

## ABSTRACT

Title of Document: **THREE YOUNG KOREAN CHILDREN'S  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN TWO  
AMERICAN PRESCHOOL CLASSROOMS**

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The purpose of this study was to examine the process of English language learning through social interactions in a preschool. Three Korean ELLs in two American preschool classrooms were observed over the course of one school year, and their interactions were analyzed using qualitative methods to describe and explain how their learning developed over time.

ELLs developed English skills using five types of actions and interactions. Non-communicative action (NCA), private speech (PS), Non-verbal communication (NVC), and Non-responses (NR) were used while ELLs became accustomed to their classroom routines and members. As the children understood routines and interactions, they employed verbal communication (VC) by access and initiation with the teachers and peers; descriptions and attention-getting were mostly used to communicate with others.

Three steps of language learning were identified: 1) children actively participated through observation and listening; 2) peer involvement or teachers scaffolding provided understanding and competence through reoccurring instructions and themes; 3) English competencies developed through everyday social interactions with other children. Joint-attention (Yawkey & Miller, 1984) or mutual involvement (Camoinoni, 1979) played a central role in maintaining interactions. For mutual involvement to occur, ELLs had to find cooperative and loyal peers. To build such friendships, ELLs had to use other-centered strategies at the beginning of the school year and become avid observers and active participants. Social relationships thus were essential to facilitate social interactions and shared understanding. Play types (cooperative, parallel, and solitary), selection of friends or play partners, and attitudes toward peers influenced friendship-building and the development of English language comprehensions.

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IN TWO AMERICAN PRESCHOOL CLASSROOMS

By

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

American classrooms have become culturally diverse and the number of English language learners (ELLs)<sup>1</sup> has increased because of the rapid growth in immigration. According to the 2000 United States Census, one in five persons speak a language other than English; consequently, a total of roughly 47 million people out of the population are reported to speak a language other than English at home. This figure represents a 14% increase over the preceding decade (Bureau of the Census, 2000). In Maryland, figures from the 2000 Census indicate that more than 600,000 residents speak a language other than English in the home. A survey by the National Foreign Language Center in Maryland found Spanish to be the most frequently used language other than English (62% of entities surveyed), with Russian (24%) and Korean (22%) as the next most frequent (Rivers, 2001).

Children whose primary language is not English face significant challenges in school. Foreign-born as well as American-born children may enter schools as ELLs.

Although born in America, many children hear only another language at home and in their neighborhoods during their early years. English is thus a new language when they enter school. There is an assumption that children, especially those younger than six years old, easily and quickly pick up a new language; however, Lake and Pappamihel (2003) suggest that it takes one or two years to become socially proficient, and five to eight years to be fully academically proficient. ELLs' inability to speak English might hinder interactions not only with teachers but also with peers,

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<sup>1</sup> ELLs is the term used to identify learners whose first language is other than English. The term ELL was developed to emphasize that children are in the process of learning English language rather than being labeled as having a deficiency (Lacelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994).

making it difficult to establish social relationships. Tabors (1997) found that preschoolers whose English was not good enough to communicate with English-speaking classmates were treated as if invisible. As a result, the ELLs declined either to initiate communication or attempt interactions with a group. In order to learn English, the learners must not only be socially accepted by those who speak the language, but also attain a comfort level (Tabors, 1997; Green & Harker, 1982). ELLs learn language through social interactions which occur between “self and others” (Cook-Gumperz & Corsaro, 1986, p. 2). Throughout this process, the children are both “socialized to use language” and “socialized through language” (Ochs, 1988, p.65).

Preschool is an important new context for academic skills as well as building social relationships with teachers and peers. Unlike most public schools which provide English as a Second Language (ESL) classes to help ELLs, many English-speaking preschools do not provide any systematic language assistance. Even Head Start and other early intervention programs rarely provide these services. Although the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) recommended (1996) a responsive learning environment, children who do not speak English often begin their first school experiences in settings with few non-English speakers, especially if their native language is anything other than Spanish.

ELLs in preschool are of great concern for teachers who do not speak or understand the children’s home language. With little training in how to create culturally or linguistically responsive learning environments, teachers often unknowingly exclude or reduce the time ELLs participate in literacy activities because features of their

discourse do not conform to teachers' expectations or match their speaking styles (McCullom, 1991). To address how early childhood educators might best support ELLs, more research needs to be done to study how children learn English in preschool settings. Understanding their experiences may contribute to their success in schools. When children develop appropriate linguistic and social competence in preschool years, they will be better prepared for elementary school entry (Pelletier & Brent, 2002).

As already noted, in Maryland, Korean is the third most prevalent foreign language. Korean student populations are steadily increasing in major metropolitan areas across the United States. There are two groups of Koreans in the United States: Korean immigrants – either first or second generation – and non-immigrant Koreans. The children of immigrants usually arrive in a new country accompanied by their parents. They and their family experience various adjustments, including language. The children of second-generation immigrants are typically in a bilingual setting, their home language and English. These children often experience using the official language in their early days in school. 75 percent of Korean descendants in the United States, approximately nine million children, aged five to seventeen years old speak Korean at home (Bureau of the United States Census, 2000) and their home language and culture are different outside their home (Jeon, 2008). The children of non-immigrant Koreans come to America with their parents; their parents come to America to study, to work, to serve a certain amount of time for the Korean government or Korean companies, but eventually return to Korea after a temporary

stay. Some non-immigrant Koreans may change their status when they obtain jobs or decide to live in the United States.

Studies of second language learning have shifted over time from a focus on learner's vocabulary and language formation to a more comprehensive understanding of social and cultural contexts particularly the role of interaction in second language development (Lantolf & Beckett 2009; Thorne, 2005; Lantolf, 2000; Oxford, 1997; Smilansky, 2000; Well, 1998). Researchers have looked at Vygotsky's theory as it applies to various aspects of second language learning. Within this theoretical framework, social interaction is considered a central part of the learning process. This perspective shows that humans gain meaning through social interactions between and among individuals, and the meaning is established and modified through an interpretive process (Blumer, 1969). The sociocultural perspective recognizes the need for cultural, social, and cognitive bridges between ELLs and their new environment.

My research was grounded in the sociocultural theoretical underpinnings of language socialization. From this perspective, learning is not only an internal process, but also a social practice that enables an individual to become a member of a specific social group through apprenticeship. Learners, as social beings, develop an ability to use language through social interactions with more knowledgeable people. Gradually, social language shapes the language of individuals. Learning is "appropriated" through ways in which the learners interact with more competent people, such as teachers, adults, and peers (Rogoff, 1990; Rogoff & Gutierrez, 2003). From this perspective, social interactions are crucial to learning a language. In the classroom,

teachers and peers “guide to participate” or “scaffold” (temporarily assist a less competent person until the learner is able to accomplish a task independently) language learning (Bruner, 1975; Rogoff, 1990; Rogoff & Gutierrez, 2003). The relationship between language socialization and the social construction of knowledge can be observed in the way people use language to negotiate and socialize others to their own particular understanding of what is considered appropriate action and interaction (Haworth, 2001).

The majority of research on second language learners and language socialization has focused on social and linguistic issues of primary and higher grade-level students (Fassel, 1998; Wong-Fillmore, 1983; Mondada & Doehler, 2004; Norton, 1997; Ohta, 1999; Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002; Willett, 1995). A few studies have addressed how social and linguistic processes occur in young ELLs in preschool classrooms (Clarke, 1998; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997). Similar stages of English learning were found in these studies; first, children speak their home language and then move to a silent period. Second, children learn English through applied formulaic speech that is learned from routines and conversations in the classrooms. Finally, they construct new sentences to communicate with others. Although these researchers examined the process of second language development, how ELLs’ social interactions within the classroom influence their English language development has not been thoroughly studied. An examination of how these processes occur in preschool contexts is needed to gain a more complete picture of young ELLs’ linguistic and social competence in dynamic and complex social situations. This information may help to develop strategies to better provide optimal



learning environments and identify the essential aspects of language socialization in preschool settings.

In this study, I focused on the children of Korean immigrants. Korean immigrant children might have been exposed to English through media and other social settings such as stores, museums, parks, etc. even though they speak Korean exclusively at home. Using a sociocultural approach as a participant observer, I observed daily social interactions to understand the development of language learning processes and social relationships. Comprehensive descriptions of interactional and discursive practices that occur and develop among members in two classrooms were gathered over one year of preschool. I investigated the language used in small group activities and play because communicative interactions and participation are generally required in these settings as well as in whole class activities to provide a holistic view of language learning. Specifically of interest is how ELLs learn English through social interactions and participation with teachers and peers in particular social contexts. Another focus was to examine the ways children who were labeled as ELLs became competent to use English as a language and were socialized into particular classroom cultures.

I used ethnographic methods to analyze and understand particular cultures and communities through description and interpretation (Atkinson, Coffey, & Delamont, 2007; Denzin, 1992; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Ethnography is valuable for understanding children's language learning as a social process (Atkinson & Hammersly, 1995) and the role of interactions in the social and cultural context because it addresses contextualized social processes that are difficult to understand by

experimental research. I used micro-ethnographic analysis<sup>2</sup> for this study to provide the descriptions necessary to detail how the Korean children develop linguistic and social competencies, and it illuminated rich and detailed data in context. This method was useful in guiding me toward a focus on the communication acts of ELLs and native-speaking students as well as teachers and ELLs during classroom interactions. This method involved in-depth observations of classroom activities, formal and informal interviews with children, teachers, and their parents, and a review of a collection of documents from children (e.g., drawings, printed materials). These data sources afforded researchers the opportunity to understand the whole picture of the particular culture of learning and teaching. As Hornberger (1994) has stated, “the approach allows us to ensure comparison and contrast between what people say and what people do in a given context and across contexts in order to arrive at a fuller representation of what is going on” (p. 688).

#### Definition of Terms

ELLs (English Language Learners): ELLs is the term used to identify learners whose first language is other than English. The term ELL was developed to emphasize that children are in the process of learning English rather than being labeled as having a deficiency (Lacelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994).

Communicative competences: The knowledge of linguistic and related communicative conventions that speakers must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation (Gumperz, 1986, p. 209).

Micro-ethnographic analysis: The study of face-to-face interaction in social settings involves consideration of relationships between parts and

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<sup>2</sup> The study of face-to-face interaction in social settings involves consideration of relationships between parts and the whole (Erickson, 1977).

the whole (Erickson, 1977).

Participant observation: The primary approach to data collection is ethnography. The researcher immerses herself in the culture-sharing group and becomes a participant within the setting (Creswell, 1998).

### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the English learning processes for preschool Korean ELLs through direct classroom observation in two English-speaking classrooms over the course of a year. I explored the relationships with teachers and peers and learning strategies used by ELLs. Micro-ethnographic analysis was used to identify and describe the social structures, classroom organization, peer relationships, and instructional events for learning English for these young Korean children in an America classroom. Three primary questions guided the research:

*1. How do young Korean children learn English in the preschool classroom?*

This question involved a study, through participant observations, of the contexts of actions and interactions among the members in the two classrooms. I observed the processes of English language learning among three Korean ELLs.

*2. How do preschool children use social relationships to learn English?*

This question involved probing the relationships between teachers and ELLs, as well as between ELLs and peers, in learning English. I attempted to understand how their social relationships influenced their learning English.

*3. What learning strategies were used to learn English?*

This question involved an examination of the learning strategies used to learn English through social interactions and participation. I learned how specific strategies were used to communicate and participate in classroom interactions.



## **Chapter 2: Review of the Literature**

In this chapter, I review sociocultural perspectives on language socialization to understand how social interactions support second-language learning (Atkinson, 2002; Lantolf & Beckett, 2009; Ochs, 1988; Rogoff & Gutierrez, 2003; Thorne, 2005; Vygotsky, 1987). Also, I review the literature on ELLs' second language acquisition in early childhood and how their relationship with teachers and peers influence English language learning. Finally, learning strategies that are used by second language learners are reviewed to understand what characteristics make some learners more successful than others in second language learning.

### **English Language Learners in Early Childhood: A Sociocultural Theoretical Framework**

The number of children who have culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds increases continually in schools in the United States. They are from Latin America, South Asia, Eastern Europe, and other non-English speaking countries and enter American schools as English language learners (ELLs). Handsomebe (1989) identified four major groups of ELLs: immigrants, refugees, international students, and second-generation immigrants. Immigrants usually arrive in a new country accompanied by their parents. Refugees come to a new country because of serious political conflict. International students come to a new country in order to attend schools and universities. Second-generation immigrants are already in the bilingual setting, where their home language and English are spoken.

Although the United States Census has not separately counted young English learners under age five, 27% of children enrolled in Head Start during the period of

2002 to 2003 were identified as ELLs (Espinosa, 2008). The majority of the children are Spanish-speaking children although 139 other-languages were reported.

It is assumed that preschool-aged children learn English quickly without any systematic teaching. However, the speed of language acquisition is influenced by parent and teacher involvement and individual differences, such as the child's personality, aptitude for language, interest and motivation and their varied fluency (Dirk, 2007; Hisio & Oxford, 2002; Karasoglu, 2009; Saville-Troike, 1988; Strong, 1983; Wong-Fillmore, 1979, 1983).

### Sociocultural Perspectives on Second Language Learning

#### *Language Socialization from a Sociocultural Perspective*

From a sociocultural perspective, language is socially constructed and acquired through face-to face-interaction in a particular social context. Children and other novices acquire information about social norms and cultural practices through participation in social interactions (Gumperz, 1983; Mary, 2005; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995; Watson-Geogeo, 2004; Wertsch, 2008). Saville-Troike (1984) stresses the importance of social interaction in language acquisition, emphasizing that language acquisition is a social process as well as a cognitive process. For example, children learn the appropriate language through frequent imitation and repetition with others in their social contexts, such as greetings (e.g., "Hello," "Good bye") and social rules ("Use your word instead of hitting," "Wait until your turn").

Vygotsky (1981) claimed that learning is mediated first on the interpsychological plane between one person and other people, and then appropriated

by individuals on the intrapsychological plane in a process known as scaffolding (Bruner, 1975). Children learn language through social interactions with more capable speakers such as mothers, caregivers, teachers, and peers in their everyday routines; they learn how to interact with others and act appropriately in contextual ways, involving collaboration, and construct jointly shared understandings of the activity with more knowledgeable people during the process of interaction. The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is at the heart of the concept of scaffolding (Berk, 2002; McDevitt & Ormrod 2002). The ZPD is “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 86). Scaffolding is “a form of support for development and learning of children and young people” (Rasmussen, 2001, p 570).

An adult or more competent peer not only helps the child by “scaffolding” learning, but also encourages the child to have responsibility and independence as the assistance fades from an activity (also called a task). Scaffolding creates situations where children can extend their current skills and knowledge. Finally, children on the intrapsychological plane have the ability to control their own activity without the direction of others. Thus, learning is internalized, moving from other-regulated to self-regulated; children become appropriately knowledgeable during social interactions and then are able to obtain new knowledge as their own (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Goos, Galbraith, & Renshaw, 2002).

Classroom communicative competence is essential for second-language learners to participate in and learn from their second-language classroom experiences. Hymn (1972) defines communicative competence as “the ability to convey meaning to successfully combine knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic rules in communicative interactions” (Savignon, 1983, p. v.). Saville- Troike (1984) views communicative competence as “not only rules for communication (linguistically and sociolinguistically) and shared rules for interaction, but also the cultural rules and knowledge that are the basis for context and content of communicative events and interaction process” (p. 3). According to Savignon (1983), linguistic competence is grammatical competence, whereas sociolinguistic competence refers to knowledge of sociocultural rules and discourse use (e.g., topics, role of participants, and norms of interactions). Hymes (1972b) points out that competence in a language includes not only knowledge of the rules of “when to speak, when not ...but what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner” (p. 277). Hymes emphasized that language cannot be taught in isolation from the social contexts in which it is performed. Wells (1981) states that communicative competence is accomplished interactionally as ELLs engage in joint activities of various kinds of collaborative, non-directive and learner-orientated contexts that lead to the most successful language development. Children learn the interactional knowledge which helps them to collaborate, develop discourse and maintain conversational involvement “by allowing them to participate in conversations despite their inadequacies” (Krashen, 1982, p. 77).



Thus, language learning involves a complex chain of dynamic and cumulative processes: through social interaction, learners are exposed to the language, engage with it and “notice” (p. 53) language items (Van Lier, 1996b). Since a classroom curriculum driven by social interaction and activities provides learners with exposure to proficiency and offers optimal conditions for learning (Johnson, 1995; Van Lier, 1996b; Ellis, 2003), learners engage with the language and they may achieve proficiency if they have opportunities for practice. In this way, ELLs not only successfully participate in classroom activities, but also become communicatively competent in the second language (Richard, 1995).

#### *Private Speech and Inner Speech in Language Learning*

In order to understand the process of language development, it is important to recognize how individuals develop their speech over time. From a sociocultural perspective, children first use and learn language through imitation and observation. Vygotsky viewed imitation as an active process where social interaction occurs: “While imitating their elders in culturally patterned activities, children generate opportunities for intellectual development” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 129). Children will internalize, through imitation, the language and actions of adults and more capable peers; it is, thus, through imitation that children will join the cultural community. It is through dialogues that children appropriate words, listening to others speak to them, and in so doing appropriate the concepts of the culture (Ushakova, 1994). The speech acquired from interactions with others is used by learners to verbally regulate their own behaviors. Private speech, speech for oneself, is believed to regulate an individual’s own actions and thinking processes (Appel & Lantlof, 1994; Lantlof,

2000a; Lantolf & Beckett, 2009; Throne, 2005; Winsler, 2000). In *Thinking and Speech* (1987), Vygotsky observed that:

Speech for oneself has its source in a differentiation of an initially social function; a differentiation of speech for others ... it is not an accompaniment of the child's activity. It is an independent melody or function that facilitates intellectual orientation, conscious awareness, the overcoming of difficulties and impediments, and imagination and thinking. It is speech for oneself, a speech function that intimately serves the child's thinking (p. 259).

Private speech is oral language spoken aloud by children that is not intended for communicative interaction with another, but for dialogue with the self in order to guide private thought processes and behavior during cognitively demanding activities (Vygotsky, 1986).

Researchers have found that children aged from three-to-five years typically use audible private speech when they play alone; even young children tend to talk to themselves as a means to direct their own attention and behavior. At around age seven this overt, private speech for oneself is transformed into covert, inner speech such as whispering, inaudible muttering, and silent lip movements (Berk & Garvin, 1984; Berk & Landau, 1993; Winsler, 2000). In other words, children's private speech becomes more inaudible and abbreviated with age. When children or adults engage in familiar and simple activities, they usually do so without talking, but faced with difficult tasks, they may whisper or talk aloud to themselves. Private speech occasionally reemerges when the learners face particularly difficult and complex mental tasks (Berk 1992; Berk & Garvin, 1984; Vygotsky, 1986, p. 230). For example, elementary school children use private speech in cognitively challenging situations (Berk & Garvin, 1984; Berk & Landau, 1993).

Private speech in ELLs has been shown to follow the same pattern as private speech in native-speakers (Ohta, 2001; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997). In the process of second-language learning, private speech is regarded as a component of the internalization process for both children and adults. Internalization is the process by which second-language learners gradually become interactive and participate more independently in interactive settings (Ohta, 2001). That is, ELLs first acquire the target language through participation with others in the classroom or community. The language (words, phrases) is then practiced privately, using techniques such as imitation and repetition in order to later use them in social interaction. Finally, ELLs interact with others in the classroom or community without imitation or repetition, because they are able to create the language on their own through the internalized processes.

Researchers have identified and explored the different types of private speech such as repetition, rehearsals, and manipulation (DeCamilla & Anton, 2004; Ohta, 2001; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997). Repetition is the most common type of private speech found in second-language learners, based upon models provided by classmates and teachers. Saville-Troike (1988) observed that young children aged three-to-five years repeat words or phrases at the end of an utterance because young children are limited to repeating the last word. On the other hand, older children may repeat a sentence, phrase or salient word. Children use repetition as a part of the rehearsal process. For example, a child might covertly repeat the word “stop” when heard from a native-speaking classmate during free-play time and then use the word later in an appropriate situation (Tabors, 1997).

Furthermore, ELLs not only repeat the words or phrases that they hear, but also manipulate them “to play with the sounds of particular words, or to break down or build up compound words” (Ohta, 2001, p. 242). In a study by Saville-Troike (1988), a five-year-old child constructed the following expressions: “I finished,” “I have finished,” “I am finished,” “I’m finished,” (p. 585) ”Yuck yuck scoop,” “Scoop scoop youck,” “Yucky-yucky yucky-yucky” (p. 583). However, the use of private speech is different based on individual learning characteristics and learning environments (Wong-Fillmore, 1979; Ohta, 2001).

### *Language Learning in Interactional Routines*

There is a general consensus that interactional routines facilitate language learning when children participate in social interactions. Peters and Boggs define an interactional routine as “a sequence of exchanges in which one speaker’s utterance, accompanied by appropriate nonverbal behavior, calls forth one of a limited set of responses by one or more other participants” (1986, p. 81). They point out that interactional routines are structured predictably, even when they are not formulaic, because the contents are consistent from routine to routine. More formulaic routines, such as greetings, have particular contents, processes, and linguistic forms. Less formulaic routines vary widely in terms of content.

Children can understand and develop their social roles and linguistic information through participation in the routines. These routines provide opportunities of language learning as well as predictability for the learners. “Specific configurations of time, place, participants and goals tend to recur, leading the child to expect particular verbal and non-verbal behaviors” (Peters and Boggs, 1986, p. 84).

Nelson (1989) notes that a child's first attempts at communication take place in routinized interactional contexts. For example, play and interaction between mother and child become everyday routines and these routines provide a predictable interactive environment. Everyday routines allow children to learn language as well as social norms through predictable sequences and repetition. Studies of Anglo-American children show that children acquire the social norms and functional uses of language and are able to mimic them in appropriate social contexts as early as age four (Andersen, 1986). Furthermore, they are able to adjust their language to appropriately conform to the linguistic and interactional rules of the social group. That is, children embed not only linguistic information, but also cultural concepts through repeated routines (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Willet, 1995; Atkinson, 2002). In a study of five-to-seven-year-old Spanish-speaking children who were learning English as a second language, Wong-Fillmore (1979) found that the children first used formulaic expressions which they learned through frequent repetition and memorization. A child, Nora, later modified and developed the formulaic frames "How do you do dese?" in the situations with variations, such as "How do you do dese little totillas?" and "How do you make the flower?," until she was freed from her dependence on formulaic speech. Young ELLs quickly learn formulaic expressions, such as "Excuse me," "I don't know," "Stop," and "Be careful," when interacting with native English-speaking children (Tabors, 1997). Wong-Fillmore (1976) noted that "the child makes the greatest use of what he has learned, and in early part of the acquisition period what he has learned is largely formulaic" (p. 654).

Ohta (1999, 2001) identifies the stages of an interactional routine. First, children participate minimally and observe what is going on in the classroom in order to learn a new routine, but more actively participate in the presence of adult scaffolding. In this process, children develop a basic understanding of the function of the routine. Through repeated participation, they are able to anticipate how the routine is likely to evolve, and participate more and more actively. Second, participation in the routine expands to a wider variety of contexts. Through broader participation, children understand the deeper meanings associated with the routine and the roles. Third, children are able to use the routine more independently, expanding the routine, and using it for individual goals. Through this process of social interaction, what was initially a routine used by others becomes an integral part of the children (Wertsch, 1985; Murphey, 2001).

Consistent routines, such as small-group activities, snack time, and clean up, may help ELLs understand and acquire the language associated with the routines. Wong-Fillmore (1982) and Kachru (1990) found that ELLs learned English that was frequently exposed to them through repeated words and activities such as book reading, thus becoming acclimated to key vocabulary and events through routines (Palinscar, 1986).

In conclusion, children learn interactional routines first by learning how to participate in a part of a routine and, then, by acquiring all parts of the routine (Peters & Boggs, 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Margaret, 2001). Mehan (1979) suggests that “students need to know with whom, when, and where they can speak and act they must have speech and behavior that are appropriate for classroom situations and they

must be able to interpret implicit classroom rules” (p. 70). ELLs must acquire classroom routines through full participation in classroom activities that require competence in both the social and interactional aspects of a classroom language. They become competent to interact with classroom members, not only with teachers, but also with peers, through repetitive interactional routines.

### *Patterns of Learning English in Early Childhood*

Researchers have studied English learning in young children with different home languages across varying contexts such as home and school (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Hakuta, 1974; Huang & Hatch, 1976; Shao, 2005; Wong-Fillmore, 1976, 1979). Clarke (1999), Saville-Troike (1988, 2006), Schmitte and Carter (2004) and Tabors (1997) observed young children in a classroom. They found similar developmental sequences of second language acquisition: 1) children continue to use the home language, 2) children are nonverbal, 3) children use telegraphic and formulaic speech patterns, and 4) children use productive speech.

In the first stage (home language use), the children spoke their home language, although their teachers and peers did not understand them. Saville-Troike called this “dilingual discourse (use of mutually incomprehensible language between participants in social interaction)” (Tabors, 1997; Saville-Troike, 1988, 2006), but Clarke did not mention this stage in her observation.

In the second stage (nonverbal period), the children no longer spoke the home language when they realized English-speaking children did not understand them. However, they spoke the home language to those who spoke the same home language. They attempted to communicate with teachers and peers, using various

nonverbal expressions, such as using gestures, facial expressions, and objects (Clarke, 1999; McCafferty, 2002; Tabors, 1997; Saville-Troike, 1988, 2006). At the same time, the children repeated words and phrases that they heard from English-speaking teachers and peers in the classroom.

The children began to speak simple forms of English in order to interact with other classroom members in the third stage (use of telegraphic and formulaic speech). Children used telegraphic speech to speak a few content words in order to express whole thoughts (e.g., “That” instead of “I want that”). At the same time, the children used unanalyzed chunks or formulaic phrases in contexts in which they learned from other English-speaking teachers and peers (Ellis, 2002; Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Wood, 2009). Saville-Troike (1988) found that the children used simple forms in their conversations and Tabors (1997) also observed that children used formulaic speech to engage others in their play, such as “Stop! Stop!” and “Look it” in appropriate situations. This formulaic speech contributes directly and indirectly to produce novel sentences, known as productive speech (Ellis, 1983; 2002). It was noted that children in this stage attempted to initiate conversations with English-speaking teachers and peers and to respond to them.

