Officer) của Ủy ban nêu trên qua điện thoại số: +61 8 8302 3118 hoặc gởi điện thư đến: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au. Có dịch vụ tư vấn miễn phí trên điện thoại qua đường dây giúp cha mẹ số 1300 364 100 (chỉ tốn phí như cú gọi địa phương) nếu quý vị cảm thấy tâm trí bất an trong khi tham gia cuộc nghiên cứu. Có bản tài liệu được đính kèm theo đây.

Có hai Mẫu đơn Thỏa thuận được đính kèm với bản thông tin này. Một đơn thỏa thuận dành cho quý vị trong vai trò cha/mẹ để tham gia vào phỏng vấn/trả lời bản câu hỏi/thảo luận và đơn thỏa thuận thứ hai là để cho con của quý vị tham gia và được quan sát trong các buổi ở lớp mẫu giáo. Xin vui lòng đọc, điền đủ chi tiết và gởi trả lại trường mẫu giáo nếu quý vị đồng ý tham gia. Hy vọng rằng kết quả của cuộc nghiên cứu này sẽ hữu ích trong việc tạo ra nhận thức về nhu cầu của các em ở lớp mẫu giáo và mới học tiếng Anh đồng thời tìm xem có cách nào để các em được giúp đỡ ở lớp mẫu giáo. Quý vị cũng nên hỏi xem con của mình có tự đồng ý dự phần vào đề án này, tuy nhiên, đơn thỏa thuận phải được ký tên bởi cha/mẹ để con mình có thể tham gia.

Nếu quý vị muốn biết thêm thông tin về cuộc nghiên cứu này, hãy liên lạc với tôi**, Amy Farndale Mujema**, amy.farndale@mymail.unisa.edu.au [redacted] hoặc giám thị của tôi Prof. Pauline Harris qua số 8302 4637 hoặc gởi điện thư đến pauline.harris@unisa.edu.au**.** Cám ơn quý vị đã lưu tâm đến lời yêu cầu về đề án nghiên cứu này.

Ký tên (*Amy Farndale*)
Cử nhân Giáo dục tuổi Ấu thơ (Danh dự)
Thạc sĩ Giáo dục (Chuyên đề về Tuổi Ấu thơ)

Khi ký tên vào đơn này, tôi xác nhận rằng:

- Tôi đã đọc bản thông tin. Tính chất và mục đích của đề án nghiên cứu cùng sự tham gia của tôi đã được giải thích cho tôi hiểu và tôi đồng ý tham gia.
- Tôi hiểu rằng việc tham gia của tôi vào đề án nghiên cứu này là việc tự nguyện; quyết định không tham gia sẽ không ảnh hưởng gì hết đến mối liên hệ giữa tôi và dịch vụ dành cho trẻ em.
- Tôi hiểu rằng sẽ không được trả tiền công khi tham gia vào cuộc nghiên cứu này.
- Tôi biết rằng tôi cần giữ lại bản sao của bản thông tin và đơn thỏa thuận để tham khảo sau này.
- Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút ra khỏi đề án nghiên cứu này bất kỳ lúc nào và điều này không ảnh hưởng gì đến tình trạng của tôi như hiện tại hoặc trong tương lai.
- Tôi hiểu rằng trong khi các chi tiết thâu thập được có thể được công bố, tôi sẽ không bị nhận dạng qua tên, một biệt danh (tên giả vờ) sẽ được dùng và kết quả cá nhân của tôi sẽ được bảo mật.
- Tôi hiểu rằng việc ghi âm, chụp ảnh và quay phim về tôi có thể được thực hiện trong khi thâu thập dữ kiện. Các ghi nhận này sẽ được lưu trữ trong hệ thống điện tử được bảo vệ bằng mật mã cùng với tất cả dữ kiện thâu thập được. Chỉ có nghiên cứu viên, các giám thị và nhân viên trường mẫu giáo mới có thể được xem các chi tiết này.