In the fourth stage (use of productive speech), children started to create their own phrases and sentences. Initially, they used simple patterns (e.g., “I wanna play”), but at this stage, they have the “ability of the learners to make English the main carrier for their interactions” (Clarke, 1999 p. 24). Children’s English developed while they created new phrases and sentences through making mistakes and through communicating with others (Schmitt & Conklin, 2006).



### *Functional Analysis of Conversation*

Clarke (1999), Saville-Troike (1988) and Tabors (1997) showed how preschool-aged children develop their English learning through sequential stages. However, little research has been conducted on how children choose specific words and expressions to communicate and socialize with others. To understand how children communicated verbally with other members, in my research, their conversations were analyzed and categorized.

Researchers looking at first language acquisition have studied the language functions or conversational acts to identify how they are used by young children. Dore (1979) observed nursery school children and categorized their conversational acts (See Appendix A). I adapted and modified Dore's categorization in order to include other categories that I found in my study. Thus, I did not try to force them into a specific pre-defined set of functional categories (Ervin-Tripp, 2000). The analysis of language functions helps to understand ways in which children interacted with others, such as attention-getting, protest, or description, choice of specific words that they utilized in their social contexts, and how these functions changed as their English learning progressed.

### *Social Relationships and Learning English*

Classroom members, both teachers and peers, play an important role in the development of ELLs' learning. Teachers are important because they facilitate children's development cognitively, emotionally, socially, and physically. Teacher's attitudes and classroom environments may influence the children's learning English. In the same vein, peer relationships also might influence the children's learning

English because children play and interact with each other and build friendships most of the time in school.

### *Collaboration with Teachers and Peers*

The sociocultural perspective on language learning emphasizes the interdependence of social and individual processes as a natural part of an individual's development (Scinto, 1986). Vygotsky stated that children are better able to learn and develop in the presence of others:

Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when a child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement (1978, p.90).

It has been shown that scaffolding the child according to his or her level in development results in the development of independent participation in the activity. Scaffolding is the process through which a learner independently achieves a goal or solves a problem with the assistance of a teacher or peer. A number of researchers have studied the processes through which learners and more knowledgeable adults or peers collaborate through interaction (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Gibson, 2002; Oxford, 1997; Well, 1998; Wood, 1976).

Gumperz and Gumperz (1982) point out that an understanding of the communicative context of the classroom is crucial in order to enhance the process of conversational experience and to increase communicative competence. Communicative competence is acquired through face-to-face interactions between teacher and student and is embedded within a context of the classroom. Mehan (1979) observed that "while teacher-directed lessons are dominated by the elicitation of

information, peer instruction is characterized by the giving and receiving of information. While the teacher relies on verbal modality to a great extent, students demonstrate their instructions, cooperatively complementing tasks together” (p. 200). The classroom is an interactional context in which teachers and students share knowledge, language, and culture; the teacher provides various activities based on different student interests as well as encouraging student regulation by both teachers and other students. Language proficiency can be learned, therefore, through participation and collaboration. The dynamics of collaboration and the interdependence of individual and social processes are crucial to becoming a successful language learner (Ellis, 1983).

#### *Teachers’ Role*

Cazden (1983) suggested three ways for teachers to assist children’s language development: scaffold, model, and direct instructions (e.g., “Say bye”). Thus, teacher’s scaffolding using various techniques may help ELLs to understand the context and to understand English. Teachers’ use of contextual clues and speaking about what is happening in the classroom at the children’s understanding level fosters learning English (Ovando & Collier, 1985). When speaking in short sentences, speaking slowly, repeating the same words through rephrasing, and corrections are provided ELLs, they are more likely to comprehend and copy the messages (Ovando & Collier, 1985; Snow & Ferguson, 1977).

Genishi, Dyson, and Fassler (1994) showed that teachers were able to improve language learning by deliberately introducing a variety of social contexts such as structured activities and routines in order to help them learn different kinds of

discourse and genre. Peaze-Alvarez, Garcia, and Espinosa (1991) found that bilingual teachers working with school-aged children used four successful instructional strategies: 1) they focus on learning that is meaningful to the children rather than a skill-oriented approach, 2) they provide many opportunities for hands-on activities in teaching math, science, and literacy, 3) they promote collaborative interactions with heterogeneous groups daily, and 4) they provide community-like or family-like environments in which the children trust and care for each other.

Wong-Fillmore (1982) studied four kindergarten classrooms that were structured as either child-centered or teacher-directed. One of the two child-centered classrooms provided activities in one or the other language, and the non-English speaking children had opportunities to interact with English-speaking children. Most of the children in this classroom had improved their English ability. In the other child-centered classroom, the non-English speaking children were provided the options of using their primary language for classroom activities and interacting with English-speakers. Almost 40% of the non-English speaking children learned very little English. In the two teacher-centered classrooms, the teacher in one of the classrooms translated all classroom teaching and interactions and 40% of the non-English speaking children learned no English. The teacher in the other teacher-centered classroom used English and Spanish consistently in order to offer the children the opportunity to learn both languages. All non-English speaking children in this classroom learned adequate English skills. Wong-Fillmore concluded that English was improved when the learners interacted more with English-speaking children. Garcia (1983) pointed out that ELLs will be more successful language

learners when they play an active role in their language learning in the student-centered curriculum.

Positive relationships and classroom organization foster ELLs' language learning. According to Howes and Ritch (2002), classroom organization characteristics such as predictable routines, stability of teachers, cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and small group instructions help ELLs foster positive relationships. Also, a teacher's individualized attention, consistency, sensitivity to children's emotional needs, and supporting children's positive behavior help ELLs develop positive relationship with teachers.

In Gillanders' (2007) study, an English-speaking pre-kindergarten teacher of Latino children developed strategies to build positive relationships. The teacher provided predictable and consistent classroom activities, such as reading stories everyday, teaching songs, poetry, and certain vocabularies as well as sending books home each week to encourage parents to read both in English and Spanish. At the end of the school year, the children showed progress in English and Spanish. I'm not sure how this encouraged positive relationships.

Teacher experiences with ELLs and educational training can facilitate English learning, providing for the children's individual needs and scaffolding the ELLs' development (Clarke, 1999; Saville-Troike, 1988). For example, in the Savill-Troike study, a more experienced teacher was able to interpret a Chinese-speaking child from his facial expression, gestures, and tone of voice more than a less experienced teacher. Also, Clarke found an experienced teacher with ELLs assisted an ELL who was more reluctant to interact with others as she encouraged him to participate in

activities, attempting various methods. Because of the importance of teacher-child relationships, Wong-Fillmore and Snow (2000) suggest effective teacher training that focuses on how the teacher-child relationships should be developed.

### *Peers' Role*

Some researchers have observed that collaboration between ELLs and native-speaker partners increases second-language acquisition (Dickson, 1986; Hruska, 2000; Joyce, 1997; Orth, 2001; Wong-Fillmore, 1986). The more that the language learners interact with English-speaking classmates who provide appropriate language input, the easier it is for them to learn English (Hruska, 2000; Wong-Fillmore, 1986). In addition, children (native speakers) are ready to help other children (ELLs) from an early age (Kohn, 1991). Hirschler (1994) studied the role of native speakers in social interactions with ELLs in a preschool classroom and found that children can develop strategies specifically designed to support language learning.

Interactions between ELLs and other ELLs can also be effective. An increase in the frequency of interaction between ELLs and ELLs and the frequency of cooperative small group activities in classrooms increases the acquisition rate of English (Fassler, 1998; Gass & Varonis 1985; Pica, 1998; Porter, 1986). According to Porter (1986), ELLs talk significantly more to ELLs than to a teacher, when given the opportunity. ELLs produced more talk with ELLs than with native-speaking partners. Although ELLs cannot provide each other with the accurate grammatical and sociolinguistic input that native speakers can, ELLs can offer each other communicative practice, including negotiation for meaning. For example, the

frequencies of routines that are not understood in learner-learner talk make ELLs negotiate the intended meanings and provide more learning opportunities.

Gass and Varonis (1985) also found that most prevalent conversational interaction between non-native speakers and non-native speakers is the negotiation of meaning. This provides them with practice in developing language skills. It provides non-native speakers with an opportunity to receive input which they have made comprehensible through negotiation. In such a setting, non-native speakers use various forms of “nurturing, negotiating, persuading, arguing, and questioning” (Fassler, 1998, p. 403). Fassler found the kindergarteners (eight different languages) in an ESL (English as a second language) kindergarten used various strategies such as gestures, code switching, and rephrasing when interacting with other ELLs.

Collaboration with each other helped them learn and teach English to one another and extend conversations. It is argued that this type of interaction facilitates the second-language acquisition process. Pica (1998) concluded that “for many L2 learners [second language] ... opportunities for either extensive or wide-ranging interaction with NSs [native speakers] is all too infrequent and often simply impossible ... language learners are frequently and increasingly each other’s resource for language learning” (p. 60).

Finally, the second language learning between same-language peers was studied. Dixon and Fraser (1986) observed that the children who came from the same cultural backgrounds relied on each other in the beginning of school; “the small tight groups of the children from the same culture that had formed at the beginning of the year remained intact for the first few month” (p. 167). Also, Meyer, Klein and

Genishi (1994) found similar results for four Korean girls. Initially, they relied on each other for participating in activities and play. The girls finally initiated conversation and interacted with non-Korean-speaking children. Thompson (1994) suggests that ELLs have to learn to be communicatively competent although they do not understand the dominant language. According to Hartup (1983), peer-peer interactions are more difficult than adult-child interactions. Adults provide substantial conversation supports, but peer partners show greater conversational challenges than adult partners. Therefore, teachers need to provide social interactions with ELLs and help them move to peers when they become communicatively and socially competent.

### *Play, Friendship and Social Acceptance*

In a preschool setting, social interactions occur more with peers rather than with teachers. Preschools provide the learning environments where children explore the world around them and understand others through play. To understand how ELLs develop their English learning, their play and relationships with their peers are reviewed. However, there is little research on play and second language learning or on forms of friendship or social acceptance between ELLs and peers.

### *Play*

The sociocultural perspective emphasizes the importance of play for development (Mooney, 2000; Berk, 1992). Vygotsky (1966) viewed play as “the leading source of development in the preschool period” (p. 6). Children develop abstract thoughts while they engage in play and create imaginary situations. A lot of research supports the idea that social pretend play promotes language development (Gallagher, 1991; Nelson & Seidman 1984; Rice, 1993), social interactions (Bunce &



Watkins, 1995; Odom & Strain, 1984), and social skills (Rice, 1993; Oxford, 2002).

Most social interactions occur during play when children share their ideas, experiences, conversations, and learning (Oxford, 2002).

Garvey (1996) points out that for children to be able to participate in and sustain play they: 1) must be able to distinguish the boundaries of reality and play; 2) should be able to understand abstract general procedural rules and rule guiding behavior in specific situations such as taking turns and appropriate role behaviors; and 3) need to be able to co-construct the play theme through interaction. Yawkey and Miller (1984) also found “joint activity” and “joint attention” as important variables to maintain interactions during play. Play has a vital role in language development because play and language are closely linked to each other and play gives an opportunity for social interaction; “children’s play often contains language that is highly predictable, repetitious, and well contextualized” (Lindfors, 1987 p. 210).

Smilansky (1968, 1990) investigated the effect of sociodramatic play on disadvantaged preschool children. She found these children lacked the experiences of and techniques for play and concluded that sociodramatic play may be a benefit of their language development in terms of producing more play-related talk, rich vocabulary and longer sentences. In addition, Levy (1986) found that play contributed to language and cognitive development in children by stimulating innovation in language, introducing and clarifying new words and concepts, facilitating language use and practice, developing meta-linguistic awareness, and encouraging verbal thinking. Therefore, children can promote cognitive, social, and language

development in a rich environment for play. However, all types of play do not contribute equally to development. Constructive and sociodramatic play have been positively correlated with certain cognitive and social variables, whereas gross motor play and non-social dramatic play have not (Johnson & Newport, 1987).

Many researchers developed scales to measure children's play in order to identify the impact of children's play on cognitive and social development (Ginsburg, 2007; Parten, 1971; Rubin & Coplan, 1998; Smilansky, 1968, 1990; Howes, 1980, 2000). Parten (1971) developed a taxonomy with four levels of social participation in play: solitary play (playing alone), parallel play (playing beside another child, but without interaction), associative play (playing with other children with common activity, but without a specific goal or roles), and cooperative play (playing with others and sharing a common goal and roles). Smilansky (1968) identified four stages of play development: functional play involving simple muscular activities, constructive play involving creative use of play materials, dramatic or symbolic play involving imitative role play, and games with rules. Howes (1980) measured social behavior across five categories: simple parallel play, parallel play with mutual regard, simple social play, complementary/reciprocal play with mutual awareness, and complementary/reciprocal social play.

Some researchers have found that play materials may also have an impact on social interactions (Rubin et al, 1983; Wong-Fillmore, 1976). Rubin, Fein, & Vandenberg (1983) claimed that water, play-dough, and sand play resulted in a higher percentage of solitary or parallel play rather than associative or cooperative play. On the other hand, Wong-Fillmore found that play-dough to be "the thing that

consistently elicited verbal behavior” (p. 167). In addition, large muscle play promotes more social interaction (Anita & Li, 1984; Vandenberg, 1981) and pretend play or play in the sociodramatic area support more social interaction than art or block play (Hanline, Milton, & Phelps, 2000; Pellegrin & Perlmutter, 1989).

### *Friendship and Social Acceptance*

There are numerous studies on social skills in preschool children (Gottman 1981; Howes, 1988; Ladd, 2007), however, little is known about the relationship between social skills and second language learning. Two types of peer relationships, friendship and peer acceptance, often dominate in preschool (Ladd & Coleman, 1993; Ladd, 2007). Friendship is a dyadic relationship between peers, while peer acceptance is the degree of acceptance and rejection that is experienced from members of a social group (Ladd, 2007).

Rogers and Ross (1986) identified several important factors essential to social competence in preschoolers: the ability to make a friend, to persuade a peer to accept their ideas, to relate to peers, to share materials, to protect their rights, and to solve problems without undue conflicts. In studies of socially competent children, those who demonstrated an ability to solve problems in an appropriate way were perceived positively by others (Asher, Oden, & Gottman, 1977) and socially withdrawn children, more than socially competent children, were more likely to suggest teacher intervention when they faced social difficulty (Rubin, 1982).

More popular children were found to develop strategies to meet not only their own needs but also those of others in their group (Rogers & Ross, 1986). Less popular children were frequently found to meet their own needs, but could not predict the

reaction of others in the group and acted accordingly (Balter, Susan, & Lemonda, 2006; Putallaz & Gottman, 1982; Rogers & Ross, 1986). Unpopular children often directed conversation and action toward themselves rather than finding a way to integrate with other children in the group (Rogers & Ross, 1986). Rejected children were more likely to be ignored by other children when they entered the room and more likely to call attention to themselves (Putallaz & Gottman, 1982). Putallaz and Gottman found that the socially incompetent child wandered about, hovered over other children and was unoccupied more of the time.

Hatch (1990) found that rejected children demonstrated three components of social incompetence: aggression, teasing, and contact incompetence (unable to respond appropriately in social interactions). Rejected children were more likely excluded from their peers because they were more aggressive, teased others, and ignored peers attempting social contacts. Peer rejection was quite stable over time and across the peer group (Howes, 1988, 2000).

Children's positive social behavior is correlated with peer acceptance, but negative behavior is correlated with peer rejection (Ladd & Coleman, 1993). Dodge observed how unacquainted elementary school children formed small play groups, and found that the boys who were popular had a high rate of social conversation, cooperative play, and very little aggression. Boys who were rejected by peers had disruptive and inappropriate behavior, such as hitting and hostile verbalizations (1983). In another study of peer acceptance, Coie & Kupersmidt (1983) found that unpopular boys were hostile and aggressive in their interactions and were viewed as troublemakers.

Gerther and his colleagues, (1994) compared three different groups of children: children with normally developing language skills (ND), children with speech or language impairments (SLI), and children learning English as second language (ESL). Children in the ND group were selected as nominated peers more often, while children in the two other groups were nominated less often in peer friendships. The author suggested that language barriers might be a factor. Howes (1988) points out that:

Children's linguistic competence may play a central role in establishing social acceptance. There are various reasons why children are not accepted by their peers. One reason may be that they are unable to use language effectively. Preschool children use their communication competence to make friends. Thus, if children exhibit poor communication competence, they will often be denied access to their peer group (p. 132).

In conclusion, play with peers promotes social interactions and social relationships through development of friendships and peer acceptance.

### Learning Strategies

Second language researchers have studied the learning strategies of successful language learners. Wenden and Rubin (1987) defined learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 19). Richards and Platt (1992) state that learning strategies are "intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information" (p. 209).

Researchers have noted that a number of factors influence a learner's choice of strategies. According to Izzo (1981), such factors can be grouped into three broad

categories: personal (age, psychological traits, attitudes, motivation, learning strategies), situational (setting, instructional approaches, teacher characteristics), and linguistic (difference between the first and second languages with respect to such features as pronunciation, grammar, discourse patterns). Some of these factors involve the social context, such as the classroom and interaction in the community with native speakers, while others are more closely connected to the actual process of language learning.

A number of studies have examined the social and cognitive strategies employed in learning a second language (Dirk, 2007; Hisio & Oxford, 2002; Karasoglu, 2009; Saville-Troike, 1988; Strong, 1983; Wong-Fillmore, 1979, 1983). Gardner and Masgoret (2003) emphasize the social conditions under which the second language is learned. Individual differences (the role of intelligence, language, aptitude, motivation, learning anxiety) can interact with social conditions and instructional factors, resulting in different learning outcomes. McLaughlin (1987) describes the acquisition process from a cognitive perspective. Language learning is the acquisition of complex cognitive skills and must be practiced until those skills are automatized as learners gain control over selecting appropriate vocabulary and grammatical rules in different situations.

In Wong-Fillmore's (1979) study of second-language learning processes, she argued that successful learners appear to use both social and cognitive strategies. The initial task in second-language acquisition is to master a set of 'social strategies' so that contact and input become possible. She identifies three social strategies and

connects them to a set of five cognitive strategies that allow the language learner to make progress:

Social strategies are (a) join a group and act as if you understand what's going on, even if you don't; (b) give the impression - with a few well-chosen words - that you can speak the language; and (c) count on your friends for help. On the other hand, cognitive strategies are (a) assume that what people are saying is directly relevant to the situation at hand, or to what they or you are experiencing. Guess!; (b) get some expressions you understand and start talking; (c) look for recurring parts in the formulas you know; (d) make the most of what you've got; and (e) work on the big things first; save the details for later (p. 209).

The different strategies used by children anticipate individual differences in the success of second-language learning. Wong-Fillmore attributed these individual differences to “the nature of the task, the set of strategies they needed to apply in dealing with it, and the way certain personal characteristics such as language habits, motivations, social needs and habitual approaches to problems affected the way they attacked it” (p. 220). From this perspective, learning strategies are a set of social and cognitive strategies that control the way in which children will interact with the target language.

Individual characteristics of the learner, such as shyness or talkativeness, serve as a type of filter for supporting language learning. Strong (1983) found that more talkative and outgoing children learned faster than quiet and reserved children. On the other hand, in a study of five Spanish-speaking children learning English, Wong-Fillmore (1983) observed two strategies at work, those of “producer” and “observer.” Some children were mainly using the first and others were mainly using the second. She expected the more sociable, outgoing, and talkative children to be the more effective second language learners; however, it appeared that the observer

strategy can be just as effective in second-language learning as the first. A child also actively participates in language situations by listening and observing attentively. She concluded that “there is no single way to characterize either the good or the poor learners” (p. 61).

In contrast to Wong-Fillmore (1983), Saville-Troike (1988) found that learners characterized as inner-directed had an advantage in language learning were compared to interpersonal learners. Interpersonal learners attempt to communicate with native speakers using all means, including non-verbal interactions, such as facial expressions and gestures. On the other hand, inner-directed learners are more reflective and avoid initiating interaction with native speakers. When they communicate with native speakers, however, inner-directed learners use more complex utterances than interpersonal learners. She concluded that inner-directed learners are more successful language learners than interpersonal learners. Regardless of the characteristics of learners (either “producer” or “observer”), active participation driven by the children’s needs and desires to communicate is essential in learning English (Garton & Pratt, 1998; Richard, 1995). Fillmore (1983) emphasized that active observation and listening can facilitate English learning as well as active participation in conversation.

In conclusion, to develop social and cognitive strategies, second-language learners need to be involved in and exposed to the target language and have opportunities to interact with speakers of the target language. Hatch (1978) points out that language grows out of experience as well as through participation and



interaction. Thus, learners discover how to interact verbally and develop syntactic forms; however, individuals differ in the way they learn the same content.

### Chapter Summary

This review of language-socialization research is intended to demonstrate the importance of social interactions in second-language learning. A theoretical overview from a Vygotskian perspective and empirical analyses of second-language learning indicates that collaboration with teachers and peers provides an excellent means to enhance language acquisition. Through participation and social experiences, ELLs develop the knowledge of and ability to appropriately use and interpret the uses of the target language as a competent member of the group.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

In this study I entered two preschool classrooms to understand English language learning for three Korean ELLs. I focused on observing their English language development through social interactions and participation with classroom members. Data were collected through observations two days a week in each classroom over the course of one year, interviews with children, teachers, and parents, assessments of children's language skills and examination of relevant artifacts. Micro-ethnographic analysis was conducted in order to understand how Korean ELLs engaged with teachers and peers to learn a new language.

#### **The Community**

The preschool was located in a major metropolitan area of the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The community was primarily a commuter suburb located outside of a major city. The population was 56,397 at the 2000 census. The ethnic makeup for the community was: Whites 77%, Asians 12%, Blacks 7%, Latinos 2%, and others 1.6%. The median income for a family was \$98,294. The median age for residents was 37.3 years. Families with children represented 75.5% of the population, giving the community a higher-than-average concentration of families.

#### **Gaining Entry**

The target children were selected in a purposeful manner, using particular settings, participants, and events in order to obtain important information. Specifically, identification of participants was based on two criteria: a) preschool setting with Korean children with no or little English proficiency and who had

struggles interacting with teachers and peers and b) settings with young ELLs whose parent(s) permitted them to participate.

### *Procedures for Selecting School and Target Children*

Initially, I planned to conduct the study in public school settings, and contacted three local public school districts for initial introductions through a letter of inquiry. However, none of the local public schools were willing to allow this research project in their classrooms. I then turned to private preschools with a large presence of Korean children and St. Peter's School agreed to participate.

The summer before the data collection year, a letter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting permission to conduct the research was sent to the directors of available preschools that met the requirement of having more than two Korean children in each four-year-old class. Directors from two preschools expressed an interest in participating; however, one preschool did not meet the anticipated registration of Korean children. The other school had twenty-five Korean children enrolled (out of a total of 250 children). Although the initial research plan called for classrooms in two different preschools, setting limitations necessitated a decision to observe two different four-year-old classrooms in the same preschool. As each classroom manifested its own culture and social context across dimensions such as relationships among peers and with teachers, I determined that the two classrooms would provide sufficient differential comparisons even though they were in the same school.

After obtaining director permission, the school was visited to identify target participants. The director welcomed the research and expressed concern over

struggles with ELLs in her school. She was very interested in how teachers might be better able to help the children. Full-day and half-day classrooms were surveyed to determine if they had Korean participants who met the English skill level. Four children were identified in three half-day classrooms, Mrs. Pearson, Mrs. Anderson, and Mrs. Henderson; the teachers identified students. Observations were conducted in each classroom to better understand the context and observe the students.

### *Informed Consent and Participant Identification*

Parental permission letters were sent to the parents of all children in three classrooms, requesting permission to directly observe and videotape their children (See Appendix B for sample letters). All Korean parents subsequently were contacted in person after sending the permission letters, specifically requesting permission for their children to participate. All parents of the target children agreed to participate. For non-target children, permission was obtained for 26 of 32 enrolled children. Once permission was secured, I observed in the classrooms for one day to identify the target children: Julie and Inwoo in Mrs. Pearson's class, Paul in Mrs. Anderson's class, and Bruce in Mrs. Henderson's class<sup>3</sup>. These children were the least proficient in English and had a difficult time understanding teachers' instructions. Mrs. Pearson and Mrs. Anderson also gave permission for the classroom research, but Mrs. Henderson advised the director that she felt very uncomfortable with a researcher in the classroom and therefore her classroom was excluded for this study.

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<sup>3</sup> The names of the school, the teachers, the target children, and all children in the classrooms were changed to mask their identities.

## The Setting

### *The School*

St. Peter's Catholic School founded in 1966, provides a parochial catholic education for preschool and elementary aged children (pre-K through 5<sup>th</sup> grade). It is primarily a traditional religious affiliated preschool; the children attend short daily chapel services and have occasional religious-based activities when religious holidays occur. The preschool for three- and four-year olds had approximately 250 children (10% Korean): The majority of the school population was White (80%), followed by Asian (Korean, Japanese, Chinese, Taiwanese, and Thai). The least represented racial groups were Black and Hispanic.

The school provided four half-day classes for three-year olds, three half-day classes for four-year olds and two full-day classes for three- and four-year olds. The teachers of half-day classes taught both morning and afternoon classes in the same classrooms. Children attended the preschool Monday through Friday. Morning classes met from 9 a.m. to 11:45 a.m. and afternoon classes met from 12:30 p.m. to 3:15 p.m. Full-day classes met from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. Special programs included music, physical education (PE), art, science, and media.