Tôi hiểu rằng nghiên cứu viên có thể yêu cầu được trình chiếu hình ảnh/đoạn phim có mặt tôi và con tôi, trong luận án hoặc các buổi thuyết trình liên hệ. Chỉ có các hình ảnh/đoạn phim đã được tôi duyệt xét và đồng ý qua một tiến trình thỏa thuận khác nữa, mới có thể được trình chiếu trước những người xem mà họ không phải là nghiên cứu viên và các giám thị của cô ấy.

Khi ký tên vào đơn này, tôi xác nhận rằng:

- Tôi đã đọc bản thông tin. Tính chất và mục đích của đề án nghiên cứu cùng sự tham gia của con của tôi đã được giải thích cho tôi hiểu và tôi đồng ý cho con tôi tham gia.
- Tôi hiểu rằng việc tham gia của con của tôi vào đề án nghiên cứu này là việc tự nguyện; quyết định không tham gia sẽ không ảnh hưởng gì hết đến mối liên hệ giữa con của tôi và dịch vụ dành cho trẻ em.
- Tôi hiểu rằng con của tôi sẽ không được trả tiền công khi tham gia vào cuộc nghiên cứu này.
- Tôi biết rằng tôi cần giữ lại bản sao của bản thông tin và đơn thỏa thuận để tham khảo sau này.
- Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút con của tôi ra khỏi đề án nghiên cứu này bất kỳ lúc nào và điều này không ảnh hưởng gì đến tình trạng của tôi như hiện tại hoặc trong tương lai.
- Tôi hiểu rằng trong khi các chi tiết thâu thập được có thể được công bố, con của tôi sẽ không bị nhận dạng qua tên, các biệt danh (tên giả vờ) sẽ được dùng thay thế cho tên của con của tôi và tên của trường mẫu giáo và kết quả cá nhân của con của tôi sẽ được giữ kín ngoại trừ đối với nghiên cứu viên, các giám thị của cô ấy và nhân viên trường mẫu giáo.
- Tôi thỏa thuận cho trường mẫu giáo cung cấp chi tiết của con của tôi cho nghiên cứu viên (ví dụ như đơn ghi danh, các thẩm định.)
- Tôi hiểu rằng việc ghi âm, chụp ảnh và quay phim về con của tôi có thể được thực hiện trong khi thâu thập dữ kiện. Các ghi nhận này sẽ được lưu trữ trong hệ thống điện tử được bảo vệ bằng mật mã cùng với tất cả dữ kiện thâu thập được. Chỉ có nghiên cứu viên, các giám thị và nhân viên trường mẫu giáo mới có thể được xem các chi tiết về con của tôi.

Tôi hiểu rằng nghiên cứu viên có thể yêu cầu được trình chiếu hình ảnh/đoạn phim có mặt con tôi, trong luận án hoặc các buổi thuyết trình liên hệ. Chỉ có các hình ảnh/đoạn phim đã được tôi duyệt xét và đồng ý qua việc ký tên vào một thỏa thuận khác nữa, mới có thể được trình chiếu trước những người xem mà không phải là nghiên cứu viên, các giám thị của cô ấy và nhân viên trường mẫu giáo.

Appendix 5: Functional language coding examples

Instrumental	An utterance where the child expresses their wants (e.g. “Want juice”). “Yeah” or “Yep” as well as “Yes” and “No” responses to questions which asked children if they wanted something were also included as instrumental.
Regulatory	An utterance which instructs or commands others to do something (e.g. “Go away”). A “Yeah” response to a question of regulatory behaviour was included, as well as name calling when used in a regulatory way to gain attention and mean, for example, “Come”, “Look” or “Listen”. Names said in the context of greetings, however, were coded as interactional.
Interactional	An utterance which aims to make contact or sustain a relationship with others such as greetings. Interactional utterances also included copying after someone in order to be part of a social event or chanting together in some way (but not when singing, as this was considered imaginative). References to sharing, accepting invitations by others, and other general pragmatic-type language involved in socialising (apologising and helping others) were also coded as interactional. Completing others’ sentences (1234.....“5”) and informing others of social routines “mat time!” were included as interactional.
Personal	An utterance which expresses feelings, opinions, and an individual’s identity (e.g. “Me good girl”), expressing a personal like of something (“I like pink”), talking about themselves or their family (“Me got a baby”), telling someone one’s own actions (“I’m finished”), and responses to personal questions asked of children which would require them to give information about themselves were included (e.g. “yeah’, 'I’ve eaten lots.”). Utterances such as, “Ok”, “Oh” and “I…” “I'm…”, “I've…”, “Me…” type pronoun statements, as well as saying “Ahhh” (when thinking to oneself) were considered personal.
Heuristic	An utterance which seeks knowledge or information (e.g. “What’s this?”). Heuristic utterances generally include questions (“What's that?”).
Imaginative	An utterance which incorporates role-play and imagery within a make-believe circumstance. Singing, drama, musical play, and discussions of the representations of drawing and arts, craft, and making, and other art-related utterances were included as imaginative.
Informative	An utterance spoken to convey facts and inform others. This includes both initiations of statements and responses to questions whereby the child provides information to someone. Naming of objects, commenting on pictures in a published story (rather than one’s own pictures) and offering descriptive details about objects are included in this category.

Appendix 6: The researcher's poem

The face of the silent child …

The face of the silent child…
Serious, lips dormant, eyes scanning, staring, watching, reticent,
Carries a language inside no one here understands
Tears express fear, insecurity, loss of familiar, isolated,
Wanders the room, floating like a ghost, unheard
Lonely and quiet, solitarily exploring
Rarely invited, rarely involved
Talks with his or her eyes—hoping, appealing,
The language of the body the only way to be heard
Wants something… give up (too hard)
Wants something…takes (causes chaos)
Wants something but cannot ask, no words to express
Points point points his or her finger
Noise noise noise, surrounds his or her ears
Slowly but surely 'noise noise' becomes words
An understanding, a word, a connection, a thought
A word, a new language is forming inside
Making sense, lips move, utter words, dancing words
Hesitantly at first and then quiet builds confidence
More words and more thoughts, shared with a friend
Communication evolves, smiles, chatter, laughter,
Questions, stories, games, imagination, answers
It's all making sense, discussions, expressions,
A voice… the child's voice, has finally emerged.

Written by Amy Farndale in 2012

Appendix 7: Educators' questionnaire responses

Kate (Director)

- Help them to settle, physical reassurance - showing them where to go, support and activities, routines - SMILES
- Build relationship - reassurance, confidence, positives, praise, smiles
- Visuals
- Body awareness/language
- Have other children help especially if same language
- Simple language - using props, for example, home corner "cup" - hold up cup, repeat, "drink" continually reinforce
- Instructions - simple with gestures
- If bilinguals are available using home language - depending on language competence, using English and home language
- Later stages - use English, if not understanding, use home language
- Gaining information from parents re: home children language - home language and English - use of words sentence, understanding, following instructions
- Repetition - experiences, books, language
- Involvement play - social interacts - modelling language

Jade (Teacher)

- Building a relationship with the child/family - welcoming, friendly manner - greeting/signs/newsletters in other languages
- Have fun! Show that you enjoy being with the child. Same in any language
- Show respect (e.g. learn to pronounce the child's name correctly). The program/resources should celebrate diverse cultures (pictures/books etc.)
- Communication: be patient allow time for the child to process what is happening, what you are asking them to do
- Be aware of other means of communication. Non-verbal cues (e.g. body language, facial expressions) and be responsive to these
- Communication is two way, either party may need to repeat, rephrase or demonstrate instructions, routines or requirements/needs
- Use a lot of visuals and concrete materials at group-times. Visual signs and labels/pictures depicting routines
- Music can be universally understood and enjoyed. Wonderful way to celebrate diversity with interesting instruments, language dance, sounds, dress
- Valuing human resources - partnerships with families and bilingual workers to share and learn about different cultures
- Sharing and celebrating home cultures with help from families and children (e.g. Diwali, Chinese and Vietnamese New Year)
- Cooking, stories, songs, activities which reflect the cultural heritage of others

Pam (Teacher)

- Using simple language to explain expectations and routines
- Having good role models with bilingual children (other children)
- Lots of repetition - songs/finger-plays/common words
- Positive feedback to child
- Using simple songs and rhymes
- Use gesture and show objects to help child understand
- Talk to the family build on their knowledge/expectations
- Talk to bilinguals - help with families so that we can get information exchange
- Visual materials, hands on activities