### *The School Design*

The school was housed in a two-story building in a residential area, with preschool classrooms located on the left side of the building. The classrooms had their own entrances, but all parents and visitors had to pass through the main door. On the first floor were four half-day classrooms for three-year olds on one side with the school administrative office, the director's office, a health clinic, an art classroom,

and a science classroom on the other. On the second floor were three classrooms for part-time four-year olds, two full-time classrooms, a music classroom, bathrooms, and supply rooms (see Appendix C for the school map). Outside the building was a playground equipped with a jungle gym, a sand play area, swing sets, slides, a life-sized wooden train set, monkey bars, and two picnic tables.

*Mrs. Pearson's Classroom*

*The classroom design.*<sup>4</sup>

The rectangular-shaped classroom had two doors on one side: an entrance and an exit. At the side of the entrance was a built-in teacher's desk equipped with a dark, wooden cabinet used to store materials. A built-in bookshelf stood beside the desk. Along with the bookshelf, there was a cubby space for students to hang tote bags and coats. Another built-in desk was located next to the cubby area ending at the door. On the desk at the door sat a movable, wooden mailbox for students. Students' work from art class or project time was placed beside the mailbox. Under the mailbox, there was a built-in shelf for blocks. A small Lego table for two children was situated at the edge of the block shelf.

The wall opposite the doors was windowed and divided into two spaces: the play and project areas. Beneath the windows were two radiators. On the radiators, there was a growth chart; boy and girl shaped pink papers with children's names placed under a sign with the number "four" (indicating their age) when they turned five, their names were moved under a "five" sign.

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<sup>4</sup> The designs and daily schedules of the two classrooms were almost identical. Mrs. Pearson's classroom is described here; the description of Mrs. Anderson's classroom appears in the Appendix E.

The project area was located on the left side of the classroom. There were four rectangular tables with four chairs, labeled with four colors, (green, blue, red, and yellow) for snacks and small- and whole-group projects. Walls were covered with posters about the alphabet, colors, a student birthday chart, and etiquette rules, such as “Take turns,” “Help others,” “Raise your hands,” and “Say please and thank you.” Student work was posted on the exterior classroom wall or hung by strings from the ceiling. On the left-side wall was a chalkboard, used when teachers wrote a specific alphabet letter and posted examples for projects, as well as a bulletin board that indicated who would be helpers for the day, such as snack helper, attendance helper, line leader, and supply helper. Under the chalkboard was a shelf with scissors, glue, crayons, and markers. Next to the shelf and under the bulletin board, there was a sink. The daily schedule was posted to the left side of the chalkboard.

The right side of the classroom contained six open areas: sociodramatic play, a dollhouse, building blocks, an art table, books, and manipulatives. On the right-side wall was a bulletin board filled with posters that represented specific themes, a weather chart, an alphabet chart, a “Month of the Year” chart, and a number chart. The weather chart was drawn with four seasons and included a movable arrow used by the children at group time to move the arrow to show the symbol for the weather. The alphabet chart included both upper and lower case letters and had a pocket for each alphabet letter. During free-play time, the children put the appropriate alphabet cards into the pockets. The “Month of the Year” chart was posted on the wall and was used when the teachers asked the children, “What month of the year is it today?” Children put an individual month card on the month chart. Another word chart,

“Today is, –” “Yesterday was, –” “Tomorrow will be –” was used for the children to match the appropriate day of the week when teachers asked. A number chart (1 to 100) hung next to the word chart.

Two front-opened, back-closed shelves for manipulative items were used as a divider for the separation between project and play areas. The back side of the shelf faced two child-sized sinks and a child-sized refrigerator. If students wanted to play with the materials on the manipulative-toy shelf, they went to the project area and brought them into the play area. Students played with manipulative toys when teachers introduced new jigsaw puzzles, but generally the children used these materials only before attending chapel.

On the left side was a sociodramatic play area, which had one circular table with three chairs and one rocking chair. To the right was a dollhouse on a table. Only four children for the sociodramatic play area and two for the dollhouse were allowed at one time due to the popularity of these areas. Shelves for blocks and books were located on the right side of the classroom. Since there was no room nearby for these two activities, the students carried the books that they wanted to read and played with blocks on the carpet in the play area. Sometimes, these six areas were crowded; however, most of time, the students had project time and play time simultaneously and there was a balance in the number of students between the two areas (See Appendix D for the classroom map).

The exterior wall, adjacent to the doors, was filled with students’ work and had a small bulletin board to announce upcoming events, such as a field trip and a health expo, and a sign-up sheet for volunteering for events. A small note about daily



routines was posted on the board, including such information as “We had music class today, made a valentine card, and worked on the letter M.”

### *Daily Schedule and Routines*

Table 3.1 Daily Schedule

Time	Schedule
12:30- 12:45	Arrival and free-play with manipulative materials
12:45 – 1:00	Chapel
1:00 – 1:20	Group time (Pledge of Allegiance, attendance, weather, calendar)
1:20 – 1:40	Special program (music, PE, art, science, media) Show-and-Tell (on Fridays)
1:40 – 2:00	Outside
2:00 – 2: 20	Snack/reading time
2:20 – 2: 40	Free play/Project time
2:40 – 2: 50	Clean-up
2:50 – 3:00	Story time
3:00 – 3:15	Dismissal

Schedule times were flexible; sometimes the activities were switched or skipped at teacher’s discretion due weather conditions or lengthier projects.

Around 12:15 p.m., parents escorted their children to the classroom and lined them up outside of the classroom until the lead teacher greeted them at the entrance. The parents said good-bye to their children and did not enter the classroom. Upon entrance, the children put their attendance cards with their names into a basket, went to the project area and played with manipulative materials until all students arrived. At 12:30 p.m., the children lined up for chapel in the All-Purpose room. All preschool classes gathered, sang some hymns, and listened to a sermon led by one of the lead teachers. At 1:00 p.m., they returned to their classroom and recited the Pledge of Allegiance (not every day; if there was no time for this, it was skipped) standing behind their chairs in the project area. Students moved to the play area for group time; the group time activities were mostly the same for the entire year. The round table, which was used as a dining table in the play area, was pushed back to create more space for students during group time.

During group time, the lead teacher (sometimes the assistant teacher) asked the children “What month is it today?” “What date is it today?” “What day is it today?” Children raised their hands and the teacher chose a child who selected the appropriate card for the month and date chart. Number counting followed, the goal being to count to 100. The teacher then asked, “What’s the weather today?” and the weather helper looked out the window and placed the weather arrow according to the weather. Finally, the attendance helper counted the attendance cards with the teacher and then the children lined up for outside play. Outside play ended around 1:40 p.m. when the students lined up for special programs.

The children lined up and followed the teacher to the specific classrooms for music, art, PE, and science; the classroom teachers did not participate in the special programs. At 2:00 p.m., children washed their hands and returned to the classroom for snack time. Mrs. Pearson’s class had science on Monday, art and media on Tuesday, PE on Wednesday, music on Thursday, and Show-and-Tell on Friday. Every Friday, four children brought an item to class whose name started with the alphabet letter of the week, displayed the item, described it and answered questions. Popular questions were: “Where did you get it,?” “Who bought it for you?”, and “Where do you keep it?”

Snack time began around 2:00 p.m., during which snack helpers distributed cups, napkins, and snacks to their classmates. The children who finished snacks earliest went to the carpet and looked at books of their choice until 2:20 p.m. when they divided into play and project groups. Project and free-play time ended around 2:40 p.m. Teachers randomly selected groups for projects or sent individuals to the

play area. Half of the class did a specific alphabet letter project with the teachers and the remaining half of the children played according to their preferences. The teacher sometimes called on students who did not finish their project the previous day. Since the teacher focused on projects, she did not stay in the play area. If a teacher initiated a project with some children, the remaining teacher (usually an assistant) hung the children's work up by strings or wrote a memo about what the children did during the day to post outside and communicate activities to parents.

After story and clean-up time, the children were called one-by-one to get their belonging and wait at the table for dismissal. Children's names were called as their parents arrived.

#### *Classroom Members.*

One lead teacher, one assistant teacher and 16 children (7 boys and 9 girls) were in Mrs. Pearson's classroom. The average age was four and six months. There were four White boys (Dan, Logan, Timothy A, and Timothy B), five White girls (Kendall, Elian, Gabi, Mary, and Sophie), three Asian boys (Inwoo, Isaiah, and Jay) and four Asian girls (Annie, Brianna, Emily, Julie). Among the Asian students, one Korean boy, named Isaiah, had native competency in American English. Emily (Korean), Jay (Korean), Brianna (Chinese) and Annie (Taiwanese) spoke English and communicated with the teachers, although they sometimes misunderstood their teachers' instructions. The teachers struggled to communicate with Julie and Inwoo, selected as target students, at the beginning of the school year.

The lead teacher (Mrs. Pearson) was a white female native-English speaker. She had a Master's Degree in special education and worked as a special education

teacher. She had stayed at home while raising her children. This was her second year at St. Peter's. The assistant teacher (Mrs. Well), a white female native-English speaker, had worked for ten years at St. Peter's. Her adult child also worked at this school as an assistant teacher.

*Target child: Julie.*

Julie was four years and six months at the beginning of the school year. She had one older sister, who attended middle school. Julie's parents had come to America ten years earlier as graduate students. Her mother had a Master's Degree in music education and taught piano at home. Julie's father had a Ph.D. in engineering; he had a part-time job and attended a graduate school to study biology. Julie and Isaiah knew each other because their parents attended the same Catholic Church.

Julie was born in America and this was her first year in school. She had no prior school experience. Julie's mother chose this school because she was Catholic and went to a Catholic church. She planned to send Julie to a Korean Saturday school run by a Korean Catholic church. According to Julie's mother, Julie was exposed to both Korean and English at home; her parents spoke Korean at home, but her sister spoke English at home. English-speaking children, who came to her home for piano lessons, also surrounded Julie. Although Julie did not speak with them, she had chances to hear English every day. Because of this environment, Julie's mother believed that Julie could understand and speak some English, although she herself could not speak fluently. Julie's mother also believed that Julie learned some English from watching children's videos and TV programs.

*Target child: Inwoo*

Inwoo was aged four years and five months at the beginning of the school year and was one of the youngest children in the classroom. He was born in Korea and had come to America two years earlier. Inwoo's family moved to the area because his grandparents lived in America. Inwoo's parents were college educated. His father ran a small business and his mother was a full-time homemaker and cared for her children.

Inwoo had a younger, two-year-old, sister. He had six months of school experience in a full-day classroom before being enrolled at St. Peter's School. Inwoo did not like attending the previous school; his mother had observed that Inwoo did not have any friends, played alone, and did not speak with classmates. His mother felt that a full-time program was too much for him and decided to send him to a half-day program. Inwoo's mother chose this school upon a friend's recommendation and because she and the friend wanted their sons to attend the same school.

During an interview, Inwoo's mother emphasized the importance of learning Korean at home and in other settings (e.g., Korean Saturday school). She believed that Inwoo would pick up English quickly as long as they lived in America; however, if she did not use Korean with him at home, he would not be able to speak, read, or write in Korean. At the same time, Inwoo's mother tried to give Inwoo some opportunities by exposing him to English, as she read English children's books, but he did not listen to or pay attention to them at home. She ultimately abandoned reading English books to him. Inwoo had shown an interest in numbers. Although his

mother did not try teaching numbers, he liked counting and tried to count up to 100. He could write his name in English without difficulty.

*Mrs. Anderson's Classroom*<sup>5</sup>

*Classroom members.*

There was one lead teacher, one assistant teacher and 16 children (8 boys and 8 girls) in Mrs. Anderson's classroom. The average age was four years and six months. There were three White boys (Bruce B, Gary, and Willem), four White girls (Amy, Ariel, Naomi, and Peggy), two Hispanic girls (Dianna and Lisa), one Black girl (Jennifer), five Asian boys (Bruce A, Mark, Marimoto, Nick, and Paul) and one Korean girl (Gloria). Among the Asian students, two Korean boys named Mark and Nick were native English speakers. They spoke English at home. Marimoto and Bruce spoke English without difficulty. The Korean girl joined the class in January and spoke English fluently.

The lead teacher was a White female native-English speaker. She had a Bachelor's Degree in elementary education and worked as a kindergarten teacher. She stayed at home while she raised her children. This was her eighth year as a preschool teacher at St. Peter's. The assistant teacher, a White female native-English speaker, had worked for five years at the St. Peter's.

*The target child: Paul*

Paul was four years and five months old at the beginning of the school term. He was one of the youngest and smallest children in the classroom. He was born in America and had two older brothers, aged six and nine. Paul's parents had come to

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<sup>5</sup> The description of Mrs. Anderson's classroom appears in Appendix E.

America ten years earlier. They were both college educated. His father had a small business, and his mother was a full-time homemaker and cared for the children. Paul had no school experiences and this was his first year at the school. Paul's mother had chosen this school because she believed it would provide a strong moral education.

On the other hand, she was concerned about Paul's socialization with his peers. Her older son had a difficult time making friends and getting along with other children, although her second son did not. She wished that Paul would make friends and build friendships with his peers. Paul's mother mentioned that Paul was exposed to English because his two older brothers spoke English at home, although Paul's parents spoke Korean at home. His mother found that when Paul spoke English, it sounded like Chinese, because Chinese has high- and low-pitch intonations. These Chinese-sounding intonations, according to Paul's mother, made him very difficult to understand. At home, she read English children's books to him every day and Paul watched English videos and TV programs.

### *The Curriculum*

The two classrooms shared the same curriculum, and the overall instructional style and teacher attitudes were similar. The teaching curriculum was traditional and directive, where teachers used scripted and didactic materials with little focus on children's ideas and interest. The teachers primarily worked with the children on daily worksheets, and rarely participated in their play. Every classroom had the same curriculum which focuses on alphabet letters and numbers; all classrooms used the same materials to teach reading, writing, social studies, science, and mathematics.

For reading and writing, the teachers used a “letter of the week” curriculum focusing on a specific alphabet letter, both upper and lower cases, as they were coloring, cutting, and pasting. Sometimes, arts-and-crafts projects relating to the letter of the week followed. For example, if they were working on the letter M, the children made a lion’s mane according to the teacher’s instructions. At the end of the year, the children had their own alphabet book. The curriculum was supported by included a rhyming poster related to the specific alphabet letter for the week.

For mathematics, the curriculum consisted of completing worksheets in concepts such as one-one corresponding, counting, and patterns. “Let’s Find Out” were also used to teach social studies. Once a week, children completed worksheets on topics such as the weather, Indians, seasons, animals, and farms.

Special courses (20 to 30 minutes each) included music, PE, and science once a week and art and media every other week. The children moved to different classrooms for music, science, and art, and the All-Purpose room for PE.

Music class provided children the opportunity to sing and move related to seasonal and special occasions, such as Thanksgiving and Christmas, and to perform with melody bells. At the end of each semester, children performed a music concert in front of their parents. During PE class, children were given the opportunity to use small and large motor skills, such as kicking and catching a ball, jumping, moving, running, and walking. Art class involved art projects related to seasonal and special occasion themes, such as St. Valentine’s Day and St. Patrick’s Day. During Media time, children listened to a story through the teacher’s voice and a tape recorder. Science class explored seasonal themes, such as seeding and germination. For



example, on a spring day the children planted different kinds of seeds, predicted which seed was going to grow faster and observed the seeds. Finally, they communicated whose prediction was right.

### Data Collection

To obtain multiple perspectives on particular behaviors, events, or phenomena, data were collected from multiple sources, including classroom observations, and interviews with parents, children, teachers, and the collection of relevant artifacts. Collecting multiple sources of data provided the ability to triangulate and achieve a more complete and accurate description. Observation allows one to collect data about actions and events as they occur in the classroom. Interviews with participants and other informants such as parents and teachers provides meaning and perspectives that cannot be achieved from observation alone (Maxwell, 1996).

Observational data were collected for a period of one academic year with some breaks for holidays, school closings, and when target children were absent. A total of 473 observations were made: 180 for Inwoo, 159 for Paul, and 134 for Julie. Numbers of observation were not equivalent due to differential rates and acquisition patterns of learning English. Inwoo had the greatest challenges in learning English and therefore was observed more often. Inwoo received more focus than Julie when there was nothing new to learn about her English learning and the data were saturated (Morse, 1994).

## *Observation*

Observation served as the primary method of data collection. Observation helped to understand the individual child's progress in learning English through social interactions and classroom participation.

Observations were conducted four days a week for the entire scheduled period, tracking three children in two classrooms. In this study, observational techniques shifted over time, following the recommendations of Spradley (1980) and Jorgensen (1989), who both noted that a researcher's role changes from the earlier to later stages of observation. Initial observations were unfocused and general in scope, as time was required to become accustomed to the settings and daily routines. Initial observations were focused upon identifying the standard activities and events of the classes as a whole, as well as those of small group activities within the classrooms. After identifying the daily routines and structures of the classrooms, the focus shifted to deeper and narrower segments of the individual's behaviors, actions, interactions, and participation within small-and whole-group activities.

I initially adapted Corsaro's (1985) "reactive strategy" as a means to be a participant observer in the classrooms. In a year long ethnography of the peer culture in a preschool, Corsaro became an accepted member of the peer culture, even earning the name of "Big Bill" as children included him in their construction of a shared meaning about preschool (even to the point of soliciting his active involvement in strategies to avoid teacher directives). Corsaro constructed his strategy in reaction to other approaches in qualitative research where the researcher does not actively engage in play as a peer. In this research, while I initially intended to become a

member of the children's play, it became clear that they did not view me as play partner and my role emerged as a teacher's assistant.

### *Observation Procedures*

The teachers introduced me casually, "This is Sunkyoung, she's here to watch you play." I made every attempt, in the classroom, to adjust to the setting and students as a participant within the group activities and during play and project time, in order to better understand the language learning. I listened to stories at story time and sat at the dinner table in the dramatic play area. If offered a cup, I pretended to sip as if it were a drink or responded to student questions when asked. Unlike typical adult-child interactions, in the reactive role I did not intervene in the activities of the students and did not employ adult authority (Corsaro, 1985). The students initially seemed curious about my identity and activities, although they did not ask any questions and became accustomed to my presence thereafter.

During the second week of school, Bruce A (Mrs. Anderson's class) asked about my field notes notebook. I told him, "I'm writing what you're doing." He did not ask me anymore. Outside of the classroom (10/04), while waiting for the teacher's arrival, Timothy A in (Mrs. Pearson's class) queried me:

Tim A: "Are you teacher?"

S: "No, I'm not a teacher."

Tim A: "Are you sure you're not teacher?"

S: "No, I'm not."

Tim's father (to Tim A): "Are you a student?"

Tim A (to his father): "No, I'm not."

Tim's father (to Tim A): "Yes. You're going to go to the classroom."

I initially attempted to integrate with the children's actions and peer structure; however, they did not ask me to participate in activities or initiate conversations with

me. The students appeared to regard me as a helper or an assistant. In Mrs. Pearson's classroom, although they did not invite me into their play, they brought some books and asked me to read during reading time. When conflicts arose both in the classroom and on the playground, I was sometimes asked to resolve problems. I sent them to their teachers whenever this occurred ("Tell Mrs. Pearson") in order to show that I did not have the same power or authority as their teachers. In Mrs. Anderson's classroom, Naomi was initially interested in me and stayed around me until she developed a friendship. The other children came to me when they needed help with something during project and play times, such as tying capes and shoes.

Since I participated in the activities as a person without power or authority, I sometimes faced difficult decisions related to student conflicts, physical interactions and assistance requests from Korean ELLs when they could not understand the teacher's instructions<sup>6</sup>. For instance, at various times Isaiah sprinkled sand on Inwoo's head; Gary kicked the building that Paul built; Julie threw a pony toward Gabi and Annie; and Inwoo did not follow instructions for a coloring activity. I was tempted to intervene as an adult, but did not take any actions. Instead, I called upon one of the teachers for assistance. Although I sometimes faced minor ethical concerns about whether or not to assist the students, there were no dangerous or serious incidents.

The target students did not regard me as their peer, although they came to me for assistance and attention (sometimes in English, sometimes in Korean). I was likely viewed as a convenient translator as the teachers sometimes asked me to

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<sup>6</sup> The target children knew that I was a native Korean speaker because they heard me speak to their parents in Korean.

translate instructions into Korean when the target students did not understand an assignment at the beginning of school. The target children looked to me for translation, but this faded with repeated routines and as their English progressed.

I was generally regarded as an adult assistant without authority and was not accepted as a playmate among the students. Unlike the experience as friend or peer recorded by Corsaro (1985), I found that it was not easy to be accepted as a friend. This may be due to the fact that I was present in the classroom only twice a week and that I was often seen with another class on the playground.

The students began to form their own social groups in October, rejecting or excluding their peers. It was much more difficult to become a member of a playgroup once the children built their own friendships. It was nonetheless possible, however, to understand the ELLs' learning processes and relationships with other children by sitting near them and listening to their conversations. It was also possible to participate in their activities as a reader or sitting buddy during reading time and as a helper during project time. By the middle of October, children lost interest in my researcher identity and accepted me as a classroom member (not a teacher or a peer), as they asked me for help. I played roles as a participant as well as an observer. As a participant, I helped the classroom teachers and children, distributing worksheets and supplies or responding to the children's questions. As an observer, I jotted down field notes when I was not engaged in child activities. I particularly wrote down their actions and conversations during snack and play time.

### *Videotaping*

Videotaping is a powerful tool in better understanding the ELLs' learning English. Through this method one cannot only listen to voices during activities, but also observe actions, interactions and expressions. In this study, classroom teachers casually introduced videotaping during the second week of October. The teachers announced that, "She is going to videotape you. Please do not touch it. This is not a toy." The students were initially excited about and interested in the camera, asking questions like "Did you take my picture?" and making requests like "Let me see." Students were shown pictures of themselves whenever they asked, but gradually lost interest as time passed. The camera became just another piece of equipment located in the classroom.

A small, digital video camera with a zoom lens was located on a tripod in an inconspicuous and unobtrusive area to record the students' actions and interactions in the classroom. This portable video camera was moved when the subjects changed locations. An omni-directional PZM microphone for sound quality was attached to the camera. For both audio- and video-recording, a PZM flat microphone was placed on a flat surface that captured target conversations while minimizing background noise. Videotaping was transcribed and summarized after each day's recording. Videotaping was not, for practical reasons, used on the playground, as the students were constantly moving from one place to another. Field notes were used to record actions and interactions while the students were on the playground.

### *Field Notes*

Field notes were used to record and recall observations. Field notes form the record of “What the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data” (Bogdan & Biken, 1998, p. 108). The goal of field notes in this study was to provide “Thick description,” which “Does more than record what a person is doing... it presents detail, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another” (Denzin, 1989, p. 121).

The format of observational notes was adopted from that used by Corsaro (1985). He divided observational notes into four sections. Field notes (FN) were for the literal description of the settings and interactions between language learners and their class members. Personal notes (PN) were related to personal reactions and feelings about the subjects. Methodological notes (MN) involved procedural issues. Theoretical notes (TN) described themes of general theoretical significance drawn from field notes. From the outset, observational notes were written during observation and revised afterward. During observation, target children’s interactions with classmates, contexts, and personal feelings or inquiries about target children and his or her classmates were recorded. These notes provided more detailed and concrete observations. Missed actions and interactions were added to the field notes using recorded videotapes. All notes were transcribed and stored on computer disk.

### *Interviews*

Target children’s interviews were used to supplement the observations, providing parents and teachers interpretations of the target children’s actions. Interviews were conducted with parents to better understand family perspectives on

language learning. Although a protocol of interview questions was prepared beforehand, open-ended questions were used and interview questions expanded from the interviewees' reactions and perspectives. A tape recorder was used to document the interviews, but field notes were not taken in order to maximize comfort during conversations. Transcripts were made after each interview (see Appendix F for interview protocols).

#### *Parent Interview*

Interviews with parents took place in a classroom before classes began at the beginning of October. Parent interviews were conducted at the school during the first few weeks of the school year, because it was deemed useful to initially understand the ELLs' personalities, learning experiences, and behaviors based on their own cultures through their parent's perspectives. The purpose of the parent interview was to better understand the background of each participant, especially relating to family history and circumstances regarding English language learning. An unstructured, open-ended interview format was used. Questions such as "Tell me about your family life in the USA" were used to elicit descriptions from the parents in their own words.

#### *Student Interview*

The purpose of student interviews in this study was to "Get them to talk about what they know" (Walsh, 1998, p. 112). These interviews were conducted during the first few weeks of school to explore the participants' perceptions of their experiences in the classroom as the language was learned. The first individual interviews, at the beginning of the study, were with their parents to provide optimal comfort for the student. , Student interviews were initiated with the open-ended questions: "Do you



like to come to school?” “Tell me about your friends.” The students, however, responded only with “Yes” or “No.” They mostly said, “I don’t know.” These interviews were conducted in Korean, because the students did not have enough skill to answer in English. Although their parents aided them while the parent was present to elicit answers, the students were not interested in the exercise and the data were not usable. Subsequently, informal interviews were conducted during the school year. The students were approached when available. Although the students were not especially expressive verbally during the informal interviews, feelings about peers, best friends and preferred friends were evident.

#### *Teacher Interview*

Teachers’ educational background, teaching experience and evaluation of ELL’s language proficiency were explored in interviews at the beginning of the study. Teachers were asked to identify those Korean ELL’s who they thought were the least proficient in English, and who did not understand teacher instructional language. This information served as an initial guide to assist in identifying potential target children.

#### *English Proficiency Test: Preschool Language Assessment Instrument (PLAI-2).*

The Preschool Language Assessment Instrument (PLAI-2) (Blank, Rose, & Berlin, 1978; 2003) was conducted to establish the baseline of three children’s English proficiency and to determine their progress. The PLAI-2 test was not a standardized test for the Korean ELL population. Although the Language Proficiency Test (LPT) was a commonly-used language assessment, the LPT put less emphasis on pragmatic competence (Lopez, 2001). I used PLAI-2 because it focused on social

interactions, such as listening and speaking skills. The PLAI-2 is an assessment of children's literal and inferential language skills to identify discourse abilities in language development through four different levels of language abstraction, using commands and questions that children are likely to encounter in preschool settings:

Level 1: Matching Perception (matching, identifying, naming objects): e.g.,

“What is this?”