Erl (Teacher)

- Communicate non-verbally to these children to help them (e.g. using gestures, eye contact, signs, labels)
- Encourage few responses from these children but not try to force a response
- Continue talking to them even if they do not respond. “continued talking” ensure that they are exposed to the new language and help them feel part of the group.
- Inclusion in small groups with other children which include native speaker of English
- Praise these children if any response no matter how minimal to encourage them to persist
- Use of their first language like counting and singing some songs - to let children feel at home
- Provide activities which reinforce the English language practice through role-play
- Use the daily routines of the program to acquire vocabulary and word patterns
- Talk to the parents and involve them in the development of their child’s learning
- Be sensitive to the impact of what is said on the family and on the child
- Engage in meaningful conversation with the children

Ria (ECW)

- Encourage children to play with other children
- Speak the child's mother-tongue language when communicating with them to make them feel more comfortable
- Often work on the relationship by building trust and providing a secure base
- Learn more about the child's culture and their families’
- Make the room as culturally diverse as possible by hanging up richly cultural fabrics, artefacts
- Encourage children to achieve their goals through a learning program
- Choose appropriate games and activities for children to develop their language and literacy in a small group setting
- Interact effectively with children who have English as a second language
- Keep the parents informed about their child's play, daily routine and activities
- Show interest about child ex. Ask the child about their interests

Thu (ECW) *Vietnamese/Mandarin/French/English speaker

- Working with parents – respect and support home language, make sure parents understand the importance of the home language
- Maintain mother tongue
- Find out knowledge and interest of the child
- Base on children's current knowledge and interest for planning and working with them
- Supporting children to use their first language: provide bilingual books - Read stories in their 1st language
- Encourage same background friendships
- Sing songs
- Read and tell stories everyday- same story several times in the same week. Introduce new vocab, explain the meaning
- Observe children talking during play to find out: social skills, ability of using the language, problem solving…
- Using gesture and facial expression when interacting with them
- Paying attention and listen to the child - rephrase and extend the sentence of what he/she is talking
- Giving short, simple and clear instructions
- Sharing information and programs with parents: discuss progress, about what is happening at the centre
- What do they want for their child to learn and achieve
- Encourage parent's involvement: spending time at kindy, to read books, telling stories or participate in the activities
- Reading books, telling stories and doing things together with their child at home

Sue (ECW)
- Painting
- Role modelling
- Visual clues (e.g. putting hat on)
- Communication pictures
- Noun cards common objects
- Verb cards, running, walking
- Explaining any uncommon words when reading a story
- Reading books with lots of visual
- Listening if they speak
- Do lots of talking to them/with them about common objects at kindy and routines a kindy

Chandra (ECWB)
- Use a lot of visual cues
- Support the kids from the interest straight away within context
- Extend further
- Teach concepts
- Fine-motor cognitive skills - puzzles
- Teach primary language
- Substitute in English
- Support parents' connection with children, arrange extra support from parents (invite)
- Provide feedback to staff - where the child's ability is
- Make observations to back it up (child's ability)
- With parents - explain kindy procedure for parents, short interviews, sit with parent
- 3 way feedback parent - staff - herself re: child development
- Teach traditional culture - festival, songs, celebrations in their language
- Sometimes ask the parent to be involved (depends on the preschool)
- During excursion accompany, explain to child
- Some have limited English - explain
- Coaching
- Help to understand
- Transition is most important -
- Children need a primary caregiver to settle down when more confident.

*Note: names of children who cried are provided

Lan (ECWB)
- Understand children's family, children's situation really important
- Communicate with their parents, when they come to kindy or pick up their child
- Speak Vietnamese with them
- Teaching or reading in English and then translation in Vietnamese. Make sure they understand
- Come to them. Speak with them while they are playing
- Explain the game's rules in your language
- Happy, friendly with children
- Build their confidence by made them trust you
- Explain in Vietnamese when they not understand the teacher's instruction
- Ask them to help you when time to pick up…or cooking……build relationship

Henrietta (Language and Communication Support)

- Encourage and role model social play
- Try really hard to understand - spend time with the child when trying to understand - what the child is saying
- Find out from family the likes and dislikes of child and incorporate in planning of the program
- Build the foundation from basic concepts upwards
- Encourage efforts of child to increase self esteem
- Be patient and remember it may take time and repetition
- Have posters, books, costumes, food, photos, songs etc. displayed so child/family feel more comfortable and familiar

*Note: the term ‘kindy’ refers to preschool in Australia. The words ‘preschool’ and ‘kindergarten’ are interchangeable and represent the same service for three to five-year-old children in the Department for Education and Child Development in South Australia.

Appendix 8: The bilingual program (2013)

The Bilingual Program's Aims

The Department employs bilingual workers to:

Provide programs that are inclusive of the needs of CALD and Aboriginal children

Assist preschool services to provide support in the maintenance and development of the child's home language

Support the child's language and literacy development

Foster the child's sense of belonging

Provide programs that are inclusive of the needs of CALD and Aboriginal children

Support preschools to develop effective and positive communication and links with parents, staff and other government and non-government organizations

Program Overview and Values

The Preschool Bilingual Program supports the access and participation in preschools for children's emotional wellbeing, language and literacy learning by:

Providing support in the maintenance and development of the child's home language as a pre-requisite for the successful acquisition of English as an additional language (a pool of approximately 130 Bilingual Workers cover 26 languages at present in SA)

Establishing links, effective communication and positive relationships among children, centre staff and parents of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds

Providing some resources, professional learning and consultancy advice to assist preschool educators to increase the learning, health and wellbeing of all children from Culturally and Linguistically Diverse backgrounds and Aboriginal children by improving their access to, and participation in, the South Australian Curriculum

Providing specialist support to children and families who have experienced trauma and offers advice to the preschools these children attend

Offering an interpreting and translating service to preschools and parents for Negotiated Education Plan (NEP) purposes

Children who have very limited English, and are attending preschool for the twelve months before they go to school, may be eligible to receive bilingual support.

* Reference to first language *maintenance* and *emotional wellbeing* are noted in the bilingual program in red underlined sections.

Appendix 9: Sample of the 20 minute Vietnamese bilingual small group

Ria: v What's that v. (holding a book)
Child: Mr Magee
Ria: But I want to know what this?
Child: I know Mr Magee
Ria: I know this a book. This not chair. This not table. This a book.
v Is it right? Let' see what's inside the book. v Look inside the book.
Child: Lots, lots
Ria: One pages two page, three pages, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine. Oh a lot of pages
Huh look this the front page.
Where's the back page?
Child: Under that way
Ria: There's the back page Look see look!
Inside the book got a lot of pages.
Look Suzie! v Look! v Patty look!
And this the title. v This is the name of the book. It's the name of the book called…v
Mr Magee and the Blackberry Jam v You can look here. You got to look here. v See.
Child: Apple
Ria: Here's an apple
Child: Apple
Ria: Did you see another apple there? v A lot of apples here. v See Mr Magee.
Open the book. Look that's how I turn the page. That's how I turn the book
Underneath...underneath this apple tree, underneath, v under the apple tree v
The apple tree v under not above the apple tree v
underneath this apple tree there lived a man called Mr Magee v a man lives there v
Child: Mr Magee v hasn't got a home v
Ria: Yeah
Child: v No home v
Ria: Ah where, where people live, where do people live?
Child: v where do people live v
Ria: Yeah. v where do people live? v
Child: v People haven't got a home v
Ria: Look this under the tree now
Child: v Yes v
v I get to live at home v'
Ria: Is that right?
Child: Yeah, yeah!
Ria: See, see what's this?
Child: Yeah
Ria: And what this?
Child: Table
Ria: It's a table and chairs ok.
See Mr Magee?
Children: yes
Child: v (*indistinct*) v ok?
Ria: This morning he was feeling grumpy, see Mr Magee.
Where is Mr Magee sitting?
Child: On the chair.
Ria: Yeah. He made the porridge and it was lumpy
v What's he doing? Is he cooking? He's cooking v ok v he got lumpy lumpy v
He put two sugar in his tea. One, two, sugar sugar v What is 'sugar?' Do you know what it means 'sugar'? v
Patty sugar like this Patty
Child: Sugar makes a baby grow a big
Ria: Yeah sugar two and one sugar two sugar in his tea v He put two sugar in his tea. Is that right? v Two sugar in his tea, then spill the lot and burn his knee. v He's got too much and he's spilt it v he spill v That means to overflow v Spill v spill v spill v spill

v and burn his knee v and burn his knee v spill v Is that right? v and burn his knee , see.
Oh oh who sleeping?