Level 2: Selective Analysis of Perception (classifying, identifying functions of objects): e.g., “What shape is the bowl?”

Level 3: Reordering Perception (sequencing, assuming other roles): e.g., “Show me the part of the egg that we don't eat.”

Level 4: Reasoning about perception (predicting, explaining, thinking of logical solutions): e.g., “What will happen to the man if he closes the umbrella?” “Point to all of the pictures that are not cups.”

Reliability and validity checks were conducted on two (level 3: reordering and level 4: reasoning) of the four levels of language ability, and met accepted standards. Internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) was .94 for four year olds and the coefficients was .70 for reordering (level 3). Test-retest reliability correlation coefficients was .73 for reordering (level 3) and reasoning (level 4) to .93 for discourse ability. Predictive validity ranged from .40 to .89, and construct validity, mean standard scores for gender and race/ethnic groups, were within the expected normal range (90-110). Receptive and expressive subtests for level 4 were found to be highly correlated (.70) for the normative sample (Blank, Rose, & Berlin, 2003).

The English proficiency test was administered two weeks after school began. Each target child was tested individually in the classroom while the other children were on the playground, and the assessments were audio-recorded. The classroom teacher and I were both present during these assessments. Test materials were distributed to the classroom teachers one week before testing so that they could familiarize themselves with the materials. The classroom teachers, both native English speakers, administered the assessment, and both the teacher and I scored them while the test was conducted.

Raw scores were converted into scaled scores. Scaled scores were calculated to describe discourse ability, percentile ranks, and age equivalents. The tables shows the three students' proficiency and progress. Julie demonstrated the highest level of progress, Paul also demonstrated progress and Inwoo demonstrated the lowest level of progress.

Table 3.2 PLAI-2 English Proficiency Test Scores at Beginning of School Year

Descriptive rating (Age equivalent)	Julie	Paul	Inwoo
I	Poor (2.9)	Below average (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)
II	Poor (2.9)	Poor (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)
III	Very poor (2.9)	Poor (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)
IV (Receptive)	Poor (2.9)	Below average (2.9)	Poor (2.9)
IV (Expressive)	Very poor (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)
( )= age			

Table 3.3 PLAI-2 English Proficiency Test Scores at End of School Year

Descriptive rating (Age equivalent)	Julie	Paul	Inwoo
I	Average (4.9)	Average (4.9)	Poor (2.9)
II	Below average (3.9)	Poor (2.9)	Very poor (2.9)
III	Average (4.3)	Below average (3.6)	Very poor (2.9)
IV (Receptive)	Below average (3.6)	Below average (3.0)	Very poor (2.9)
IV (Expressive)	Average (4.3)	Below average (3.6)	Very poor (2.9)

### *Student Artifacts*

Student artifacts, such as drawings, printed materials, individual work, and partnership work with peers were to be collected to support observations and interview data about how ELLs achieve language learning. After one month of collecting such artifacts, artifact collection was discontinued because it was determined that these did not provide any information about their language learning. The material merely showed printed student names along with drawings, coloring, and alphabet-related work.

### *Data Analysis*

The purpose of qualitative analysis is to describe and analyze data to construct an interpretative scheme. Data analysis was accomplished in this study with words or textual data rather than numerical data (Mile & Huberman, 1994) and included the processes of description, explanation, and interpretation to reveal regularities, patterns, and themes related to the research questions. Raw data were coded, sorted, and summarized into more manageable forms through line-by-line analysis methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Coding was used for data reduction, data-labeling, and retrieval, and to organize data into categories such as similar items, patterns, themes, and phenomena, as shown in Table 3.4. Analysis, then, involved linking categories, factors, structures and theoretical constructs using multiple data displays. Finally, data were interpreted to explain the significance of the findings. Coding categories were developed to describe the language learning and social processes of the three participants, through their interactions and participation, as well as the experiences and observations of the teachers and parents on English language learning.

Interpretation of the participants' perspectives proceeded through the development of coding categories.

Table 3.4 Analytic Sequence

Procedures	Methods
<i>Data collection</i> ↓	Field notes, video, and interviews
<i>Coding</i> ↓	Categorizing, data reduction, labeling, retrieval
<i>Data display</i> ↓	Matrices, charts, and graphics
<i>Selected data collection</i> ↓	If there are any missing data, unclear data, and unanswered questions
<i>Data display</i> ↓	Matrices, charts, graphs
<i>Data verification</i> ↓	Themes, patterns, clusters
<i>Write-up</i>	Explanation, interpretation via vignettes

#### *The First Phase of Data Analysis: Initial Coding*

All data were transcribed and summarized using standardized transcription procedures. This included data derived from video and audiotape sources, field notes, and interviews with teachers and parents. Reflective remarks (feelings, reactions, interpretations, and questions) were entered in a specific section of the data transcript both during and immediately after data collection (Mile & Huberman, 1994). Codes in the right margin, for example, included examples of learning strategies (LS) and pre-analytic remarks. These codes were organized according to type, location, and event. As an aid in getting started, a "Start List" (Mile & Huberman, 1994) was used to classify the data. To guide analysis and coding, this list was drawn from the conceptual framework and research questions (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Start List of Codes

<u>Learning process over time</u>	
Actions/interactions in the classroom	Involvement processes in the classroom
Actions/interactions with teachers	Involvement in activities/events
Actions/interactions with other children	Adaptation to the setting
	ELLs' experiences of school, teachers, and children
<u>Setting</u>	
Characteristics	School: events, activities, organization
Demographics	Classroom: routines, curriculum,
Social structure	Activities, interactions between teachers and ELLs, between ELLs and other members
Climate	
<u>Relationships</u>	
Communication with teachers/peers	Negotiation with teachers/peers
Participation in small groups	Collaboration with teachers/peers
<u>Strategies</u>	
Learning strategies used by ELLs	
Learning strategies with teachers/peers	

Bogdan and Biken's (1992) coding categories facilitated the initial organization (p. 170). The coding categories are in Table 3.6:

Table 3.6 The Coding Categories

<i>Setting/ context:</i> General information on surroundings that allows you to put the study in a larger context
<i>Definition of the situation:</i> How people understand, define, or perceive the setting or the Topics on which the study is based
<i>Perspectives:</i> Ways of thinking about the setting shared by informants ("How things are Done here")
<i>Ways of thinking about people and objects:</i> Understanding of each other, of outsiders, of objects in their world (more detailed than above)
<i>Process:</i> Sequence of events, flow, transitions, and turning points, changes over time
<i>Activities:</i> Regularly occurring kinds of behavior
<i>Events:</i> Specific activities, especially ones occurring infrequently
<i>Strategies:</i> Ways of accomplishing things; people's tactics, methods, techniques for meeting their needs
<i>Relationships and social structure:</i> Unofficially defined patterns such as cliques, collations, romances, friendships, enemies
<i>Methods:</i> Problems, joys, dilemmas of the research process - often in relation to comments by observers

The codes changed as categories emerged and the initial framework was expanded; however, the initial framework was helpful in managing the voluminous data collected during fieldwork. The initial framework also focused the research directly upon questions in a systematic manner.

Data were analyzed using a line-by-line coding system in order to generate meaning and actions that were drawn from categorizing the primary patterns in the data. This approach was used to closely examine and scrutinize the data, phrase-by-phrase and word-by-word, to generate categories. Whenever patterns emerged, the patterns and themes were highlighted in different colors with a summary and comments noted. It was helpful to sort the data according to patterns. For example, interaction between an ELL and a peer was highlighted in the same color, with theoretical and analytical memos entered in the field notes (Glaser & Strauss, 1978). Prior to creating a labeling system for each file, data were read and re-read. An inventory system was organized using multiple perspectives relating to chronological time, space, person, topic, event or activity, and detailed research questions.

The data were sorted into coding categories by each research question using repeated patterns and themes. For research question # 1 (communicative process), the coding categories had three components: a) five types of ELLs' actions and interactions, b) verbal functions, and c) two stages of ELL language learning. For research question # 2 (social relationships), the coding categories were divided into three components: a) access and initiation, b) social network and friendship forms, and c) play types (i.e., solitary, parallel, cooperative). Finally, for research question #

3 (English learning strategies), the coding categories were focused on two types of strategies: a) cognitive and b) social strategies.

*The Second Phase of Data Analysis: Data Display, Single Case Study Analysis, and Cross-Case Analysis*

The basic subcategories of each question became vehicles of data display (Mile & Huberman, 1994) via matrices, graphs, and charts to assist in interpreting the meaning of language learning and to organize and assemble information that corroborated assertions drawn from the initial coding. For example, matrices were created using dates in rows and types of non-verbal interactions (i.e., giving, pointing, nodding) in columns or, for a theme related to learning strategies, time-ordered matrices were used to explore how the ELLs developed their competencies over time (i.e., with the date in a row and types of learning strategies in columns).

These tools of data display allowed for the organization of similar patterns, themes, and categories into structures. The purpose of the data display was to help verify relationships in the data and to clarify explanatory accounts as the research illustrated categories of the meanings (Mile & Huberman, 1994). Analysis began at the individual level, followed by cross-case analysis to compare and contrast similar and different learning and social processes. At the individual level, how each student learned English and interacted in the classroom was analyzed according to dominant themes and patterns. Cross-case analysis was then used to examine how these processes were similar or different across target children. For example, different individual's learning strategies were compared and contrasted across matrices.



### *The Third Phase of Data Analysis: Assertions and Vignettes*

In the third phase, assertions that emerged from the analysis of data display were constructed, using evidence drawn from data sources. Assertions were used to describe possible causal linkages and were illustrated through vignettes. The data were organized into vignettes to describe and explain the findings. A vignette constructs “scenes and dialogues [by which] the researcher literally puts words into people’s mouths based not only on raw data but also on the study’s major findings” (Merryfield, 1990, p. 23). In this study, vignettes were used to corroborate assertions in identifying the kind of data that supports the research claims. They demonstrate the subjects’ actions and interactions within the classrooms by using direct quotes and examples from data sources. For example, peer-looking actions during project time that were observed through data display were compared among the three children to identify the characteristic of peer-looking actions. The ELLs employed the actions whenever they did not understand teachers’ instructions in the fall. Assertions were made from the ELLs’ same actions in a certain situation and they were then organized using examples and direct quotes.

### Chapter Summary

Micro-ethnographic analysis was used in this study to investigate the English learning processes of three Korean preschool children. In this chapter, the methodological procedures employed background information about the community, school, families of the three children, and participants at the schools are provided. The data collection section is explained, detailing the tools used for data collection: observations, videotaping, and interviews. The data analysis section describes the

procedures used to corroborate the data interpretation through coding, categorizing, data display and assertions.

## Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, I use the three research questions as a framework to report results. In research question 1, I describe the use of nonverbal and verbal actions and interactions by the children over the course of the year. In research question 2, I illustrate how social relationships with peers and teachers influence language development. Finally, in research question 3, I identify the learning strategies used to communicate and socialize with other children.

### Research Question 1: How do Young Korean Children Learn English in the Preschool Classroom?

To understand how young Korean children learn English in the two classrooms, both *actions* (actions and behaviors that do not attempt to communicate with others), and *interactions* (interactions that are used to communicate with others verbally and non-verbally) were observed for the length of the school day, four days a week over the course of the school year. Types of actions and interactions were identified (see Table 4.1): 1) non-communicative action (NCA), 2) private speech (PS), 3) non-responses (NR), 4) non-verbal communication (NVC), and 5) verbal communication (VC). Changes in patterns of use were documented across the children. In addition, verbal communications were examined according to a matrix of functions that describe types of classroom discourse. Dore's (1977) categories of language functions (Appendix A) were adapted and modified for this study (Table 4.2). Finally, children's speech patterns were analyzed to identify the transition from formulaic to productive speech (Clark, 1999; Wong-Fillmore, 1979; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997).

Table 4.1 Types of Actions and Interactions<sup>7</sup>

Definition	Code	Example
<p><b><u>Non-communicative action:</u></b> Behaviors that involve nonverbal actions such as looking and listening. When the children did not understand an essential instructional direction, they would look for clues such as information on their peers' work. NCA was used to help them figure things out or locate clues. Another type of NCA was used to demonstrate their interests in their peers and their activities.</p>	NCA	<p><i>At the project area (01/05) Julie</i> The assistant teacher distributed a worksheet about matching shapes. Teacher (T): We have four party hats in each row. What you need to do is look carefully. Two hats are the same. Color those two that match. Julie (J): (<i>looked at</i> Kendall, Dan, and Gabi and started to color the same color as Gabi did.) T: We are doing the second row. Which hats look alike? J: (<i>looked at</i> Gabi's) T: (<i>approached Julie and pointed</i>) This and this hat. J: (<i>looked at</i> Gabi's and Candle's and started to color the same as Gabi.)</p>
<p><b><u>Private speech:</u></b> Talking to oneself to direct or guide one's behavior or actions (Baker, 1992). ELLs employed private speech as they described their own actions to themselves and repeated the words of others.</p>	PS	<p><i>At a table (01/11) Julie</i> Julie was coloring several animals from a mitten story and talking to herself, deciding which colors to use on which animals. She was coloring a bear pink, and saying "Color pink, pink."</p>
<p><b><u>Non response:</u></b> No actions in response to communication. Although NR occurred infrequently, Julie's and Paul's NR generally occurred when peers or teachers initiated conversations. For Inwoo, NR occurred when he was engrossed in his own play.</p>	NR	<p><i>In the dramatic play area (10/20) Julie</i> Julie, Kendall, and Elian were playing in the kitchen. Elian was allotting the roles. Elian (E): (To Julie) "I'm the mom now. You're a big sister." (To Kendall): "You're a big sister." J: (<i>not responding</i>, went to the sink.)</p>
<p><b><u>Non-verbal communication:</u></b> Social interaction used for communicating with others non-verbally, regardless of who initiates the communication. NVC is categorized according to its purpose: answering, attention-getting, protesting, requesting, and teaching.</p>	NCA	<p><i>Nodding: At a table (9/28) Paul</i> Paul arrived first at school. T: Do you know what to do? P: (<i>nodding his head</i>). He picked up a book on the table and looked at it.</p>
<p><b><u>Verbal communication:</u></b> Social interaction characterized by the use of spoken words, either to initiate the communication or to respond to another speaker. All ELLs used one-word, incomplete words and sentences, and complete words and sentences.</p>	VC	<p><i>At the project time (9/28) Paul</i> Teacher: "What color do you want?" P: "Orange." (<i>Pointing to his paper</i>) "My name, my name" [I wrote my name]</p>

<sup>7</sup> See Appendix G for additional examples of five types of actions and interactions

Table 4.2 Most Frequent Verbal Functions (adapted from Dore, 1977)

<p><b><u>Simple response and Compliance:</u></b> Responds to the requests or questions of teachers and peers</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Simple response: responding in one word to the speaker: “9” (01/12).</li> <li>2. Compliance: expressing acceptance to the request: “Okay” (11/07). “Sure” (02/08).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Regulation:</u></b> Seeks self or other’s actions and attention</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Self-regulation (private speech) speaking to self to direct one’s actions and behavior: “Cut down the fish. Cut in the line” (11/28).</li> <li>2. Other-regulation (teaching); speaking to others to direct their actions or behavior: “No, the other side” (09/15).</li> <li>3. Attention-getting; seeking others’ attention: “Look!” (02/08).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Reasoning:</u></b> States the rules, reasoning, and justification</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Rules - stating social or school rules: “We need to share” (04/20).</li> <li>2. Reasons - stating reasons or justification: “Because she is bad girl” (05/04).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Request:</u></b> Seeks others’ performance of actions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Action request - directing the actions of the listener: “Come on!”</li> <li>2. Permission request - seeking others’ permission to perform an action: “Can I have a necklace?” (04/20).</li> <li>3. Suggestion - suggesting a course of action by the listener: “Let’s go to the tire swing”(01/19).</li> <li>4. Referring “need” - referring to one’s own needs or wants: “I need that” (03/27).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Description:</u></b> Describes events, people, and objects: “I make E” (01/18).</p>
<p><b><u>Protest and Claim:</u></b> Insists on his/her own objections or rights</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Protest - expressing objection to another’s actions or behavior: “Stop” (10/20).</li> <li>2. Claim - expressing one’s own rights: “It’s mine” (11/16), “I got it first” (04/24).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Questions:</u></b> Refers the questions asked by the speaker</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Clarification question - seeks clarification: “What? What?” (09/27)</li> <li>2. Opinion question - solicit another’s opinion: “Easy, easy?” (01/23)</li> <li>3. Information question - seeks information about people, events, and objects: “Where is the heart?” (02/08)</li> <li>4. Explanation question - requests another’s explanation: “Why do this?” (11/07)</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Repetition:</u></b> Repeats utterances remarks by teachers or peers</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Agreement repetition - repeating another’s words to show agreement: “Annie, get off “ (10/20).</li> <li>2. Last word repetition - repeating another’s last words spoken by peers or teachers to direct one’s self or to remember their utterances: “Blue” (09/29).</li> <li>3. Repetition of teachers’ or peers’ demands - repeating statements made by peers or teachers expressing their requests: “Ice cream”(10/26).</li> </ol>
<p><b><u>Role play:</u></b> Utterances used in role play</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Role calling (renaming) - renaming objects and people to sustain a role play” “Mother? Mother?” (11/15).</li> <li>2. Role announcement - assigning the roles to be played: “I’ll be a mom.”</li> <li>3. Greeting - greeting in a role play: “Hi” (10/09), “Bye” (01/19).</li> <li>4. Permission request - seeking others’ permission for a role play: “Can I be a mom?” ( 03/27).</li> </ol>

## *Changes in Actions and Interactions for Learning English*

### *Julie*

#### *Non-Communicative Action*

At the beginning of the school year, Julie had difficulty understanding the tasks given by the teachers in classroom projects such as “Let’s Find Out” and other alphabet-related worksheets. The first time, she tried to complete the task without looking at her peers’ work or the teachers’ examples. For instance, the teacher told the class to “Pick one fish and circle it.” Julie circled all the fishes. When the teacher told the class to “Take a crayon. Put a circle up here,” Julie colored instead of circling (10/05). Although the teachers tried to help whenever they saw she was incorrect, they could not check her work all the time and Julie did not ask them for help.

During the middle of October, Julie first used the peer-looking action to figure out clues during project time. Julie started looking at her peer’s work (e.g., Julie looked at Sophie and Morgan’s sheets as she was doing her work, 10/20). This peer-looking action continued until she discovered that there were examples on the chalkboard in December. However, Julie still used peer-looking action when no examples were shown, such as in music and science classes. After she discovered the chalkboard examples, Julie gradually relied on them. Julie appeared to understand the tasks through the teacher’s repeated instructions and peer- and example-looking actions.

In the spring, although Julie demonstrated understanding of the teacher’s instructions during project time and was observed to decrease NCA, she still struggled when doing “Let’s Find Out,” or when she was given instructions or heard

words that she did not know, all the way through the end of the school year.

### *Private Speech*

In the fall, Julie repeated to herself words mentioned by teachers to practice or memorize (e.g., “Cold” “Arctic” 10/18) during project time. However, PS was primarily used during play time (September through November), as she directed her behavior (e.g., “Right here. Push the chair” 11/07) or described her role-play (e.g., “Mama, mama, Woong-ae, woong-ae [sound of babies crying in Korean]” 09/27) while she played alone at the doll-house.

In the winter and spring, Julie did not use private speech very often. However, she gave directions to herself when she used it (e.g., “1, 2, 3, 4, 5,” 01/30 and “Big heart. I need a big heart,” 02/08). Julie also barely used private speech during play; she played with others rather than playing alone.

### *Non-Responses*

NR occurred when Julie did not seem to understand her teachers’ and peers’ questions. For example, a teacher asked Julie during a group time “What do you think it (number card “24”) starts with?” Julie did not answer looking at the teacher (10/24).

### *Non-Verbal Communication*

From September to December, Julie passively communicated with her teachers, using nonverbal interactions, such as pointing and nodding. Julie demonstrated some anxious behaviors such as biting her lips and rocking her body from side to side when she was asked a question during group time. For example, when Julie was the calendar helper and the teacher asked, “Today is –? ” she bit her

lips and rocked from side to side (10/24). However, from the middle of December on, when the teacher asked questions during group and project times, Julie started to raise her hand.

During play time, Julie observed what her peers were doing and used nonverbal gestures to get their attention (e.g., giggling, giving other children objects at her table, 09/27). Julie gradually responded to other children and engaged in their conversations. As VC increased from February on, NVC were rarely used. Julie continued, however, to use some NVC, such as nodding and pointing, to answer teachers' and peers' questions.

#### *Verbal Communication*

##### *Fall*

The main function of Julie's verbal communication from September through December was repetition (of teacher's last words, agreement repetition, and peers' requests). Her English-speaking skill was not equal to that of her peers. When Julie did not understand what her peers said to her during play, she usually complied with their demands and directions, especially with Gabi, using the expressions "Yeah" (10/18) and "Okay" (10/20). If Julie could not express herself verbally, she used nonverbal behavior, such as pointing. Her exclamations, repetition of peers' expressions and requests for clarification sustained the conversations and play (e.g., "Oh!," "Oh, no." 10/26 "Cut that out?" 11/07). Her English was corrected by her peers through repeated kitchen and doll house themes in the sociodramatic area. This seemed to allow her to understand what her peers were saying so that she could communicate and act appropriately.



## *Winter*

January was the turning point when Julie advanced from being just a responder to becoming an initiator with teachers and peers. She began using diverse verbal functions and varied the types of verbal functions equally using attention-getting (“Look” 01/04), suggestions (“Let’s go to the train” 01/11), descriptions (“My napkin is ripped” 02/08), protests (“Stop” 02/09), simple responses (“Tuesday” 02/22), compliance (“Yeah” 01/19), and agreement repetition (“I love bananas” 01/22). Julie often used snack time to seek attention, saying “Look.” She seemed to have needed her classmates’ attention to elicit their interests and share hers with them. If she could get their attention, she could better interact and communicate with them.

If her peers did not respond, Julie could not start communicating with them. Consequently, she had to use another expression to get attention (e.g., “I make [made] E” 01/18) or find another child who would give her attention. However, communication stopped when Julie could not obtain a response from peers. From February on, Julie engaged her peers, using teaching (“You’re wrong way. The other side” 02/08), suggestions (“You can do the computer” 02/09), attention-getting (“Look at this” 02/20), and descriptions (“I spilled it” 02/20). At the same time, Julie’s initiative in the interactions with her classmates led to their correcting her misused words (e.g., “Chocolate chip cookie, not chocolate cookie” 02/08) and guided teachers’ instructions during play and project times (e.g., Logan advised Julie when she did not understand the post office theme in the sociodramatic area, 02/08).

## *Spring*

From March on, Julie communicated with her peers based on four functions: requests (“Can I have this?” 03/27), protests (“No, stop! I don’t like you” 05/04), attention-getting (“I’m so hot” 03/27), and descriptions (“I give it to her” 04/24). In the spring, attention-getting was sought through descriptions, “It’s not coming out” (04/20) rather than being direct, such as by saying, “Look!” (01/12).

Julie raised her voice as she became more confident communicatively. Unlike in February, when she accepted the intervention of her classmates, Julie began to protest whenever other children tried to correct her work. For example, Logan pointed out that she was allowed to use only one color on the rainbow, after she had used two colors. Julie protested, “It starts to pink.” Julie had followed the lead teacher’s instruction, as she had when the teacher instructed, “Color each one different” (03/06). Her protests lengthened in April, as she began to provide reasons for her protestations, “No! You already do that” and “I already pack it” (04/24). In May, as she became more independent and confident, Julie used diverse verbal functions, such as protests, claims, rules, and reasons.

### Example 4.1 Pony play (05/04)

Julie had four ponies; Annie approached and took one of them.

Julie (J): That’s mine.

Annie (A): You got to share with me.

J: But, I know, I know. This is mine.

A: (grabbed one of ponies) I don’t have this one.

J: You don’t [can’t] have this one. You [were] playing in the kitchen.

A: No.

J: I got first.

They pulled the pony toward them.

A: I don’t have this.

J: Just shared tomorrow. Okay?

A took the basket near Julie

J: Don’t do that [don’t take it]

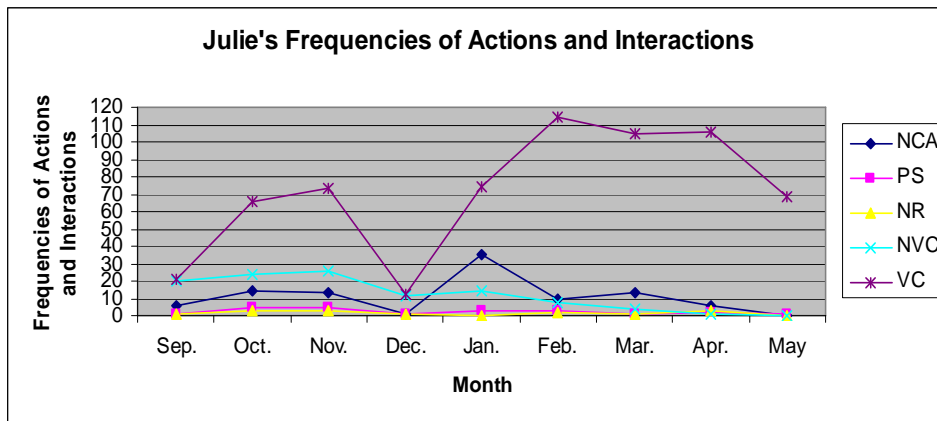
J gave one of the ponies.  
 A: You be a mom.  
 A: (tickled Julie's ponies as she said) Tickle, tickle.  
 J: Don't do mine. Leave me alone.  
 A: Help me. Mom.  
 J: Okay, I'm coming.  
 ...  
 Sophie joined and Julie announced, "This is mom. This is baby."  
 A: No.  
 Sophie (S): No. This is mom. This is little sister.  
 J: No, this is mom, too.  
 Annie and Sophie hit Julie's pony.  
 J: No, no. Stop! I don't like you.  
 J stayed a few feet away from Sophie and Annie.  
 A: (to S) Mom, help, help  
 J: (approached them and shouted) Help! I'm stuck."  
 S: Magic word?