Child: A cat.

Yeah. When he went…when he went to butter his bread butter, butter v Do you know how to do it? Spread the butter v … butter his bread.

Child: v (indistinct) v

Ria: Yeah. He found the butter too hard to spread. The butter v how about your butter at home is it hard or soft?v too hard v too hard v too hard to spread spread v spread spread v
So v what he have to do? v So it wasn't surprising when he said 'I hate marmalade I want black berry jam instead' v See him. He's having breakfast in the morning. He gets the bread and he puts on 'marmalade' v Marmalade, butter v Butter v, marmarlade

Child: v When my Daddy home he put 'cheese' and 'sugar' v I don't eat sugar.

Ria: Mmm v after eating what's he doing? v
So he up went his billy can. He went with his billy can v When he's finished he has to go to work v billy can v Where's he going with his can? v

Child: v Go to shop? v

Ria: Yeah see Mr Magee walking that's how he walk v Is that how he walk like that? v'
Do they shop? ok maybe…to finally bring the black berries for his jam. v They look for the fruit round and black. v This black berry jam… v …to make the black berry jam for him to eat v Finding the blackberries for his jam
V Where's Mr Magee v Mr Magee, Crystal?
Where's Mr Magee, Crystal?

Child: He's up there

Ria: Yeah. He walk and walk for quite a while until he came upon a… v What's that? v

Child: v The big string v

Ria: Yeah v He stepped on the high thing and he can look far away up there v guess what he could see from there? v What did he see from far away? Ah. What did he see children? v

Child: Blackberries!

Ria: Yeah v He's seen v blackberries v He's so happy and he shouts out loud v blackberries blackberries everywhere v Oh my god so big and fat berries v Ok. He, he could pick those big and round berries
Patty, hands for yourself. Come on v Hands on your lap v hands on your lap, thankyou. remember 5 Ls eye looking, ears listening?
Ok, look he could pick those big round berries v It's black and big v Black and fat. Black v Black v and fat and big as are cherries v Oh yummy huh, oh children. The little ones not as yummy v ok? v What's he doing? He's picking v

Child: v He's picking v

Ria: v Black and big berries v pick ok, stretch his arms out and pick ok, one by one v One by one… v ok one by one… v Put them into the box v

Child: v Put in v a bucket.

Ria: Yeah put in the billy, the billy can ok?
v When he put in the bucket you can hear the sound plop plop plopv
He liked the sound plip plop plop v If you put too hard it might damage it v
v What can you see? v

Child: oh cow

Ria: v Very busy to pick. He's not looking behind him. There are the cows v ahh look he pick so busily busily v He's too busy picking and he's not paying attention to what is behind him v Pick so busily, behind him v Oh what's happening behind him? v Where he couldn't see v He can't see what's happening behind him v Oh uh! Couldn't see behind v What did he see? v

Child: The cow.

Ria: Eh! v Look! There are a lot of cows behind him v When Mr Magee was there a cow there v How come there are so many cows behind him? v He blurt out, he blurt out v He was just surprised because he didn't know and when he turn around he see. What did he say to the cow? v

‘I wash my hands’ v I have washed my hands v ‘I wash my hands, I comb my hair…’ v This morning I combed my hair v ‘come on girls… you’re not being fair’. V Maybe he thought the cows would say he didn’t wash his hands or comb his hair v ok?. ‘You know that it is rude to stare.’ v Did you children look with your eyes at the people stare means look, stare at the people. It’s impolite. v

Child: v I don’t stare. v’