Overall, the pattern of verbal functions used by Julie showed that she first needed to gain her peers' attention to begin communicating and then to sustain conversations. As her communication skills and competence developed, she justified her arguments and protests whenever her opinions or demands did not prevail.

In summary, as Figure 4.1 indicates, nonverbal and verbal communications appeared evenly in September. From October on, verbal communications continued throughout the year, as Julie communicated and played with other children. From January on, Julie initiated conversations with her teachers and peers actively, especially from February through April.

NCA occurred in the fall and occurred mostly in January, when the workload increased so much that she could not keep up with all the new words; consequently, she could not understand the teacher's instructions. PS and NR were rarely used.

Figure 4.1 Frequencies<sup>8</sup> of Actions and Interactions: Julie



NCA= non-communicative actions, PS= private speech, NR= no- responses, NVC= nonverbal communications, VC= verbal communications

### *Paul*

#### *Non-Communicative Action*

At the beginning of the school year, Paul appeared to rely on teachers' gestures (mostly pointing) to understand what the teacher wanted him to do during project time. For example, the teacher instructed "Dip it in the glue" (09/21). He had a nervous expression, as he raised two eyebrows and looked at the teacher. The teacher pointed to the glue and gestured what to do. Paul finally followed the instruction. He gradually developed peer-looking actions for clues and, in November, developed example-looking actions during project time. Paul relied on example-looking rather than peer-looking actions, after he discovered the examples.

Another type of NCA was used to express his interests in his peers and their activities. He looked at his classmates during snack time, project time, and play time, but did not communicate with them. NCA continued throughout the year, especially, during January through April; Paul looked at what his peers were doing rather than

<sup>8</sup> December and May data had lower frequencies due to holidays, winter break, and early school closing.

looking for clues from them.

### *Private Speech*

In the fall of the school year, Paul's private speech was mostly used to direct himself in activities during project time, play time, art class, and music class (e.g., "a back [turn the back page]" 11/07). He also employed PS to teach himself new words that the teachers spoke in the fall and spring, (e.g., "Glue stick, glue stick" 03/22). However, in the spring Paul used PS during play time rather than project time when he did not have any friends with whom to communicate (e.g., "I need car," 04/25, "I know big one" 05/04).

### *Non-Responses*

NR was made when Paul did not communicate with his peers in the fall of the school year. He already showed interest in his peers around him, but when they asked him something, he did not respond verbally or non-verbally in September, October, and November. In the winter and spring, NR did not occur very often since Paul tried to access and communicate with his peers.

### *Non-Verbal Communication*

Paul used nonverbal communication with teachers and peers, most of the time, in the fall. However, in the winter, when he had show-and-tell, he answered non-verbally (nodding and shaking his head) to the teacher and other children.

### *Verbal Communication*

#### *Fall*

The main functions of Paul's verbal communication from September through December were description (for explanation, attention-getting, and completion of his

work), simple response (“Bug” 11/03), and attention-getting (“Look at” 12/01).

Attention-getting using a “Look at” expression occurred from October on, but he also displayed verbal sound forms, such as “Aha ha ha” (12/01) and tried to capture his peers’ attention. He started to monopolize books and blocks in which most children were interested in the book area and block area.

### *Winter*

In January, Paul’s descriptions were mostly used to express to teachers that he could not perform his work: “I can’t do it. I can’t make rectangle” 01/09, “Can’t do this, can staple” [I need to staple], “Can’t do eyes. Can’t do nose” 01/23.

Paul also used repetition to socialize with his peers as he repeated his peers’ speech. His repetition either directly followed what a peer said or was used later in similar situations or in the play areas. For example, when Marimoto showed a book to Paul, he said “Paul, crazy one” (01/23). Later, Paul used the same expression to Mark, “Mark, crazy one” (01/23). In February, he still used the same function of attention-getting as he did in the fall; he tried to gain his peer’s attention, as he giggled “Commandership? Aha ha” (02/01).

### *Spring*

In March and April, Paul tried to engage in play with his peers, as he entered into their play and suggested, as he mentioned his opinions, such as “How about this car?” (04/13) and “How about battleship?” (04/18).

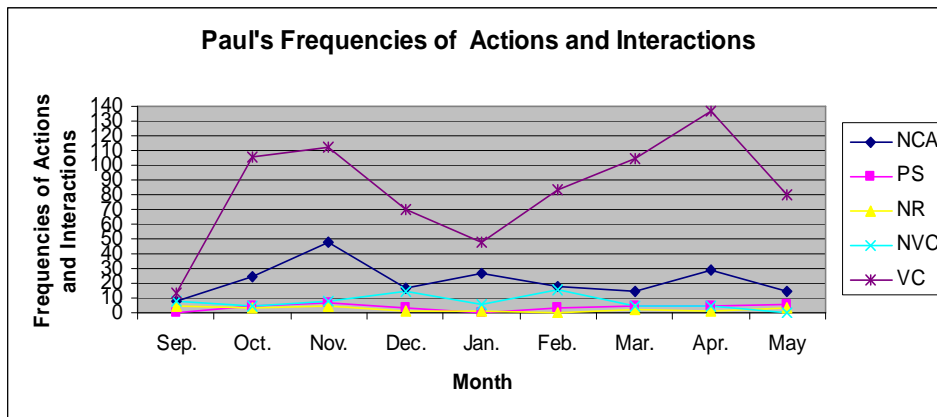
On the other hand, his protests increased and were mostly used in April. His protests in March caused the process of monopolizing blocks in the block area. His peers wanted blocks that Paul monopolized and he did not want to share with them.

In May, Paul still did not catch his peers' attention so he used the same strategies to get their attention, using descriptions, attention-getting, and protests. Paul sat by them and tried to be a member of a play group, as he showed his work ("This is missile. Boom and go up" 05/25) and he called their attention directly, "Look at this" (05/22; 05/25). However, Paul protested when his peers interrupted and ruined his work, such as "Stop" (05/10) and "Stop, don't break it" (05/25).

Overall, the pattern of verbal functions used by Paul showed that he first needed to gain his peers' attention to begin communicating, but he could not capture his peers' attention. Paul used the monopolizing strategy, but it caused conflicts with other children and increased his protests as he tried to become a play partner.

In summary, as Figure 4.2 shows, VC was more dominant than NVC from October on, as he attempted to communicate with other children by initiation. Especially in April, Paul's VC increased because he actively initiated with others, but these attempts were unsuccessful. He had to repeat his two verbal functions, attention-getting and descriptions numerous times to engage in their conversations and play, but his peers did not respond to him. As a result, he did not improve his VC, but repeated the same verbal attempts to elicit his peers' attention. NCA continued throughout the year, when Paul showed his interest in his peers during project time and play time. NCA occurred mostly in October, November, January and April. PS and NR were rarely used.

Figure 4.2 Frequencies<sup>9</sup> of Actions and Interactions: Paul



NCA= non-communicative actions, PS= private speech, NR= no- responses, NVC= nonverbal communications, VC= verbal communications

### *Inwoo*

#### *Non-Communicative Action*

Inwoo did not understand teachers' instructions from the beginning of school in the fall. For example, when he was completing a worksheet that required the circling of red and yellow apples, an assistant teacher instructed Inwoo, "Put a circle around the apples and circle around them" or asked "How many yellow apples did you find?" Inwoo scratched his head and looked at Morgan's worksheet in order to get a hint from her (09/28). Whenever Inwoo was in project time, he used peer-looking actions and gradually used example-looking actions in November and December. He also used NCA in order to show interest in his classmates in the classroom and at the playground.

Inwoo's inattentive actions increased from October on when he did not look at or listen to his teachers, but buried his head in his arms or looked at different pages than those which the teachers were explaining. Inattention to projects increased

<sup>9</sup> December and May data had lower frequencies due to holidays, winter break, and early school closing.



during project times, during which he put his head on the table, rubbed his eyes, picked his nose, and looked at other children and teachers until a teacher came to help him. As a result of his increased inattention, Inwoo appeared as if he did not understand his teacher's repeated questions, such as "Where did you get it?" during show-and-tell. He answered, "I'm playing, I'm playing" (04/20).

### *Private Speech*

Inwoo used repetition in response to the teacher's requests and later repeated certain words learned from teachers to direct himself, as he was doing similar projects (coloring "up and down, up and down" (11/28) and gluing "dot, dot, dot" (11/30) from October through December.

Inwoo's PS was mostly used to describe his own behavior, objects he was using or to express his feelings during project time, play time, and snack time: "Push, Push" (10/05), "1,2,3....17" (10/20), "Cookie, Oh my, I take" (11/28). The next most-used PS was unintelligibly talking to himself, while he was playing and was doing projects (e.g., "blah~ Inwoo~" (11/08), "Uho, ho ho~" (12/02).

In the spring, Inwoo no longer directed himself when he was coloring and gluing; On the other hand, the different action of his PS continued to describe the situation and his behavior as well as direct his actions such as "My God, woo, woo," (01/30), "This is not my book [I don't like this book]" (01/31), "Oh man, I got cha" (02/02), "That's it [I'm done]" (01/20), and "I [have to] go home" (04/10).

### *Non-Responses*

Inwoo did not respond to his peers when he was engrossed in his solitary play (See Appendix F for example).

### *Non-Verbal Communication*

Most of the time, NVC, such as pointing and nodding were used when the teachers and peers questioned him in the fall of the school year. Inwoo did not understand the teachers' questions, such as area choices in September; he became accustomed to the questions by the end of October through the repeated routines. However, the teacher's new expression, "Pick one" made him nervous and confused because the words were unfamiliar to him. When the teacher asked in a familiar expression, "Where would you like to go?" he understood.

Example 4.2 At the project area (09/29) Inwoo

T: "Where do you want to go?"

I: Looked at the teacher and nodded his head.

T: "Show me" (*pointing* to the play areas).

I: (was about to go to the art table without response).

T: "Say art"

Example 4.3 At the project area (10/24) Inwoo

T: "Where would you like to go?"

I: "Kitchen" (in low voice).

T: "Kitchen is closed. Pick one."

I: (Put his tongue on his upper lip and made his eyes wide).

T: "Where would you like to go?"

I: (*Pointed* to blocks without saying anything).

### *Verbal Communication*

#### *Fall*

The main functions of Inwoo's verbal communication from September through December were descriptions (for explanation, attention-getting, and completion of his work), simple responses, and repetition.

#### *Winter*

Attention-getting was used to show off his work to teachers in January and extended to his peers in February, by saying, "Look" and pointing out his work to

teachers during project time. This action extended into snack time and play time in February. The function of attention-getting became his major communication skill beginning in February. When he used the “Look at” expression, it was successful; Inwoo said, “Look at grass,” to Morgan and she responded to him. Inwoo’s initiation of using “Look at” opened a line of communication with Morgan. Although he caught Morgan’s attention, his unintelligible verbal sounds hindered communication between them for example his saying “Hello? Mam mam hello oh pook” (02/02).

Another new function of verbal communication was an action request. Since Inwoo did not seek solitary play and participated in other children’s play at the playground, he urged his peers to act immediately, saying “Come on!”

### *Spring*

In March and April, Inwoo’s most-used function was attention-getting; he tried to gain his peers’ attention more than his teachers: “Look at dog” (03/17), “Hey, look at cars” (03/24), and “Look it” (04/20). Inwoo’s protests increased in March and were primarily used in April. On the other hand, Inwoo’s protests occurred when his peers, especially Isaiah and Jay, interrupted his play. Inwoo used the “Hey” expression and unintelligible verbal sounds (e.g., “Oh, you ain’t zzinco ppangko” 05/17) as the protest communication.

In May, Inwoo used the verbal functions evenly: Protests, attention-getting, action requests, and suggestions. Protests were used for the same purpose he used them in March and April. Inwoo developed his protests to negotiate with his peers when he protested them and they did not listen to him, as he asked, “Hey, Jay, don’t do mine car, okay?” and “Let’s see my car and counting” (05/24).

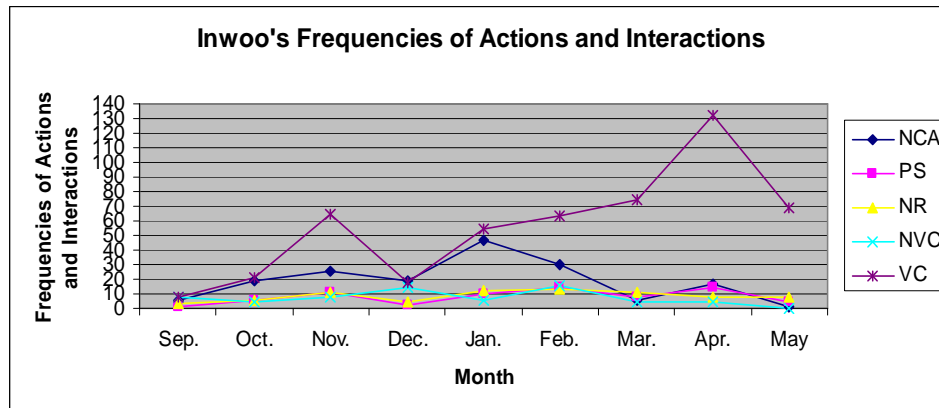
His action request was extended from the playground into the classroom. He requested his peers to encourage their actions, such as “Books away” (05/01) during a clean-up time and “Isaiah, right here [come and sit by me]” (05/15) during reading time.

Overall, the pattern of verbal functions used by Inwoo showed that he passively responded to teachers, using descriptions and simple responses in the fall and the winter. As he became accustomed to the classroom and his peers, he used attention-getting and actively participated in his classmates’ play, using action requests and suggestions at the playground. In the spring, he showed that he was ready to communicate with other children and initiated conversations with his peers. Although his communicative competence increased, his communicative skills to actively engage in conversation did not develop at the same pace. He could not express himself in English so he used self-created verbal sounds. Also, his non-responses made his peers likely to interrupt him and Inwoo became a protestor.

In summary, as Figure 4.3 shows, VC increased from October on, as he responded to teachers and other children. In April, Inwoo’s verbal communication appeared to increase because he initiated with others to get their attention and tried to engage in others’ play. His increase of VC was due to repeating some verbal functions, such as attention-getting, descriptions, and action requests. However, Inwoo’s limited English hampered sustaining conversations. Also, Inwoo initiated communication first to draw his peers’ attention toward him (e.g., “Look at”), but then he did not respond to their subsequent conversation (verbal attempt). NCA continued throughout the year, when Inwoo sought clues from his peers and the

teacher's examples. These actions occurred mostly in January and February because there were many more projects than in other months. PS also increased throughout the year as he described his behaviors to himself during project and play times.

Figure 4.3 Frequencies<sup>10</sup> of Actions and Interactions: Inwoo



NCA= non-communicative actions, PS= private speech, NR= no- responses, NVC= nonverbal communications, VC= verbal communications

#### Actions and Interactions for Julie, Paul, Inwoo

##### *Non-Communicative Action*

ELLs were used to repeated routines through teachers' instructions and peers' conversations while they participated in project and play times (Peter & Boggs, 1986; Ohta, 1999, 2001). Julie used interest-looking in relation to peers the least, as she was joined by peers immediately. Paul used clue-looking the least because he began to understand the teacher's instructions better than Julie and Inwoo, and tended to ask teachers for instructions when he did not understand them. Inwoo primarily employed clue-looking with peers because he did not pay attention to teacher's instructions during project time unless the topic was of particular interest to him. Paul, among the

<sup>10</sup> December and May data had lower frequencies due to holidays, winter break, and early school closing.

three, employed interest-looking in relation to peers most often, as he did not establish any friendships with classmates and wanted to join in his peers' play.

### *Private Speech*

PS was mostly used during the fall while they became accustomed to the instructions. Julie used PS the least because she readily communicated with peers during project and play times. Inwoo used PS more than Julie and Paul. Inwoo's understandable private speech was used to learn new words or to direct his behavior, but changed to unintelligible speech during both project and play times. When he spoke in such a way that nobody could understand, he spoke very fast and did not seem to struggle to say what he wanted.

Paul's PS used in the fall reappeared in May, when Paul could not find anyone with whom to communicate or play. Paul spoke to himself while playing by himself during play time.

### *Non-Responses*

In the fall and winter, all ELLs employed NR. Julie tried to answer her peers and teachers using nonverbal and verbal communication. This occurred, however, when she did not understand her teachers and peers during project time and play time. Paul did not respond to his peers during play time in the fall. Inwoo used NR during project time because he did not understand his teacher's instructions. Also, he used it when he was engrossed in play during play time. In the spring, Julie and Paul rarely used NR, but Inwoo still used NR because he did not respond to his peers if he was engrossed in his play.

### *Non-Verbal Communication*

In the fall, the ELLs used NVC with teachers and peers; however, their types of nonverbal communication varied. Julie most often communicated with teachers nonverbally, showing nervous facial and body expressions until December although she communicated with her peers nonverbally and verbally beginning in September. On the other hand, Paul communicated with teachers from September on, but did not respond to his peers until the middle of October.

Inwoo responded most passively to teachers and peers but responded when they asked questions. Inwoo started conversations with peers in November, but used NVC with teachers until December. In the spring, all ELLs rarely used NVC as they communicated verbally.

### *Verbal Communication*

In the fall, the ELLs' most-used verbal functions were descriptions and attention-getting. These two functions were useful in eliciting their peers' attention in order to communicate with other children. Inwoo used these functions, but he did not maintain conversations to continue them. In other words, Inwoo responded to peer's initiation, but did not actively engage in the conversations. Paul used these two functions the most; however, he failed to elicit his peer's attention because of his peers' disinterest and neglect. As a result, he could not continue his conversations. Only Julie could extend these two functions to another verbal function, such as suggestions and questions.

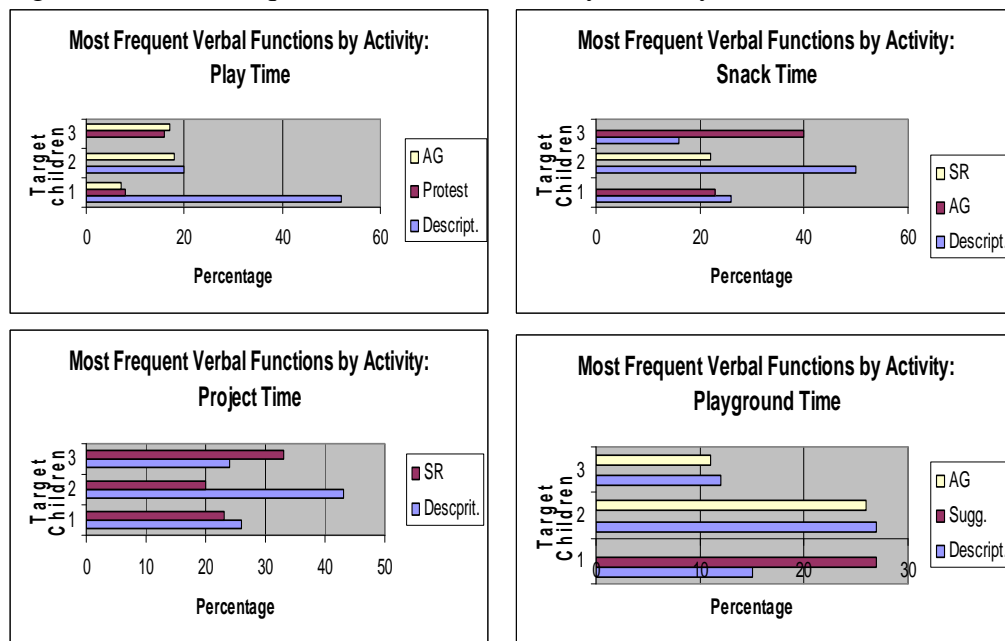
In the winter and spring, the children initiated communications with peers using descriptions and attention-getting. When Inwoo communicated with other

children, his purpose seemed to gain attention from them: he described what he made or asked them to see his work. In other words, Inwoo showed self-centered conversational skill. He did not show any interest in what his peers were doing. He was busy with his own play and announced what he was doing until April in the classroom, whereas role-play allotment and suggestion were employed on the playground. Although Inwoo started conversations, addressing his peers' needs beginning in April, his limited English skills hindered more communication with them and he developed unintelligible speech to communicate or express himself to other children.

A total of 1,945 verbal communications were recorded during this period (Julie: 635, Paul: 773, and Inwoo: 537). The most frequently used verbal functions among the three children were descriptions, attention-getting, simple responses, and protests (See Figure 4.4). Descriptions and attention-getting functions were used to get others' attention and to seek their responses by saying such things as "I spilled it" (02/20) and "Look at" (04/06). Simple responses occurred during show-and-tell and project time with one word statements, as they responded to the teachers and other children such as "Bug" (11/03), and "Cloudy" (11/15). Protests were used by the ELLs to resist their peers whenever they were interrupted; mostly they used the word "Stop."



Figure 4.4 Most Frequent Verbal Functions by Activity



1= Julie, 2= Paul, 3= Inwoo, AG= Attention-getting, SR= Simple response, Descript.= Description, Sugg.= Suggestion

### ELLs' Speech Development: Formulaic to Productive Speech<sup>11</sup>

The children's conversations were examined to determine how their speech developed from formulaic to productive speech (Wong-Fillmore, 1979; Saville-Travoike, 1988; Tabors, 1997; Schmitt & Carter, 2006; Wood, 2009). Six types of formulaic speech were primarily used to facilitate communication with others: 1) attention-calling ("Look at," "Hey"), 2) protest ("Stop it"), 3) announcement of completing a work ("I'm finished," "I'm done," and "I did it"), 4) claiming ("This is mine," "I got first"), and 5) self-assertion formulas starting with "It is" "This (That) is-" and 6) I+ Verbs (frequently used verbs such as need, got, can, make, being).

Julie's patterns of formulaic speech changed from automatic expressions that

<sup>11</sup> I did not observe Julie and Inwoo's telegraphic speech, but I observed Paul using "That" as telegraphic speech. The most frequent meaning of "That" had three functions: 1) announcement of completion ("I'm done"), 2) getting attention from teachers and his classmates ("Look at this, I did it"), and 3) clarification of the teachers' instructions ("You mean like this?").

were heard from her native-speaking classroom members, such as “Stop it” to complex phrases that were freed from the basic forms (e.g., “I already bumped her” 04/20, “Maybe, we just doing together” 05/04). In the beginning of the school year, Julie used the expressions heard from other members (e.g., “It’s mine” 09/27, “Look” 10/26, “Give me” 10/20), and then she applied the words in appropriate situations with variations (e.g., “Give a dollar” 01/19, “Give it to me” 03/06, “I gave it to her” 05/04). She also used specific verbs that fit a particular situation (“got,” “need,” “have,” and “can”), starting from first person expressions (e.g., “I need this,” 10/26) then extending to the third person expressions (e.g., “He need an ice-cream” 02/08, “Do you need mine or here?” 03/27). Finally, Julie was freed from the formula and was able to communicate what she wanted to say although she does not have perfect English skills (e.g., “My mommy do bigger me” 03/27, “I never have baby one” 05/04).

In the beginning of Paul’s formulaic speech, he practiced his announcement of completion of work with several variations: “Finish, I’m done” 10/04, “Done me” 10/17, “I’m finished, finish, I’m finish” 11/14. At the same time, he used two verbs, “Make” and “Got” and added verbs, “Need” and “Can” to express himself as he practiced the words with variations: “I make Pokamine” (Pokemon character out of a movie), “I got blue, got blue, me got that” 10/11, “Need this?” 01/09, “Can do this” 01/09.

Paul started to use several basic forms of “I got-,” “I make-,” “I can-,” “I need,” and “This is-” that helped him to communicate with others, but sometimes he omitted a subject (“Got 10 eggs” 04/19, “Can’t do circle” 04/25). At the same time,

Paul used “This is-” and “It’s-” forms frequently to explain his works and gain attention from his peers: “This is my car, this is broken” 04/18, “It’s sticky” 04/19, “It’s house?” 4/27. Although Paul applied more complex sentences that were freed from basic forms (e.g., “Got the M and now turn to W” 3/22, “You keep one of my pieces” 4/13), most of the time, he communicated with these basic forms with variations.

Inwoo’s formulaic speech had typical patterns, using “Hey,” “Look at,” “I’m done,” “I’m finished,” “It’s mine,” and “Stop” in the beginning. Although he developed his speech from the whole formulaic speech to creative speech that fits a particular context, he did not put verbs in his sentences so other children and teachers had to guess the intent from his gestures or situations: “I (made) umbrella” 11/15, “I (wrote) number 2” 11/28.

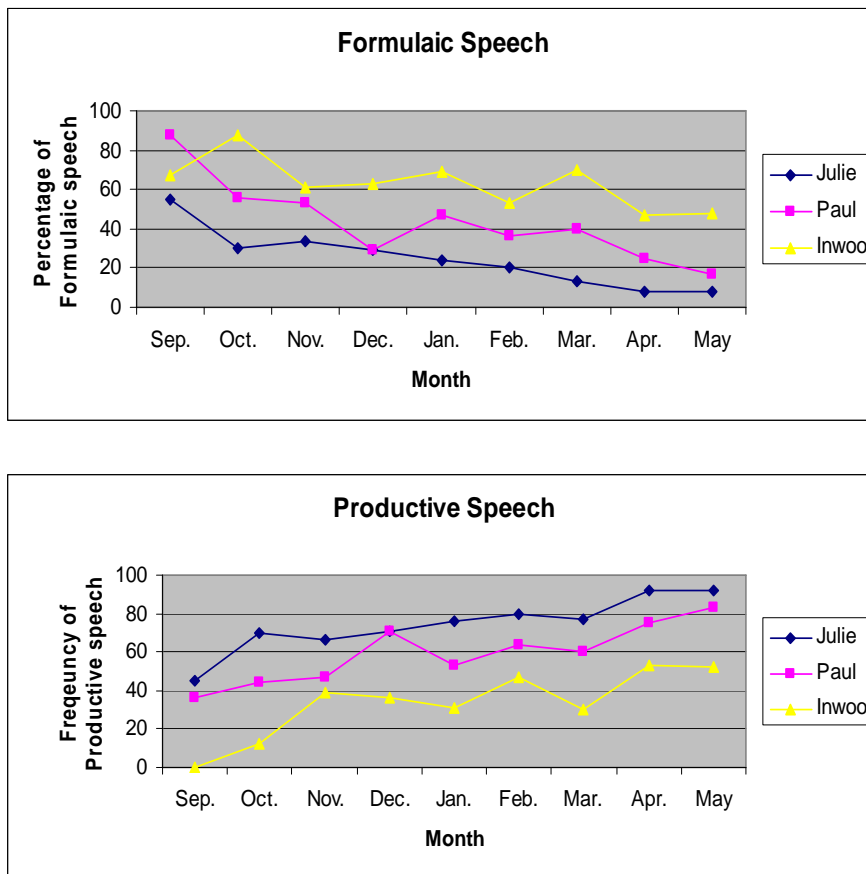
In January, Inwoo started to use “I got-,” “It’s-,” “This is-,” and “I need-”: e.g., “I got this” 01/04, “It’s a boy” 01/11/07, “This is overway” 01/18, “I need pencil” 01/31. At the same time, Inwoo elaborated his expressions by using the basic forms with added elements in the situations: “Look at my cars” (02/02), and “I’m done my picture” (04/10). Since Inwoo did not apply useful verbs such as “Can” and “Make” to his speech, he could not deliver his messages well to his peers. For example, Jay approached Inwoo and took some of his blocks while Inwoo was building blocks. Inwoo spoke to Jay in an angry voice “Hey, you’re not playing, you’re not” [You can’t play here], “Hey, you’re not my blocks” [You can’t play with my blocks], 04/26.

Sometimes, Inwoo tried to use phrases freed from the typical patterns of formulaic speech that he used, such as “This is no green of it” (02/02), and “My not

coat [I did not bring my coat]" (04/20). He seemed to confuse the language structures of Korean and English. Korean language has a structure of Subject + Object + Verb. Inwoo sometimes spoke English with this structure (e.g., "Elija my blocks kick" 04/20, and "Hey, Elija, mine cars count," 04/24). However, Inwoo mostly used formulaic speech with the variations of basic forms and added elements to assist him in communicating with others.

As Figure 4.5 shows, Julie used more formulaic speech than productive speech during September. From October on, her formulaic speech decreased and turned into productive speech. Paul relied more on formulaic speech than productive speech from September to November. From December on, his productive speech developed more than formulaic speech. Inwoo's formulaic speech was more dominant than productive speech. Although he tried to employ productive speech, his speech did not turn into productive speech as much as Julie's and Paul's did.

Figure 4.5 Comparison of Formulaic and Productive Speech



## Research Question 2: How do Preschool Children Use Social Relationships to Learn English?

In this section, the use of access and initiation as a first step for communication was examined for all three children in order to understand language learning. Access and initiation strategies were analyzed by the same categories of verbal functions that were used for analysis of verbal communication. Also, the three ELLs' play types and collaboration between the ELLs and their peers and between the ELLs and their teachers were analyzed.

### *Access and Initiation*

For communications or conversations to occur, the ELLs had to have access to their peers, when the ELLs started to communicate with their peers they used access and initiation. Based on observations of the ELLs as they sought play partners and tried to become friends with others, access and initiation strategies were found to be the primary means of establishing communication with peers.

In this study, *access* is the term used to describe nonverbal and verbal attempts with a specific purpose to participate in and to become involved with certain peers' conversations and play during play time. Once the ELLs or their peers gained access, they would either initiate conversations or respond to the peers. In other words, *access* is the ELLs' act of approaching or entering to be a play partner or to communicate nonverbally or verbally. *Initiation* is the term used to describe verbal attempts during play and project time for sustaining play or conversations. However, initiation could occur without access attempts when the ELLs or their peers play parallel or side-by-side during play and project time. The ELLs or their peers would

initiate conversations without access.

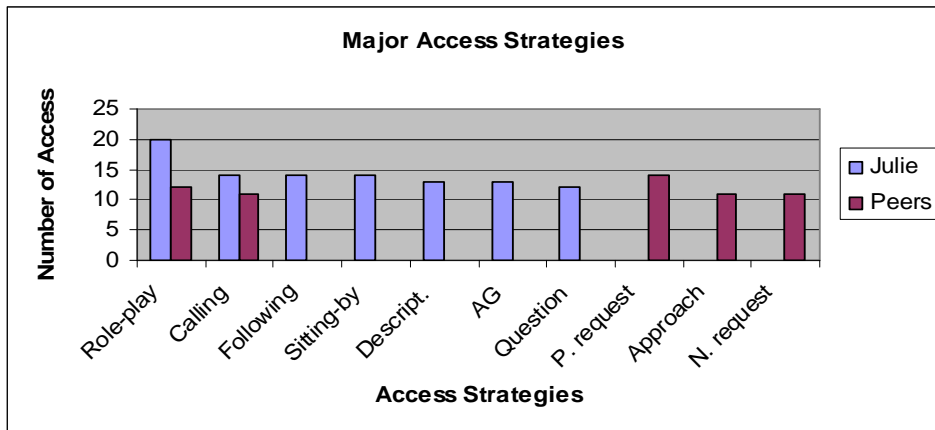
### *Access*

The most-used access strategies by the ELLs were descriptions, following, permission request, and role-play. Peers mostly used permission request, approaching, and role-play.

### *Julie*

Over the course of the year, Julie used ten access strategies in ten different areas. In the kitchen and doll house areas, she used the strategies related to role-play: role-play calling (e.g., “Mom? Mom?” 3/17), role-play opening (e.g., “Hello?” 10/09), role announcement (e.g., “I’m do mom, I’m do mom.” 03/27), and role-permission (e.g., “Hey, I’m a mommy. Okay?” 02/08), descriptions (e.g., “Here is a baby. Her’s trying to a friend” 04/20) used with the same frequency to access others. In addition, attention-getting (e.g., “Look!” 02/08) and sitting beside peers without making any requests rather than directly asking to play was employed during play time. Outside, Julie followed the children with whom she wanted to play, without verbal communication. As shown by Figure 4.6, the most-utilized access strategy was role-play. Unlike Julie’s access strategies, her peers asked Julie directly if they could play with her (“Can I play with you?” 01/10). Julie’s most-accessed peers were Gabi, Annie, Sophie, and Emily and her peers who accessed Julie most often were Gabi and Annie.

Figure 4.6 Access Strategies Used by Julie and Peers in Communication



Descript.= Description, P. request= Permission request, AG = Attention-getting, Approach= Approaching, N. request= Need request

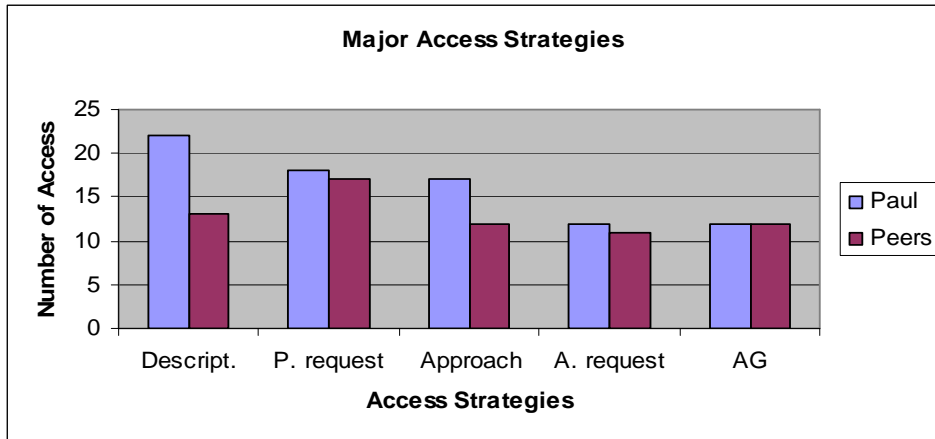
### Paul

Paul used nine access strategies in seven different areas. In the book and block areas, he used descriptions (e.g., “I got that. I got that” 12/01) and directly asking (e.g., “Can I play with you?” 03/29). He also used suggestions (e.g., “[Let’s] Playing blocks” 01/9) and action requests (e.g., “Eat something” 10/17) to urge the children in the area to play with him. Paul approached his classmates with whom he wanted to play without verbal communication, or laughed at them to gain the children’s attention on the playground.

As Figure 4.7 shows, Paul’s most-utilized access strategy was descriptions and Paul asked his classmates directly if they wanted or needed certain items, such as books and blocks (e.g., “Do you need this?” 01/09). The most-utilized access strategy of his peers was asking directly, using permission requests to find out if he wanted to play with them (“Can I play with you?” 09/28). The peers who accessed Paul were Bruce A, Mark, Marimoto, and Nick. The peers whom Paul most frequently accessed were Mark and Marimoto.



Figure 4.7 Access Strategies Used by Paul and Peers in Communication



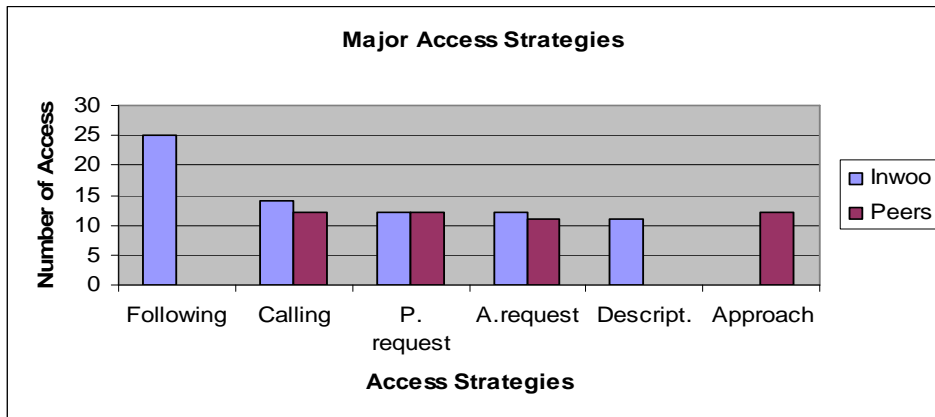
Description, P. request= Permission request, Approach= Approaching  
A. request= Action request, AG= Attention-getting

*Inwoo.*

Inwoo used six access strategies in nine different areas. In the classroom he used permission requests (e.g., “Can I play?” 11/28), callings (e.g., “Hey, Jay” 05/17), suggestions (e.g., “Jay, go post office [Let’s go to the post office]” 02/09) and descriptions (e.g., “I got this” 01/05). At the playground, Inwoo followed the children with whom he wanted to play, without verbal communication and then accompanied it with calling and action requests (e.g., “You go, go, go” 01/19). The peers whom Inwoo most frequently accessed were Isaiah and Jay.

As Figure 4.8 shows, Inwoo’s most-utilized access strategies were nonverbal following and approaching. On the other hand, his peers who accessed Inwoo the most were Isaiah, Jay and Timothy B. The access strategies of his peers were calling, permission requests, nonverbal approaches, and action requests.

Figure 4.8 Access Strategies Used by Inwoo and Peers in Communication



P. request= Permission request, A. request= Action request, Descript.= Description, Approach= Approaching

### *Initiation*

To understand how ELLs learned English in relationships with other children, interactions are analyzed and compared: peers' responses to ELLs' initiated communication, ELLs' responses to peers' communication attempts, and non-response rates by ELLs and their peers. The most-utilized initiations by ELLs were attention-getting, description, questions, suggestions, action request, teaching and role-calling.

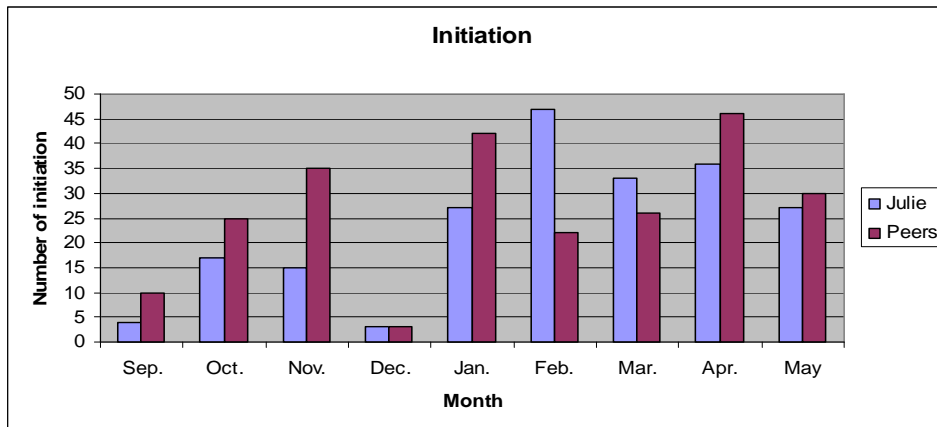
### *Julie*

Julie used various verbal functions to initiate conversations with her peers. The most-used verbal functions were attention-getting (e.g., "Hey, look" 2/20), description (e.g., "I got show-and-tell" 02/09), role-playing (e.g., "Hey, I'm a mom. Okay?" 02/08) suggestions (e.g., "How about a knife?" 10/18) and questions (e.g., "Who will get on?" 12/05).

Julie initiated communication 209 times from September through May. As Figure 4.9 shows, the number of initiations increased over time and the most

initiations occurred, exceeding peer's initiations, in February and March. In May, Julie initiated as many communications as her peers. On the other hand, peers attempted communication 236 times from September through May.

Figure 4.9 Initiations by Julie and by her Peers, by Month



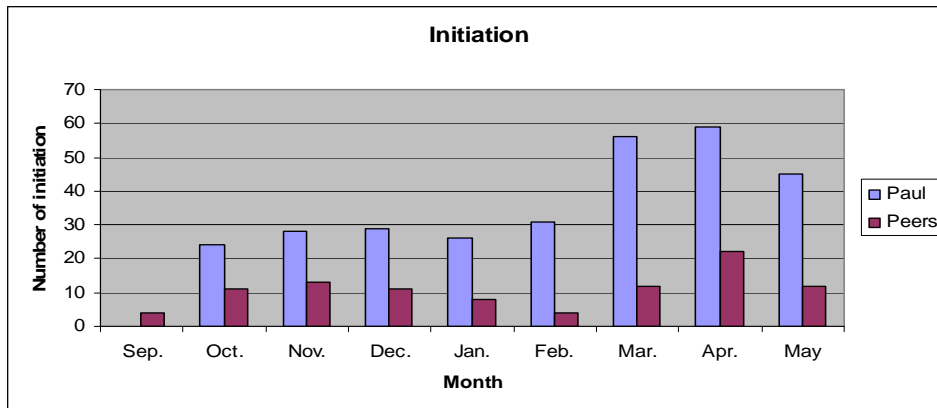
*Paul*

Paul used diverse verbal functions to initiate conversations with his peers. The most-utilized verbal functions were descriptions (e.g., “I make this. Make this, make this” 11/09/06), attention-getting (e.g., “Look at” 02/08), mention of “need (e.g., “I need command[er]ship” 04/25), and suggestions (e.g., “How about battleship?” 04/25).

Paul initiated communication 298 times from September through May. Figure 4.10 shows Paul’s efforts to be a member of the classroom community for the entire year. As time progressed, Paul initiated more conversations than his peers.

The most initiations occurred during the spring, March through May. In the spring, play with peers transformed from on-looker or parallel play into being an active participant. In other words, Paul no longer played by himself or waited for his classmates, who now approached and asked him to play with them. On the other hand, there were 97 initiations made by peers from September to May.

Figure 4.10 Initiations by Paul and by his Peers, by Month

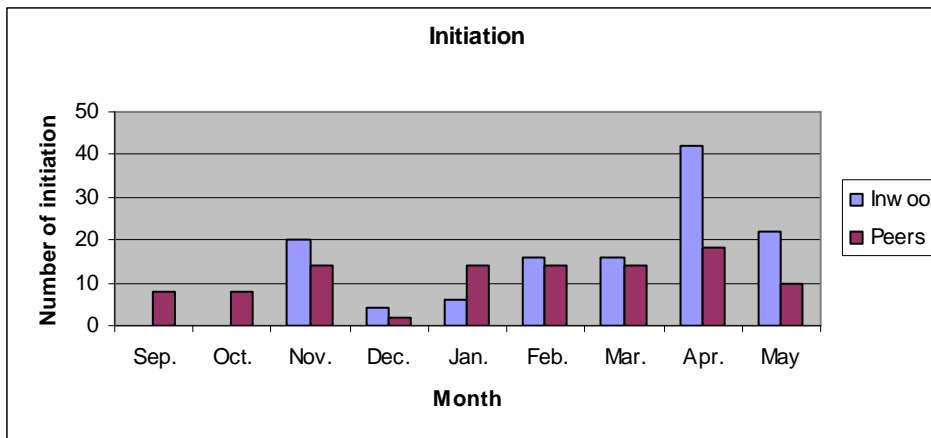


### *Inwoo*

Inwoo's most-utilized verbal functions were attention-getting (e.g., "Look at" 03/13), descriptions (e.g., "This is not mine" 02/02), action requests (e.g., "Come on, Isaiah" 01/04), and questions (e.g., "Where is E?" 02/27).

Inwoo initiated communication 126 times from September through May. As Figure 4.11 shows, the number of initiations increased over time and at their peak, exceeded those of his peers. Although Inwoo usually initiated communication, he then did not respond to their subsequent attempts to play with him until March. For example, Inwoo and Jay were at the Lego table. Inwoo said, "Go rail" as he grabbed some blocks. Jay responded to Inwoo, "I don't like it. Inwoo. Inwoo? Have you? Guess what?" Inwoo did not respond to him; instead, he was building blocks. A little bit later, Jay said to Inwoo, "No, that's too much." Inwoo did not say anything to him (01/22). Inwoo, from April on, tried to participate in other children's play; however, his limited and unintelligible English hindered his communication with others. Peers attempted communication with Inwoo 102 times from September through May.

Figure 4.11 Initiations by Inwoo and by his Peers, by Month



### Collaboration with Classroom Members

#### *Collaboration with Peers*

Collaboration is a recursive process where two or more people or organizations work together in an intersection of common goal (Marinez-Moyano, 2010). In the preschool, children engaged in collaboration when they were jointly involved in communication and play.

Julie appeared to have learned English while she initiated conversations and received feedback from her peers. Julie developed her communicative competence through interactional routines every day as she played and conversed with other children. She practiced and elaborated upon her English-language skills by initiating conversations, or engaging in compliance or cooperation with other children, and imitating and repeating new words used by her classmates.

On the other hand, Paul appeared to have learned English while he heard expressions from his peers, sitting by them, memorizing their words and then using them later. Although social interactions between Paul and his peers did not occur

often, he had some opportunities to participate in conversations in the book area of the classroom. While he sat by other children, especially Bruce W and Mark, he learned their expressions and used them later in order to socialize with other children. Paul attempted collaborations with his peers through engagement, getting attention, and offering, but few social interactions occurred.

Inwoo's peers guided and corrected when he did not follow the expected rules from the expected roles of his peers, such as line leader. His peers tried to help Inwoo when he did not follow the rules, when he did not know his roles, and when he did not understand what the teachers asked him. In November, when Inwoo did not respond to the media teacher, Sophie told the teacher, "He doesn't understand," and the rest of the class agreed with her, saying, "Yeah, he doesn't."

Peers' scaffolding occurred from September to February. In the fall, peers' teaching approach was to let Inwoo know the rules and his roles in the classroom. In the winter, instructions were added to their teaching because Inwoo did not pay attention to his teachers during the project times. Some of his classmates, such as Morgan, Jay, and Timothy B tried to teach him what he had to do. In the spring, nobody assisted; in other words, his peers did not pay attention to him, even when he did not follow the teacher's instructions. Julie and Inwoo received assistance from their peers; Paul did not receive any correction or feedback from his peers (See examples below).

Example 4.13 In the Reading Area (10/20) Julie  
Gabi, M, and Julie looked at the book titled *Ten Timid Ghosts*.  
M: "Alien," (pointing to the mummies pictured in the book).  
G: "No, it's mummy."  
J: "Mommy."  
G: (to Julie) "No, mummy."

J: "Yeah, mommy."

G: (Shrugged her shoulder, looking at Sophie near them)

Example 4.14 In the Sociodramatic Area (02/08) Julie

The kitchen was transformed into a post office, with stamps, stickers, a cash register, and a keyboard. Logan was at the cash register.

Julie went to the sink and brought some food to the cash register.

L: "No food. You can't pick this."

L: (pointed to the stickers and stamps on the sink).

J: grabbed the stickers and brought them to Logan as she giggled.

....

L: "You have to put this on." (pointing to the mailman costumes).

J: "Sure."

Example 4.15 In the Art Class (03/13) Inwoo

After the art class was finished, the children lined up to go back to their classroom.

Inwoo was a line-leader, but he stood in the middle of the line. Timothy B called out, "Inwoo, you're the line-leader. Comes up."

Example 4.16 At the Project Area (12/06) Inwoo

The teacher asked some of the children to color an octopus in blue and the rest of them to color it in brown. Inwoo was coloring his octopus in brown. Annie instructed him, "No brown, okay?" Inwoo looked at Annie's sheet and started to color it in blue.

### *Collaboration with Teachers*

The teachers in the two classrooms had instructional roles during project time, but they rarely communicated with any of the children during play time. Their primary scaffolding and help for the three ELLs took place in the fall, when the children did not understand the instructions, and decreased over time. However, one type of scaffolding continued throughout the school year: the teachers continued to point whenever they saw that ELLs were struggling. For example, when the teacher told the class to circle the name of the author and to underline the title, Julie did not understand what the teacher was saying and she looked around at her classmates. The assistant teacher approached Julie and pointed to the author and the title (04/12).

Without timely and appropriate intervention or scaffolding, ELLs sometimes

misunderstood teachers' instruction. The teachers helped them when the ELLs did not know certain words and could not get any clues about instructions.

Collaboration between Julie and her teachers was observed in the fall when they gave her individual attention. During project time, the lead teacher tried to help her using gestures such as pointing, asking her to repeat specific words (e.g., "Say 'arms'" 09/27), or speaking especially slowly. Such scaffolding by the teachers was reduced when the group projects were conducted with all the children in the classroom, rather than in small groups.

Most of the time, Paul interacted with teachers during project time. When Paul was not familiar with the procedures, the teachers taught him by demonstrating it for him, requesting that he repeat words (e.g., "Say 'angel' "), and showing him others' work as an example.

Inwoo's teacher tried to make Inwoo understand what they were talking about or what he had to do for the projects. These attempts occurred primarily from September to December. In the spring, Inwoo received assistance from his teachers only when the teachers found that Inwoo did not follow the instructions or pay attention to the projects. The nonverbal gestures used by the teachers included pointing and showing, and verbal instructions included speaking slowly and correcting.

#### *Pointing*

Example 4.17 At the Project Area (09/27) Julie

T: "Tell me body parts. What's this (*points* to her eyes)?"

J: "Eyes."

T: "What's this (*pointing* to her nose)?"

J: "Nose"

T: "What is this (*pointing* to her arms)?"

J: looked at them without saying anything.



T: "Arms. Say 'arms'".

*Request of repetition*

Example 4.18 At Snack (12/01) Paul

LT: (Showing different kinds of cookies) "Can you pick out one?"

P: Picks one of Oreos

LT: "*Can you say Oreo?*"

P: "Oreo."

*Showing*

Example 4.19 At the Project Area (02/23) Paul

The lead teacher asked the children to draw their mothers.

P: "Can't do mommy."

Assistant teacher (AT): "Look, Paul. Here are the examples" (*showing other children's*

examples of drawing).

P: "Can't do."

AT: "Would you like to do with pencil or markers?"

P: "Can't do this."

AT: "You can make mommy. See, two more. Like that" (*showing other children's*  
Examples of drawing)

P: "Can't do."

*Gesture with speaking slowly*

Example 4.20 At the Project Area (10/18) Inwoo

The lead teacher asked the children to tear paper in small pieces for gluing on a paper owl.

Inwoo was tearing paper and the teacher came to Inwoo and said, "No. Inwoo, tear it. Tear it, keep tearing it" as she *gestured* tearing paper. *Speaking slowly.*

*Correction*

Example 4.21 At the Project Area (11/15) Inwoo

Inwoo was coloring his umbrella handle and said to the assistant teacher, "Umbrella hand." She asked him, "*Umbrella handle?*" Inwoo nodded.

*Changes in Social Relationships with Peers*

*Julie*

*Fall: September to November*

In September and October, Julie tried to get attention from other children, using nonverbal and verbal communications. Although she played alone at the doll

house in the classroom, Julie began following Gabi; When Gabi and Sophie went to the tire swing together, Julie followed them (10/09; 10/20).

In November, Julie began either to join other children or to invite them to join her play. Julie followed Gabi and tried to be her friend, even though Gabi sometimes excluded her as a playmate. Despite this, Julie always tried to join Gabi.

Example 4.22 In the Kitchen (11/10)

Gabi and Elaine were playing together, and Julie tried to get their attention: “I got one. I got some for you” providing plastic necklaces and cups from the kitchen area. Gabi responded, “No, no” and pushed her. Julie played beside them. Suddenly, Gabi yelled at Julie, “Answer the phone! Answer the phone.” Julie took the phone with a big smile on her face.

Julie appeared to accept Gabi’s demands, and did not protest verbally or physically; rather, she obeyed Gabi’s authoritarian position. In contrast, Julie was an equal when she played with Annie. Julie used negotiation and “give and take” to sustain play or communicate with Annie, and asserted possession during play (“No. It’s mine” 11/16).

*Winter: December to February*

In January, Julie continued to seek Gabi’s friendship despite Gabi’s vacillation. For example, Gabi sought Julie’s concurrence when attempting to exclude Logan from their train play: “This is the girls’ cart. We’re pretending the secret club. Right, Julie?” (01/04). On the other hand, when Julie tried to sit next to Gabi in music class, Gabi invited others to sit next to her (01/04). Julie’s interactions with other potential play partners, like Emily, incorporated negotiation and shared decision making, (“Let’s go to the tire swing” and “Let’s hide” 01/11), which did not occur with Gabi. Nevertheless, Julie still followed Gabi and tried to get her attention.