Ria: Stare like (demonstrates staring with her eyes) v I, I… (is interrupted) v

Child: v Teacher this round berry tastes very sour. v

Child: v At my home I got tomato plant. v

Ria: Hmmm v What does the cow want to do to him? v
v What does he want? v He, he turn his back and went on picking. v He didn’t want to look at them. v
He turn his back. v Do you know what a back is? v and went on picking v He went on back to picking. He continued to pick all the berries. v
and that was when they the they started licking v …because all the cows saw him not looking v (demonstrates licking) licking v Licking v licking v Stuck his tongue out v ok?
Mr Magee started to squirm v Do you like people licking you? err v …like he was a little worm v He squirms like a worm v Ok and thought he were a little worm v The worm crawls like this v ok?
Stop it please. v It’s tickling. v stop it please. Stop. You are tickling me. v He can’t stand it v tickling me ,then he jiggle away v What does jiggle mean? v he jiggle like this v He can’t stop v Jiggle (demonstrates jiggling)
v He’s laughing and laughing ‘cause he’s tickling v helplessly ok v Can you see? v
Just like kookaburra songs the laughing noise went on and on.
v Do you like people licking you? What else can you see? v
Mr Magee v Did they like Mr Magee? v
He let out a mighty bellow, bellow oh oh oh 'get out here you cheeky fellow’.
v He chases him away. That’s all mine not yours v Mr Magee v Get out of here you cheeky fellow v maybe he’s frightened v but Mr Magee turn around
v Mr Magee turned around and turned into stone. He can’t even move. v
Look Mr Magee. v He’s legs are shaking. v The bull. v The bull. v
Mr Magee just turned to stone huh v He turned into stone. He can’t move. v
He couldnt run. Oh uh v He can’t run. v oh uh! Look he couldn't run
Mmm one moment he was standing there.v Stand there and don’t know what to do v uh oh
What happened to Mr Magee?, ... Put your hands up if you know. What happened to Mr Magee, Suzie?

Suzie: v He tipped v

Ria: Huh? v He tipped v
Mr Magee went into the…? into the...?

Child: Air.

Ria: Oh poor Mr Magee. Ah oh what happened?
v Push him up v
Oh poor Mr Magee what happened?

Child: v He tipped out. v
Uh oh, poor Mr Magee. I wonder whats happened to al the black berries
v All tipped out v

Suzie: I know.

Ria: Oh look what happened to Mr Magee v Tell me v ohh, look poor Mr Magee up in the air. Oooooohh. Up up up up up and luckily Mr Magee landed on where …?
v Where did he land? v

Child: Sheep

Ria: Yeah. Ohh

Child: Someone

Ria: Yeah lucky he landed softly v Softly. From the top to down, softly v lucky he landed on the …?

Child: Sheep

Ria: Mmm. On the back… v On the back v on the back of the wolly sheep Not on the head v Is that right? On the back v What happended to Mr Magee now?
Ping what's happened to Mr Magee now?

Ping: Ahh? He's running'
Yeah. He was on the sheep. Is that like a horse? What animal? What's that animal?

Child: A cow… sheep!

Ria: Put your hand up if you know?
What he doing? What was Mr Magee doing? He was riding sheep not horse. He got home really fast. V He got home really fast. Is that right? v On that night v On that night ? v ok. That night he was safe in bed. He thought about his day. v He thought about his day. v …in bed… v About the cow. He was so frightened v Then he said, 'I can't think what got in my head' v I can't think what go in my head v 'It's marmalade I love!' v What he loves is marmalade. v '…marmalade on bread.' v He went to bed early. Are you scared of the cow? v.
Put your hands up if you scared, yeah? hmmm
Ok.
The End.
Look! The end of the story.

(Audio 28 Feb)

Appendix 10: Shaun's branching-out transcript

*Note: in the excerpt below, 'kkk…' identifies spoken Khmer utterances.