Julie started to justify her arguments with Gabi by citing social or school

rules. Sometimes Julie supported her positions by pointing to the teachers' models. When Gabi told Julie she was using the wrong color, Julie said, "Orange. See orange" (02/02) in angry voice, pointing to the teachers' model. Another time, Julie disagreed with Gabi's instructions about how to cut out a small goose, exclaiming "huh" loudly and shaking her paper at Gabi. Eventually, Julie's continuing defiance confused Gabi so much that she asked the teacher if she was performing correctly. Julie appeared highly confident and confronted Gabi with clear evidence, such as the teachers' models. Gabi could no longer direct or teach Julie, whose aggressive confidence and convincing evidence seemed to give her an advantage over Gabi.

When Gabi returned from a week's absence, Julie seemed to avoid interaction with her. She sought out other classmates, especially Jay, Inwoo, and Logan. Julie initiated conversations, as she asked to join others (e.g., "Inwoo, go buy something" and "Come on, Logan" 02/08), articulated her needs (e.g., "I want to do this" 02/08), and competed for the attention of others (e.g., "Hey, Look! Green. I green too" 02/20).

*Spring: March to May*

In March, Julie repeated the pattern of following, then not following Gabi. Julie tried to build a new friendship with Emily, who already had a strong relationship with Sophie. Julie would play with Emily whenever Sophie was doing something else, but Emily and Sophie primarily played together exclusively, and rejected others' bids for friendship. That meant that if they were together, no one else was welcome. When this occurred, Julie would play with Gabi, but it was inconsistent.

Julie also tried to establish a new friendship with Annie, but Annie continued

to follow Gabi, not Julie. For example, Julie chased Annie and tried to stand beside her during PE. Annie resisted, “No. Gabi here” and grasped Gabi’s arm and moved her to another position (03/28).

In April, Julie showed interest in resuming a more consistent friendship with Gabi, even though in the meantime, Annie and Gabi had begun to play together more regularly. There were, apparently, no other female classmates with whom to have an exclusive friendship. Sophie and Emily were a team. Brianna, Morgan, Kendall, and Elaine played independently and were not interested in an exclusive friend. Annie played with Gabi and Julie, but was closer to Gabi. Julie appeared to have accepted the fact that Gabi was a leader and did not protest when Gabi announced, “I want to be a captain. Captain go first.” Julie and Elaine followed her at the Jungle Gym. When Elaine grabbed the steering wheel of the Jungle Gym, Julie announced, “Don’t do, Elaine. Gabi do” (04/24). On the other hand, Julie protested when Gabi demanded some objects, such as ponies or a sparkling skirt that Julie already had.

#### Example 4.23 In the Kitchen (04/20)

Annie and Julie were in the kitchen. Julie put on a sparkling skirt. A little later, Gabi came, “I need a skirt.” Julie retorted, “No. I’m first here” and went to the refrigerator. Gabi grabbed at the doll Julie had in her arm, but Julie turned her body away, not letting Gabi take it from her.

In May, as Julie became a more confident communicator, she cooperated more effectively with the other children and confronted them whenever their statements or actions violated her opinions or school rules. However, she was cooperative and never left playing alone (05/04, 05/23).

Overall, her most-frequent verbal communication partners were Gabi, Sophie, Annie, Jay, and Elaine. Except for Gabi (22%), each responder participated in about

10% of Julie's verbal communications.

Julie sought the friendship of Gabi and Annie more than anyone else, although she had contacts with all her classmates. However, because Gabi was sometimes unpleasant, Julie could not maintain a solid friendship with her. Nevertheless, Julie did not give up on the relationship and became a capable and confident communicator.

### *Paul*

#### *Fall: September to November*

At the beginning of the school year, Paul communicated with teachers, not with his peers. When his peers approached and asked something, Paul simply did not respond verbally or non-verbally. He engaged in onlooker behavior, staying on the sideline and observing their play, and when invited to join the group. He said "No" when invited he avoided eye contact. However, he eventually joined Peggy in play, after rejecting her invitation, when Marimoto started to play with her (10/17).

Paul attempted to establish a friendship with Mark following him everywhere he went in the classroom and on the playground from the onset of school. He also developed a relationship with Marimoto, when Mark played with peers. Paul approached and followed Marimoto on the playground (10/11). In the classroom, he approached Marimoto and attempted verbal communication, trying to engage in conversation, using attention-seeking ("Look, mine," "I eat something," and "Eat that" 10/17).

At the end of October, Paul began moving away from onlooker behavior and engaged in a type of parallel play, sitting near but not with other children, primarily in

the block area. He would look for their attention by offering them blocks or asking them to look at his construction.

In November, Paul started to use more direct bids for attention from his peers in the block and book area. Sometimes, by Paul gaining possession of a favorite book, he would invite them to join him. Outside he roamed around the playground, attempting to join Mark's peer group and sometimes Marimoto's but did not give up playing with Mark.

*Winter: December to February*

Paul used monopolizing and possession strategies to attract other children in the book and block area. He showed the books to Mark, Marimoto, Willem, Gary, and Bruce W and offered blocks to them. In the book area, he announced "I got that [book]" (11/29; 12/01) but did not receive any attention from his peers and had to put it back on the shelf. After several attempts, Paul changed his approach strategy in the book area. He sat beside the children who were looking at a book and pointed to something in the book, as he said, "[Look at] that, that"(12/07). For example, Paul approached Bruce W in the reading area. Bruce brought his own Star Wars book and shared the book when Paul joined him. Paul knew the characters and shared this with Bruce. Their mutual interests became a bridge for communications. The book area was the only place where Paul was able to have successful conversation, especially with Bruce W.

Example 4. 24: In the book area (02/23)

B: (Pointing)" It's scary."

P: "Look! Fire!"

B: "Look at him. What's that weird?"

P: "Hey, this gun."

B: "Let's skip the page. Look at this. It's creepy."

P: "It's so creepy. Look! Darks bother [Darth Vader]"  
B: "Yeah."  
P: "Look, Dog bother [Darth Vader]"  
B: "Oh, yes. This is scary. Look! This is the end."

In the block area, Paul monopolized most of the blocks, using the same strategy he did in the book area. This gained him attention from his peers and resulted in protests and negative communications, leading to social isolation and distancing:

Example 4.25 In the Block Area (12/04)

After finishing his project, Paul approached Willem, Mark, and Bruce W and built his own blocks behind them. He put one of containers of blocks beside him. A little later, Bruce W and Willem approached Paul.

BW: "I need a big piece. You use them all?"

P: "Yeah."

BW: "I need a big piece."

W: "We don't have a big piece" (taking one of Paul's)

P: (Screaming) "No!"

*Spring: March to May*

In addition to using monopolizing of materials as bids to gain attention, Paul also played alone or alongside others, often engaged in onlooker behavior and received little attention. Attempts to communicate were not reciprocated. He seemed to become invisible and was ignored by his peers. For example, Paul showed what he made with blocks at a table, saying, "[I] Make this, make this," but nobody paid attention to him (03/08).

Despite this rejection, Paul still persisted in trying to be in Mark's group. He followed Mark and Gary and announced, "I'm your team." Gary responded to him, "Maybe you are or maybe you're not." Paul ran to the small slide by himself. However, later that day, Paul joined Mark and Gary in the block area, although he was not a play partner (05/25). Mark and Gary talked together but not to Paul,

although he tried to enter into their conversations. Finally, Paul built his own building by himself next to them.

Paul also became a victim of Gary. Gary kicked his structures made out of blocks, but Paul barely protested his actions. For example, Gary approached Paul and kicked his blocks, but Paul just said, “Broken” after Gary kicked his building (05/22). His weak protest might be due to his aspiration of joining Mark’s group.

Overall, Paul showed that he wanted to play with Mark from the beginning to the end of the year, trying to gain his attention. However, Paul did not build a friendship with Mark. Paul appeared to be waiting for his favorite peer’s invitation, instead of actively participating in his play and conversations. Also, his English skills did not seem good enough to be a friend to Mark. Mark showed his interest in Paul on the playground at the beginning of school, chasing and following him. However, gradually he responded when Paul accessed him. Finally, Mark communicated with Paul when he needed something that Paul had in the block area or when other children were not available in the book area.

#### *Inwoo*

##### *Fall: September to November*

In September and October, Inwoo did not approach or participate in other’s play although he looked at the children with interest. Inwoo usually went to the art table and traced with templates. The table was for two children and Inwoo had company, but he did not initiate conversations nor did his peers next to him. They were sitting together and did their work without any communication. When Inwoo finished the work, he roamed the classroom; he went to the Lego table, his mailbox,



stood up in the block area and looked at the children who were playing.

In November, Inwoo started to explore the play areas, such as the Lego table and the dramatic area and participated in others' play; he no longer went to areas that were unoccupied. Inwoo showed specific interest in some peers, such as Jay and Isaiah; he followed them on the playground and initiated conversation in the classroom. He also tried to gain attention by using "Look at" phrases. For example, during one snack period, Inwoo put his hands on his eyes and said, "Look at me, look at me, Danny" (11/30).

*Winter: December to February*

Inwoo actively followed Jay and Isaiah on the playground in January. When Isaiah was sick and absent in the middle of January, Jay started to play with Inwoo on the playground and in the classroom, although Inwoo would sometimes ignore Jay if he was engrossed in his play (01/30; 01/31).

In February, if Inwoo was engrossed in his play, and did not respond, Jay moved to another area (02/27). While Jay and Isaiah were his play partners on the playground, Inwoo often played alone beside them in the classroom.

*Spring: March to May*

In March, Inwoo started to show interest in group puzzles and participated with classmates, other than Jay and Isaiah. He used pointing, asking, and looking to join the group to actively participate.

**Example 4.26 Puzzle Matching (03/18)**

Inwoo joined the children who were putting a floor-sized snowman puzzle together. He took two pieces and put them together. When they did not fit into the puzzle, he looked at the children who were putting the puzzle together with two puzzle pieces in his hands.

Sophie: "We're missing."

Gabi: "This one goes here."

Isaiah: "Here" (Trying to put the puzzle piece in a spot).

G: "Let we try."

I: "No, no, no. here?" (Pointing to a wrong spot)

S: "No."

Inwoo gave two pieces to Sophie.

When they finished, Inwoo suggested, "Yeah. Hey, try again."

Sophie and Gabi brought an alphabet puzzle.

I: "Hey, me [give me some pieces]."

Inwoo took the letter A.

S: "Where's A?"

Emily: "He [Inwoo] got an A."

I: "No, no, no. A me [A is mine]."

S: "Can I put A on the train?"

Annie: "That's A" (and took it from Inwoo).

Inwoo did not protest Annie taking the A and looked at the children who were putting together the letters of the alphabet.

From April on, Inwoo actively participated in his peer's play and projects, but his limited English skills make conversations difficult. He was not able to communicate well or participate fully in their conversations because he could not express himself in English. This isolated him from other children, especially when he used non-interpretable language (e.g., "Hey, dolly trucks dory not" 04/24).

#### Example 4.27 At the Playground (05/24)

Inwoo went to Jay who was sitting on a bench and said, "I'm tired. Ally dally shally, oh, why shally." When Timothy A passed by him, Inwoo called to him, "Hey, Timothy, Timothy, Timothy." Timothy A said, "What?" Inwoo spoke loudly, "Wheerly, tally tire. I'm going tire [I'm tired]."

Overall, in the fall and winter, Inwoo played alone and did not participate in playing with others. He sat by Jay and Isaiah, but did not communicate with them nor did he play cooperatively in the classroom. In the spring, Inwoo built his friendship with Jay and Isaiah, and made some attempts to interact with other children such as in puzzle work. When he tried to build more friendships with other children, as he actively participated in his peer's play and entered into other children's conversation,

his limited English hindered his playing and communicating with others.

*The ELLs' Learning English through Social Relationships*

All ELLs approached their favorite peers according to their interests. Julie was socially accepted by her peers and was loyal to Gabi even if Gabi treated her badly. In doing so, Julie developed her communication skills while she followed and complied with Gabi. Paul was socially isolated and neglected and Inwoo was socially accepted, but withdrawn. Paul and Inwoo did not develop communicative skills due to their types of play and social skills.

The ELLs accessed and initiated conversation with their favorite peers; Julie from September on, Paul from October on and Inwoo from November on. However, they used different types of play with different outcomes. Julie tried to be cooperative and participated in her peers' play immediately. On the other hand, Paul engaged in parallel play, sitting by his desired friends until April. In April, he tried to engage in his peers' play, but they did not respond to him nor did they include him in their play. Inwoo also played alone in the classroom, although he was cooperative on the playground. In April, Inwoo tried to actively engage in his peer's play in the classroom, but he did not express himself in English. Both Paul and Inwoo took a long time to participate in their peers' cooperative play. The play types of three ELLs – cooperative play and parallel play – might have been influenced by their communicative and social development, which in turn influenced their ability to build and sustain friendships.

The ELLs also showed different types of choices of friends. Julie never left Gabi until she became communicatively and socially competent although Gabi

repeated inclusion-exclusion so that Julie was able to learn and practice English from Gabi. Paul straddled between Marimoto's group and Mark's group because he wanted to join Mark's group, but they neglected and ignored him whenever he wanted to communicate and cooperate with them. Their rejection kept him isolated and he lost the opportunities for socialization and communication with them. Inwoo had stable friends, but he sought self-centered play. He was not interested in cooperative play with other children who provided opportunities for communication. Thus, he lost chances to socialize and communicate with English-speakers.

Peers' attitudes also influenced communication development. The attitudes of Paul's peers in whom he showed interest might have hindered Paul's communication development because there were few interactions that occurred. Julie's and Inwoo's acceptance by their peers showed that the peers' attitude toward ELLs as well as ELLs' attitudes toward their peers were equally important factors for communication development.

### Research Question 3:

#### What Learning Strategies were used to Learn English?

ELLs used strategies<sup>12</sup> in order to learn English and socialize with the classroom members. Several strategies were used to understand and maintain communication with the teachers and peers.

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<sup>12</sup> Strategies are defined as diverse methods used by the ELLs to participate in project and play times.

## *The ELLs' Learning Strategies*

### *Julie*

#### 1. "I imitate teachers and peers with what they say and what I want to say"

Julie's imitation strategy was especially evident when she learned new English words and behaved appropriately for given tasks and situations. Her imitation was of two types: agreement repetition and last-word repetition (See table 4.2 for examples). Agreement repetition of her peers seemed to help her learn English words and terms and gain confidence through her many repeated routines in project and play times.

Julie's strategy of repeating others' last words during large and small groups seemed to give her the direction she needed to do what was expected, similar to the way in which children use private speech to direct actions. It familiarized her with the words of the task and there was valuable scaffolding provided by the teachers.

#### 2. "I'm looking for clues in teachers' examples or peer's activities"

This strategy was not employed until after Julie had experienced failure using trial-and-error approaches, especially with worksheets. Julie repeated routines and used two "looking" strategies –peer-looking and example-looking– to find clues about what she was supposed to do. Once she became communicatively competent, she was able to repeat to herself and others, even taking exception to Gabi's interpretation of a direction.

#### 3. "I pay attention to teachers' instructions and peers' behavior and demonstrate similar interests"

Julie paid attention to the teacher's instructions for projects, leaning forward and watched closely to catch every clue about what to do. Similarly, Julie closely

observed her classmates at project and play. It appeared that Julie identified her peers' specific behavior and then imitated it.

4. "Don't ignore me; I let my peers know that I am here"

This strategy was used when Julie tried to get the attention of other children. In the fall, Julie used nonverbal attempts, such as gestures and giggling. In the winter and the early spring, she tried to get the attention of any of her classmates by initiating conversations. Even when she encountered children who excluded her from their play, Julie tried to get their attention. As her communication skills developed, she intervened by telling her peers what to do and not do.

5. "I answer your questions if you ask me"

Whenever another child asked her a question, Julie responded to them immediately. Her responses were embedded in ongoing conversations that she was able to sustain and continue.

6. "I'll be a loyal friend no matter what happens."

At the beginning of the school year, she sought a friendship with Gabi, despite Gabi's exclusiveness, non-responsiveness, and authoritarian style. As Julie followed Gabi, she received feedbacks such as corrections and new expressions from Gabi and had opportunities to learn English while she played with Gabi.

7. "I'll never give up playing with a friend; cooperate, but protest, if necessary"

As her communicative skills developed, Julie used them to convince and negotiate with others, and to confront peers. Although there were conflicts between Julie and her peers, Julie never quit and withdrew; rather, she resorted to compromise.

### *How Julie's Strategies changed through the Year<sup>13</sup>*

Julie used Strategy #1 (“I imitate peers with what they say and what I want to say”) from September through December to practice new terms and seemed to gain the confidence necessary to speak with her classmates and teachers.

Strategy #2 (“I look for clues in teachers’ examples or peers’ activities”) was used from October through March and mostly in November and January. In November, Julie discovered the utility of the example-looking strategy.

After not initially using strategy # 3 (“I pay attention to teachers’ instructions and peers’ behavior”), at the beginning of year, Julie relied more and more on this approach, from November through April. She would directly communicate with the teachers, as she actively participated in their demonstrations and explanations. At the same time, she also watched her classmates closely to see what they were doing. This strategy was used mostly in January, when Julie tried to show common interests with others.

These three strategies (#1, #2, and #3) decreased after February, as Julie learned the routines and rules relating to project and play time. In addition, Julie transitioned from a passive to an active participant – a change that would not have been possible without a much-improved communicative competence.

Julie used Strategy #4 (“Don’t ignore me; I let my peers know that I am here”) to attract the attention of her classmates and teachers from September through May. She was ready to move on from attention-getting to communication and participation. From January to April, strategy # 4 was used while trying to communicate and initiate communication with her peers.

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<sup>13</sup> See Appendix H for a table of Julie’s strategy frequencies

Strategy #5 (“I answer your questions if you ask me”) was used from October through May, when she immediately responded to other children. Strategy #6 (“I’ll be a loyal friend no matter what happens”) was used from October through January. When Julie showed sufficient confidence and independence, she temporarily severed her relationship with the demanding Gabi.

Strategy #7 (“I’ll never give up playing with a friend; cooperate, but protest, if necessary”) was mostly used from March through May, when Julie faced conflicts with her peers and confidently expressed her rights and feelings. Although she argued with her peers, she preserved her relations with them.

Strategies #4 and #5 were used mostly from January through March, when Julie was confident and had acquired sufficient communication skills to initiate and sustain conversations with her classmates. Strategy #7 was used mostly from March through May, probably because her buddy command of English equipped her to take exception to her peers’ ideas and actions and to effectively argue her views. As her confidence increased, so did her confrontations with other children.

#### *Paul*

##### 1. “When I’m not familiar, I imitate other children”

Paul’s repetition strategy was used when he learned new English terms for given tasks. Paul also repeated his classmate’s words when he wanted to participate in their conversation.

##### 2. “I look for clues in teachers’ examples or peers’ activities”

Paul used two types of looking strategies when he did not understand the teacher’s instructions for group projects. Over time, he was confident enough to turn



down incorrect directions from others.

3. “I imitate you in order to learn how to socialize with other children.”

Imitation occurred when he used the same expression as other children in similar settings. Paul did not receive much attention when he communicated with his classmates, and this type of interaction was a way for him to enter the conversation and eventually interact.

4. “I have something you want to join me”

This strategy was used to get attention from his peers in the book area. In November, he used this strategy to catch other children’s attention and to become a friend or a play partner.

5. “I’ll approach you because I want to play with you”

Paul’s approaching strategy was used on the playground for getting attention from Mark, with whom he wanted to play.

6. “I’ll join you and engage you”

Paul did not follow or approach his peers on the playground in December, but looked around at the children as if he was waiting for someone to approach him. Nobody approached him and Paul eventually started to join his peers and enter into their conversations. He tried to be part of the members of a play group and tried to communicate with them. Paul tried to participate in the communication avidly, although he did not get much attention from them. Teachers rarely intervened in these situations.

7. “I’ll monopolize the materials that you want to play with”

Paul’s monopolizing strategy was used as an effort to gain his peers’ attention in the block area. This strategy caused communications, albeit negative ones, between Paul and other children and the conversations were not friendly.

8. “I need your attention; look at this”

Paul tried to communicate with his peers by using direct or indirect remarks. To elicit direct attention, he used “look at” expressions, such as “Look at this” and “Look at mine.” For indirect attention, using description (e.g., “I got this”) Paul described what he was doing or what his peers were doing.

9. “I’ll give you this because I want to join with you”

Paul offered play materials to his peers in the classroom and on the playground. Most of the time, he offered play materials to Gary and Mark. This offering did not result in any participation in their play or conversation.

10. “I’ll talk to teachers when you’re not paying attention to me”

Paul talked to teachers in the beginning of the year, when he was unable to communicate with other children. Also, he talked to teachers when his peers did not respond to him in the spring.

*How Paul’s Strategies changed through the Year<sup>14</sup>*

Paul used Strategy #1 (“When I’m not familiar, I imitate other children”) whenever he encountered new words and expressions. This strategy was used from September through April to practice new terms.

Strategy #2 (“I look for clues in teachers’ examples or peers’ activities”) was used to learn the clues from classmates in October; example-looking strategy was

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<sup>14</sup> See Appendix H for the table of Paul’s strategy frequencies

used mostly from November to January. In January, however, Paul used the looking strategy when the workload increased and no examples were posted so he could not keep up with all the new words.

Strategy #3 (“I’ll imitate you in order to learn how to socialize with other children”) was used from February to April. He practiced the expressions used by other children and imitated their speaking.

From October through April, Paul used Strategy #4 (“I got the book you wanted to look at”) to attract the attention of his classmates. He used the book that the children preferred the most in the book area; however, this strategy did not develop any communications between Paul and his peers. In October and November, he used this strategy the most and then decreasingly used it; it seemed that he knew he did not gain attention or conversation by employing the strategy.

Paul used Strategy #5 (“I’ll approach you because I want to play with you”) beginning in October, yet decreased after November as he started to look at the children on the playground instead of approaching them.

Strategy #6 (“I’ll join you”) was used from December through May. Although this strategy was not effective for being involved in their play, it increased from March to May.

Strategy #7 (“I’ll monopolize all the blocks that you want to use”) was used most when his other strategies (#6 and #8) were not working well in April. The controlling and monopolizing strategy caused conflicts with other children and Paul concentrated on other strategies (#6 and #8).

Strategy #8 (“I need your attention; look at this”) was used from October through May. This strategy was used the most through the entire year to get attention from others and ultimately to play with them. The more he did not gain any attention from his peers, the more he used this strategy and strategy #3.

Strategy #9 (“I’ll give you this because I want to join with you”) was mostly used in October, April and May, when he avidly asked for permission to participate with certain peers.

Strategy #10 (“I’ll talk to teachers when you’re not paying attention to me”) was used in October, January, and March. In January and March, he used it when no peers paid attention to his calling for attention. In April and May, he sought more of his peers’ attention than that of his teachers. If they did not pay attention to him, Paul called it to the teacher’s attention.

Strategies #1, #2, #4 and #5 were used in the fall. Since none of the strategies were effective for establishing friendships, Paul began to use more active strategies (#3, #6 and #8) from January on. He engaged in conversations with other children, although he never received invitations to play.

In April and May, another strategy, Strategy #9, was added to Strategies #6 and #8. He used these three strategies until the end of the school year. To receive more attention from his peers, he offered some blocks to his peers. Even with all his efforts to participate in their play, Paul became invisible and socially isolated. Most-used strategies were #6 and #8. However, the strategies were often switched if they did not prove to be useful. At first, he used Strategies #4 (“favorite book”) and #5 (“approach”). When they were not effective, he tried Strategies #6 (“join”) and #8

(“attention”). Finally, he used Strategies #9 (“offering”) and #7 (“monopoly”) but they did not work to become a play partner; he continued to use both the “join”(#6) and “attention” (#8) strategies.

### *Inwoo*

1. “I imitate peers and teachers with what they say that I want to say”

If Inwoo was interested in the activities during the project time then he would pay attention to the teachers; he repeated the words spoken by the teachers. From winter on, Inwoo repeated his peers’ words. It appeared that Inwoo repeated to show agreement, saying things such as “I’m tired” and “Bad guy.”

2. “I look for clues in teachers’ examples or peers’ activities”

Like Julie and Paul, Inwoo got hints by two types of looking strategies – example- looking and peer-looking – when he did not understand his teacher’s instructions.

3. “I’ll approach you because I want to play with you”

Inwoo started to approach Jay and Isaiah beginning in November. He no longer played by himself and had opportunities to build friendships with them. However, Inwoo’s deep concentration on the play in the classroom caused him to use parallel play rather than cooperative play. On the playground, Inwoo more actively engaged in play with Isaiah and Jay.

4. “I’ll never give up sitting by a friend, but I’ll protest, if necessary”

Inwoo’s repeated non-responses seemed to precipitate Jay and Isaiah’s physical attacks on him, such as hitting, depriving him of materials, and sprinkling sand on his head. Whenever the incidents occurred , Inwoo protested them strongly.

However, he never gave up sitting by them. Their behaviors became more aggravated in May. Inwoo tried to negotiate and make suggestions to them to end the aggression, with limited success.

5. “I need your attention; look at this”

Inwoo tried to get attention, saying “Look at” during project and play times. In the spring, he actively participated in his classmate’s conversations and tried to elicit their attention.

6. “I’m involved in my classmate’s conversations: active participation”

In the spring, Inwoo tried to participate in his classmate’s conversations, as he meddled with the conversations that were not directed toward to him.

*How Inwoo’s Strategies Changed through the Year<sup>15</sup>*

Inwoo’s Strategy # 1 (“I imitate peers and teachers with what they say that I want to say”) was used during the entire school year. Although his imitation of teachers decreased after the first few months, he did not attend to teacher instructions, sometimes ignoring or even putting his head on the desk. This might have been due to a lack of interest or understanding. However, he often repeated his peers’ remarks that were used during project and play times.