Shaun:	*Come a de li dem* (the statement sounded regulatory as Shaun uttered one of his unintelligible phrases to the boys)
James:	*I've got some chocolate and strawberry. I've got some vanilla. Good luck with them.* (James expresses to Shaun who is carrying sandpit buckets).
Shaun:	*Wait!* (a newly enrolled Khmer-speaking child brings Shaun a plate of sand and Shaun adds it to his own bucket)
James:	*There's lots more.*
Shaun:	(Shaun hands a Khmer-speaking peer an empty plate instructing…)
	Go go go! (Shaun flaps his arms gesturing to the younger peer)
Sarah:	*Shaun!* (Sarah calls out from a distance to Shaun with arms folded – see **Figure 5-16**)
Shaun:	*Huh? Kkk...* (speaking Khmer)
Sarah:	*Kkk...* (speaking Khmer)
Shaun:	*Kkk…* (speaking Khmer)
	(Shaun follows the English-speaking boys to the back of the sandpit).
Sarah:	*Hey!*
	(Sarah calls to Shaun while staying on the perimeter of the sandpit)
Shaun:	*Kkk…* (speaking Khmer)
	(It seems as if Shaun is explaining something to Sarah in Khmer while he points to the boys that he is following)
Sarah:	*Shaun!*
	(Sarah again appears to be trying to get Shaun's attention)
Shaun	*Kkk...* (speaking in Khmer)
	(It seems Shaun is explaining to Sarah why he needs to join the boys. He uses body language to gesture and show what is happening with the peers and the buckets).
	(Sarah now joins Shaun and the group in the sandpit)
	(Shaun and Sarah continue playing with others in the sandpit. Shaun gets a bucket and brings it to an English-speaking boy. He taps the boy's arm and points to the bucket)
Shaun:	*There!*
	(Shaun says to the boy before walking away to get more buckets).
James:	(noticing my camera) *Amy, look at how many bucket's we've got!*
James:	*One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine*
James:	*Hey! Come here* (James shouts to Shaun)
	One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen
	(Shaun continues counting the buckets)
Shaun:	*One, two, three, four, five, six, seven*

MOV 767

Appendix 11: Shaun speaks more and interrupts questions posed at Sarah

*Note: the **bolded section** highlight Shaun's interruptions and the transcript overall demonstrates Shaun's development of confidence in speaking English.

Henrietta:	*What is this?... Pumpkin..? Mou*? (she queries and waits for the children to fill in the word) *Mouse?* (*note: *'Shhh little mouse'* is the title of the story book Henrietta reads).
Shaun:	(repeats names) *Pumpkin* and *Mouse* after Henrietta.
Henrietta:	*Has this mouse got a long or a short tail?*
Shaun:	*Yeah*
Henrietta:	*Has this mouse got a long or a short tail?*
Shaun:	*Long*
Henrietta:	*Sarah look!* (Sarah is not talking). *Look...What's this one*?
Shaun:	***Watermelon* (interrupts Shaun).**
Henrietta:	*What are these called?*
Shaun:	*Ahhh*
Henrietta:	*What's the knife here for? (*Shaun demonstrates cutting with his hand but does not say the word, 'cutting')
Shaun:	*I do na eat apple. I lov this one.* (Shaun points to the bread)
Henrietta:	S*ay cutting*
Shaun:	*Cutting*
Henrietta:	*What happened?*
Shaun:	*Water coming*
Henrietta:	*What happened to the glass?* (Shaun shakes his head) *Did the glass break?*
	… (later in the discussion reading a book)
Henrietta:	(Points to the picture) *How do you think he's feeling Shaun?*
Shaun:	*Ahhh*
Henrietta:	*Is he happy, or sad, or cross?*
Shaun:	*sad (S*arah does not answer. When the story ends Sarah points to the toys behind on the shelf)
Henrietta:	*What's that Sarah? Is it toys? Sarah, what colour?*
Shaun:	***Yellow* (Shaun interrupts)**
Henrietta:	***Not your turn. It's Sarah's!***
	(Henrietta gives commentary as she is looking for the bears) *No he's smaller. I'm looking for the same one. This time I'm looking for the red one.*
Sarah:	*Wed one* (meaning 'red one')
Henrietta:	*What's this colour?*
Sarah:	*Bwoo* (meaning 'blue') (The children match the teacher's teddies by holding up the bear.)

(Audio 13 Feb)