Strategy # 2 (“I look for clues in teachers’ examples or peers’ activities”) was used during the entire school year, especially the peer-looking strategy. These strategies were especially used in the spring whenever Inwoo needed to figure out how to complete a project task (academic projects increased in both frequency and difficulty in the spring).

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<sup>15</sup> See Appendix G for a table of strategy frequencies

Most of Inwoo's strategies (#4, #5, and #6) developed in the spring as he became interested in his peers and tried to participate in their play. Strategy #3 ("I'll approach you because I want to play with you.") and Strategy #5 ("I need your attention; look at this") were mostly used in order to access and communicate with others. Strategy #3 was used mostly on the playground while he chased and followed other children with whom he wanted to play. Strategy #5 was used during project and play times, as he employed "look at" expressions; he sometimes gained attention from his peers.

Strategy #4 ("I'll never give up playing with a friend, but I'll protest, if necessary") appeared in the spring when Inwoo was attacked by Jay and Isaiah. Despite their mistreatment, he did not leave them, but Inwoo protested whenever the conflicts happened.

Strategy #6 ("I'm involved in my classmate's conversations: active participation") appeared mostly from November when he got used to the routines and his classmates. He could participate in others' conversations; for example, who was cat group and butterfly group for the science class (11/08). In the spring, he wanted to be an active participant as he entered into other students' conversations: for example, Gabi said to Jay, "I'm Power Ranger." Instead of Jay, Inwoo answered, "You're not Power Ranger" (04/17).

### *Learning Strategies among ELLs*

During project time in the classroom, all ELLs used the Looking strategy in order to figure out clues related to the work. This strategy assisted English learning as instructions were repeated through daily projects. All three ELLs employed the same

attention-getting strategy to access and interact with their peers during play time, but for different purposes. Inwoo's strategy was to let the children around him know what he was doing or show what he had accomplished. His self-talk and non-responsiveness to peers' bids for conversation made it difficult for others to engage.

Paul used similar attention-getting strategies but also demonstrated that he wanted to gain attention from his peers in order to be involved in their play and activities. For example, he was in the book area and had the book that most classmates were interested in, and announced that he had the book whenever his favorite peers approached the book shelf. The difference with Paul was that peers ignored him, while Inwoo ignored his peers. His goal appeared to be gaining a play partner, even if it meant sitting by them and not getting a response.

Monopolizing books and blocks were used as a means to attempt to achieve the goal of cooperative play, although it did not have the intended effect, and ended up decreasing friendship opportunities. Paul's strategy that they would access him because he possessed what his peers needed caused conflicts rather than promoted interaction.

Julie's strategy also started to gain her peer's attention; however, she focused on other children's needs and interests, as she provided some materials that attracted would-be playmates. Inwoo and Paul's strategies of attention-getting were focused on descriptions of their own behavior and work, whereas, Julie's strategy was focused on her peers' interests. In the spring, Paul changed his strategy as he asked about his peers' needs. Also, Inwoo became interested in playing with others and tried to be cooperative with them. However, it seemed to be difficult to be a new member of a



group in which friendships had already formed. Julie showed that ELLs have to address their peers' interests and needs to be a playmate and to be socially accepted. In addition, the period of using proper strategy appeared as an important element to accelerate their English learning as well as social relationship development. Although Inwoo and Paul tried to participate actively in their peers' play in the spring, as Inwoo started to show his interest in group play rather than solitary play and Paul offered blocks to his peers instead of monopolizing blocks, their findings of the strategies about English learning and social relationships were not discovered early enough. As a result, their communicative and social competencies had not developed as much as Julie's.

#### Chapter Summary

English language learning developed through five types of actions and interactions in the classroom. Non-communicative actions, private speech, and non-verbal communication were used while ELLs became accustomed to their classroom routines and members. As they became used to them, they developed verbal communication to interact with others. Each ELLs' English developed according to the interpersonal and intrapersonal actions and interactions with others. Descriptions and attention-getting verbalization were mostly used to communicate with other children. Speech patterns moved from formulaic to productive speech and fit particular situations and contexts for all three children.

The ELLs accessed and initiated conversations in order to interact and play with other children. The types of play (cooperative, parallel, and solitary) and their patterns of social relationships with others influenced the strength and emergence of

English communication skills. Friendship patterns and typical cycles of acceptance and rejection had an impact on this language learning.

The ELLs employed the same and different strategies in order to gain their peers' attention and ultimately play and communicate with them. ELLs' strategies were used in reaction to peer response. Paul used the widest array of strategies after earlier attempts were met with failure. Although Julie and Inwoo were more successful in gaining others' attention, Inwoo was more interested in his solitary play. As a result, Inwoo did not have much interaction with other children and did not develop his English skills as much as Julie did. On the other hand, Julie played with others cooperatively and developed her communicative skills and competency. All three children learned English to a greater or lesser extent over the course of the year, through their negotiation of life in the classroom and the building of friendship patterns.



## **Chapter 5: Discussion**

The purpose of this research was to study three preschool ELLs' English learning processes in two early childhood classrooms to identify how social interactions with others occurred, how they affected classroom learning, and how language learning was shaped. Learning strategies illustrated how the ELLs maintained their play and interactions with others. Learning English and engaging in social relationships were closely intertwined; learning the language was not only about how to speak and understand English, but also about how to socialize with others and become competent members of the classroom. As noted by Ochs (1988), second language learning is both socialization to use language and socialization through language. In other words, children need to co-construct their social practice and face-to-face interactions with others for the optimal conditions of learning another language (Gumperz, 1983; Mary, 2005; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995; Saville-Troike, 1984; Watson-Geogeo, 2004; Wertsch, 2008). In this chapter, I discuss major findings from the research and its implications for understanding English language learning in young children.

### **How English was Learned**

English was learned through repeated routines and actions that occurred in the classrooms, and were optimized through the learners' active participation. Face-to-face interaction that required mutual involvement facilitated learning English. The three ELLs underwent similar steps to learn English. They started with active observation, progressed to private speech while they were getting accustomed to the English input, and developed verbal communications while they participated in social

interactions. Verbal communication progressed from attention-seeking behaviors to diverse verbal interactions with peers in increasingly complex ways as peers accepted the ELLs and responded to them.

### *English was Learned through Interactional Routines*

Repeated interactional routines were important strategies for learning English. The salient characteristics of routines were accompanied by verbal behavior and the ELLs had abundant opportunities to understand the rules and related words. Interactions provided opportunities for children to predict the context and make connections to other situations that might use similar expressions or actions (Margaret, 2001; Ohta, 1999, 2001; Peters and Boggs, 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986).

At the beginning of the school term, the ELLs had a difficult time understanding and communicating with native English speakers. Repeated exposure to interactive routines occurred as they participated in project and play times. Within these routines, they observed and participated in frequent patterns of English discourse, which enabled them to gradually predict instructional and play routines as they began to participate with their peers (Johnson, 1995; Nelson, 1989; Ohta 2001; Peter & Boggs, 1986).

The children in this study used stages of interactional routines consistent with Ohta's (1999; 2001) research. First, during project time, the ELLs actively observed peers or instructional examples to understand the routines and expected actions. During this period, they heavily relied on the teachers' scaffolding. At the same time, similar to the findings of Clarke (1999), Saville- Troike (1988), Tabors (1997), and

Wong-Fillmore (1979), they used formulaic speech that they heard from their peers when they finished their work (e.g., “I’m done” and “I finished”). As they understood the repeated instructional routines and related language, the ELLs completed projects independently, with appropriate use of language (e.g., “I need big heart” and “Clean-up time”) (Roland & Kanagy, 1998; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Willet, 1995; Atkinson, 2002). Finally, they actively engaged in social interactions with teachers and peers and even taught when some students did not follow the teacher’s instructions (e.g., “See orange” and “The other side”). Therefore, their learning developed from other-regulated learning to self-regulated learning (Vygotsky, 1986; Wertsch, 1985; Murphey, 2001). They were able to internalize regular routines and instructions such as activity choice (e.g., “Where would you like to go?”) or project completion (e.g., “Up and down, up and down”). When new words or routines were introduced, they often relied on looking at peers or observing teacher’s examples.

These results are consistent with Fillmore’s (1982) finding that the frequency of repeated sentences promotes learning English. The more they were exposed to frequently used English, the more they understood and learned it. Kachru’s study about Indian learners also confirmed that the children became more familiar with the words that they frequently saw in their books. On the other hand, they did not recognize the words that occurred only one or twice (1990). In this study, the three children more easily incorporated regular routines and language but needed more time and models for new vocabulary.

Paul and Inwoo did not participate in sociodramatic play as much as Julie; they usually preferred playing with blocks. They played parallel or initiated some

conversations, but did not play with the same theme or goal; although Paul wanted to participate in his peers' play, they ignored his repeated attempt. Consequently, Paul could not sustain the conversation leading to disengagement. Inwoo did not seem to be interested in participating in others' play until the spring. As a result, he may have lacked the necessary social cues to know how to engage with others. Julie engaged in Otha's stages of interactional routines during play time.

The ELLs' choice of play types (e.g., parallel and cooperative play), the learner's motivations (e.g., active participation), and peers' attitudes (e.g., acceptance or neglect) all influenced how the children moved through these stages. Julie seemed to acquire English while she participated in repeated play themes in the sociodramatic area. At first, she did not understand her peers' language; however, she maintained the conversation and tried to clarify their language, using clarification questions, gestures, and giggling. Through recurring themes and active participation, Julie moved to meanings associated with the repeated routines and roles. Paul, at first, used parallel play and tried to move to cooperative play, but he could not develop communicative skills well due to his social skills or his peers' ignorance. Inwoo also did not make enough progress to communicate in English because of his types of play (solitary and parallel) and passive attitude for engaging in cooperative play.

#### *English was Learned through Active Participation*

Learners' active participation and close observation of instructional routines were also important factors in learning English. Active non-verbal (active listening and observing) and verbal participation (active participation in conversation) were prerequisite elements for acquiring interactional routines and the language associated

with them. Without active participation driven by the learners' interests (Garton, 1998; Richard, 1995), they could not be aware of the English input and develop syntactic forms necessary for social interactions (Hatch, 1978).

Inwoo did not fully acquire the expressions related to typical instructions and routines because he did not pay attention to them, although the teachers repeated the same questions and instructions all year long. He did not participate in others' play; Inwoo usually sat beside his peers and played alone. His acquisition of English was substantially less developed compared to Julie and Paul, and this lack of engagement may underlie his lack of progress. Julie participated in project and play times actively and interacted with other class members. This was particularly apparent where she observed and recognized the language routines she needed for play. She thus expanded her English repertoire while actively engaged in play. By participating in repeated theme-play, Julie understood the input and learned enough English that could be used in diverse situations.

Wong-Fillmore (1983) identified two "types" of learners: Producer and Observer. Both types are successful as long as they actively participate in learning consistent with their type. This means that while producer types engage in visibly active participation, observer types learn through a form of active observation that is less visible. Saville-Troike (1988) demonstrated interpersonal and inner-directed learners, and concluded that inner-directed learners were more successful language learners because they carefully observed and listened to English, memorized or practiced privately, and then produced more complex utterances in appropriate situations. Julie used active interpersonal skills and was a more successful learner



than Paul. While Paul successfully acquired the language and routines of project time using intrapersonal skills, during play time, he was not able to engage in the necessary social interaction to produce jointly shared knowledge and verbal communication. Inwoo did not experience “joint- attention” (Yawkey & Miller, 1985), and he played alone. Thus, this study is compatible with the finding of Strong (1983) that more talkative and outgoing children learn faster than quiet and reserved children.

*English was Learned when ELLs Interacted Face-to-Face with Teachers and Peers*

Children internalize learning through face-to face social interactions in their social context (Gumperz, 1983; Mary, 2005; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995; Saville-Troike, 1984; Watson-Geogeo, 2004; Wertsch, 2008). As Vygotsky (1978) claimed learning and development is facilitated in interaction with more capable adults and peers. During project time, the learners became accustomed to and internalized their repeated key instructions and vocabularies (Kachuru, 1990; Wong-Fillmore, 1982) supported by the teachers’ scaffolding (Cazden, 1983; Ovan & Collier, 1985; Wood et al., 1976) through nonverbal (e.g., pointing) and verbal (e.g., asking repetition after the teachers) communications. Eventually, the children became independent in project time over time with repeated tasks; although social interactions between the teachers and the ELLs were very minimal and were limited to answering the children’s questions and meeting task needs. The teachers served as task resources; they did not intervene or become involved in the children’s project and play as long as no problems or conflicts occurred.

Social interactions mostly occurred while the ELLs were jointly sharing knowledge and mutually involved in playing with their peers (Hruska, 2000; Joyce, 1997; Porter, 1986; Richard, 1995). Repetition, clarification, corrections and support (Hirschler, 1994; Kohn, 1991) were the primary type of actions that facilitate English language learning.

Corrections from peers were the most frequent type of assistance. While gender issues were not examined in his study, it was noted that girls most often tried to correct errors, which created opportunities for learning English. At first, Julie followed her peers' corrections or suggestions during project time. As she understood and developed her English skills, she argued and negotiated with her peers when they gave her directions. Julie was able to evolve her status from a follower to a leader and co-constructor in the play. This was different from Paul, who developed English skills through observed rather than with face-to-face interactions.

Julie accessed her peers naturally, primarily using role-play actions while she was able to learn and participate with her peers. This provided opportunities to practice language skills and take on event roles and feedback often looked like natural consequences (Gallagher, 1991). Julie not only practiced English, but also increased her chances to engage in and control the discourse.

Through the ongoing play activities, Paul's different approach also appeared to assist him in learning English. It is evident that he produced the English that he heard from his peers in similar situations. Most of the time, Paul seemed to understand other children's conversations that were not directed toward him, but he did not practice English or negotiate meanings with others. As Appel (1994) and

Lantolf (2000a) point out, interactions help learners by increasing the quantity of the input and elaboration of meaning. In other words, Paul could not elaborate his English through social interactions and could not have trial-and-error experiences like Julie.

Like Paul, Inwoo did not experience many face-to-face interactions with his teachers and peers. While Paul occasionally sought to communicate with other children, Inwoo did not. Whenever Inwoo wanted to gain attention from his peers, he talked to them but was unable to sustain the conversation.

In this study, face-to-face interactions facilitate learning English more often than side-to-side listening. Face-to-face interactions and conversational experience is crucial to enhance communication competence and English (Gumperz, 1982; Hyme, 1972b; Saville-Troike, 1984; Wells 1981).

Second language researchers have emphasized the importance of face-to-face interactions with others and have observed distinctive social interactions among different types of pairs: English-non English; non English-non English; English-English. Friendships have been found to form early in the year between peers of same language children as they assist each other in learning (Dickson, 1986; Fassler, 1998; Grass & Varonis, 1985; Haruska, 2001; Meyer, Klein, & Genishi, 1994; Pica, 1998; Porter, 1986; Tabors, 1997; Thomson, 1994).

Paul and Inwoo both attempted to interact with Korean boys. Inwoo approached Jay and Elijah, Korean boys, but these boys did not speak Korean in the classroom. Similarly, Paul approached Mark, a Korean boy who spoke only English. Another Korean boy, Nick who spoke English approached Paul, but Paul was not

interested and preferred to follow Mark. Two non-English speakers, Marimoto and Bruce A, approached Paul and sometimes he played with them, but he primarily followed Mark during the school year. Julie, on the other hand, did not initially approach the other Korean girl, Emily, until she was temporarily estranged from Gabi.

#### *English Learning Occurred during Five Types of Actions and Interactions*

Unlike previous research on English language learning in young children (Clake, 1999; Saville-Troviak, 1988; Tabors, 1997), in this study, the process did not unfold in a stage-based pattern. Instead, I identified five types of actions and interactions that supported English learning. Over time, verbal communication in English increased, while the other types of actions and interactions decreased, generally moving through a sequence of acclimation and communication. Acclimation refers to the attempts used toward the classroom members and the routines. During this period, all ELLs used non-communicative actions and private speech, but responded to teachers and peers non-verbally and verbally. Communication refers to the attempts to communicate with peers, using access and initiation to communicate with peers.

#### *The Acclimation Period*

All three children observed peers to become acclimated to social contexts and routines. Julie joined her peers' play and initiated conversations immediately. Paul selected his teachers as communication partners and Inwoo did not show any passion for communicating and socializing with peers or teachers. Inwoo and Paul had longer observation periods before joining their classmates and participating conversations

than did Julie. During this period, the most used interactions and actions were repetition and private speech.

The ELLs' use of private speech was similar to that found in previous research on private speech and repetition which demonstrate that it plays an important role before verbal communications became dominant (Decamilla & Anton, 2004; Ohta, 2001; Perk, 1980; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978). The major purpose of private speech during project time was to learn new words and to self-direct, while they used private speech to direct solitary play during play time. As they started to increase verbal communications, private speech became more internalized. The ELLs listened to and followed the teachers' instructions without private speech. In other words, their learning English shifted from other-regulated to self-regulated learning (Wertsch, 1985; Winsler, 2000).

In previous research, it was found that private speech such as "speaking to understand" (Appel & Lantolf, 1994 p. 437) was used to solve problems of a task and in play (Berk, 1992; Diaz & Berk, 1992; Saville-Troike, 1988). In this study, private speech was used in the same way; however, it was also used when a child could not find play partner or when she/he played alone. The child played the dual role of self and partner. It is important to investigate whether socially isolated children use more private speech in their play because there is no play partner to communicate with them. It is evident that Julie also used private speech when she was playing at the doll house by herself, but private speech decreased when Julie played with other children.

### *The Communication Period*

As the ELLs got used to the classroom context, NCA was decreasing and VC was increasing. Attention-getting behaviors were the first attempt to access or initiate communications.

In previous research, the main objective was to observe how ELLs' speech transformed from formulaic to productive speech (Clarke, 1999; Saville-Troike, 1988; Tabors, 1997). However, these researchers did not look at how speech was used in conversation. I analyzed the functions of language used by the three ELLs, and found that the attention-getting function, using directly or indirectly (descriptions) are a trigger and an important condition that enabled them interact with others. The ELLs' attention-getting function increased peers' attention and elicited the conversation (Rosenfeld, 1966a; Hersen & Barlow, 1977). When Julie received peers' attention, was able to use her words to sustain the conversation or play. On the other hand, although attention-getting was an essential component for verbal communication, this did not occur if peers did not respond. Paul put all his effort into gaining peers' attention, and repeated the attention-getting function continually, but he could not elicit any response and no communication occurred.

Some of the findings in this study differed from previous research. First, the ELLs did not use their home language at the beginning of the school year. One possible explanation is that they thought maybe only English was allowed to be spoken in the classroom. Although children were not asked about this, another possible explanation may be due to the number of years they had been in America. Julie and Paul had lived in America since they were born and Inwoo had been in

America for two years and had been in childcare previously. Their social experiences may have helped them discern the environments where it would be acceptable to speak Korean or English and vice versa. However, Julie and Inwoo sometimes used Korean in private speech when they played alone. Inwoo also spoke Korean to me while he was playing alone for a while in the beginning of the school year.

Second, they used non-communicative actions (NCA) a lot in order to figure out instructions and routines during project time. Characteristics of the preschool may account for more frequent NCA observed in this study as compared to previous research. Unlike play-oriented preschools, the classrooms were divided into two areas, project and play areas, and the ELLs had to perform the tasks provided by the teachers. As a result, non-communicative actions may have been frequently occurred in the process of learning unfamiliar instructions and language related to the tasks during project time.

In this study, three components of English learning process were identified: first, the children actively participated in the learning through observation and listening; English was not learned if they did not actively participate or did not pay attention to the input. Second, their peers' involvement or teachers' scaffolding provided understanding and competence through reoccurring instructions and themes (e.g., post office, pony, and grocery store in sociodramatic play) as they practiced their English with others or by themselves. Finally, their English developed through everyday social interactions with other children as they communicated with them in diverse situations. Joint-attention (Yawkey & Miller, 1984) or mutual involvement played a central role in maintaining interactions. The children must elicit attention

from the person with whom they want to talk, be it non-verbally or verbally (Keenan, 1976). After successful attention-getting, they made the partner listen to, or attend, their communication as they said something.

In summary, ELLs learn English through intrapersonal strategies, such as private speech and repetition. Although intrapersonal strategies increased their listening skills and understanding related to similar tasks, those strategies were limited when speaking with others. Interpersonal strategies were effective where mutual involvement or shared understanding between the speaker and the listener occurred. It is not surprising that Julie, with her strong interpersonal skills, showed the most improvement of English proficiency compared to Paul and Inwoo. This observation is consistent with the PLAI-2 post test scores at the end of the year.

#### How Social Relationships were used to Learn English

Learning English was developed in the context of social relationships with peers. Peers' attitudes towards ELLs, and their openness to forming new friendships were important factors in friend selection, as were friendship characteristics. Contextual structures such as the beginning, middle and end of the school year, and schedule patterns also played a role creating and sustaining friendships. It became more difficult to build new relationships with other children later in the school year.

#### *Play Type Affects Learning English*

Play has a crucial role in children's language development (Berk, 1994; Garvey, 1990; Levy, 1986; Litfords, 1987; Mooney, 2000; Vygotsky, 1966; Wortham & Reifel, 2000). The ELLs shared knowledge in order to maintain verbal exchange interactively in play (Oxford, 2001; Rice, 1993; Shaffer, 2008; Yakwey & Miller,



1984). Julie played cooperatively with others most of the time and participated in sociodramatic play which required communication and social interaction among the participants with specific roles (Gallagher, 1991; Ginsburg, 2007; Nelson, 1989; Rice, 1993; Rubin & Coplan, 1998). At first, she did not take an active role, probably because of her limited English. However, the familiar and repetitive play activity was a good setting to enhance interactions with others (Bunce & Watkins, 1995; Odom & Strain, 1984), especially with particular themes such as kitchen and pony play. Participating in play gave her abundant opportunities to share knowledge and develop deeper conversations with others as she initiated and maintained conversations, using various language functions that required verbal interactions (e.g., attention- getting, justification with reasons, and protest).

Paul engaged in parallel play and simple social play –when children initiate some social interaction toward each other – (Howes, 1980, 2000), most of the time, as he sat by other children rather than joining them. Although he tried to cooperate with his peers at the end of school year, he was neglected and ignored by the group of children with whom he wanted to play. Paul showed patterns typical of neglected children (Dodge et al., 1983), as he waited and hovered around other children and refrained from disruptions. His peers did not invite him to play; instead they ignored him. As a result, Paul did not have the types of opportunities to develop social relationships and enhance his English skills to the same degree as Julie.

Inwoo was also involved in solitary, parallel play and simple social play (Howes, 1988), and did not seek out opportunities to communicate and play cooperatively with other children. He demonstrated that willingness to participate in

cooperative play was an important means to become a successful language learner. His choice of play type resulted in no interactions with other children and hindered his learning English.

Julie's cooperative play and shared knowledge with play themes appeared to create the best opportunities for social interactions. In other words, the more learners engaged in cooperative play, the more opportunities they had for social interactions, which enhanced learning English and friendship development. Inwoo's lack of communication with his peers hampered his ability to develop friendships. It appeared that how quickly children became engaged in peer play influenced the development of their communicative skills: the sooner they were involved in their peers' play, the faster relationships developed, which in turn enhanced communicative skills. Julie was actively engaged in her peers' play; on the other hand, Paul and Inwoo were not actively involved in their peers' play at the beginning of the school year and never really moved into substantial social interactions with peers throughout the year.

Most interactions in Julie's play occurred in the sociodramatic play area. The most interactions in Inwoo's play appeared when he played on the playground as he defined and arranged roles (e.g., Superman). Paul's interactions with others mostly were observed in the reading area while he shared a book with Bruce W. Paul could sustain the conversation when he and his peers shared the same interests (e.g., Spongebob Squarepants) and even elaborated it with questions.

Example 5.1: At a table (04/27)

Paul was looking at Marimoto's drawing and asked him, "What's this?"

Ma: "It's Sponge Bob."

P: "It's house?" (pointing the drawing)

Ma: "Yeah. Spongebob's house."  
 P: "No, it's Patrick's house."  
 Ma: "No, Patrick is not here."  
 P: "Why?"  
 Ma: "Patrick is gone."  
 P: "Why?"  
 Ma: "What's this?"  
 Ma: "Crab."  
 P: "Mr. Crab."  
 Na: "Yeah, Mr. Crab."  
 P: "What about plankton?"  
 Ma: "Plankton?"  
 P: "Plankton is small. Small and small" (making his thumb and index finger in circle).

Thus, in this research I have found that social interactions occur when the children talk about the topics of natural interest in which they can share knowledge and this leads to successful conversations which provide the opportunity to learn English. Peer cooperation is an essential element; without their willingness to participate, opportunities for learning English will be severely hampered.

#### *Selection of Friends Affects Learning English*

Little attention has been paid to how the selection of friendships influences learning English. The three ELLs sought friendship with certain peers. Julie selected Gabi and tried to sustain their friendship until the end of the school year. Before Julie became confident socially and communicatively, Gabi was her main resource during play and project times. Although Julie had conflicts with Gabi during play, and encountered hostility and exclusion-inclusion events, Julie received feedback from Gabi which helped her learn how to communicate.

Paul's apparent loyalty to Mark may have caused him to be socially isolated from his classmates. It also demonstrated that if there is not mutual involvement and cooperation, it will be difficult for a new language learner to benefit from a one-sided

friendship. Social relationships build when English learners are involved in a cooperative relationship.

Inwoo did not put his efforts into being a loyal friend although he had secured two friends. His engagement with his friends and their play changed according to his interests. For example, Inwoo actively participated in his peers' play outside, but enjoyed playing by himself in the classroom. Although Inwoo built friendships with English-speakers, he preferred solitary or parallel play with his peers. He rarely took advantage of opportunities to learn English. Instead, Inwoo engaged in very little communication with peers, even to the point of using a made-up language, possibly a combination of Korean and English.

*Targets of opportunity for Friend Selection may Affect Learning English*

I did not find any previous studies that investigated if there is any critical period of friendship building or of friend selection for learning English. However, in this study, I found that most children maintained friendships established at the beginning of school, and all children initiated those friendships by the end of the fall. After that, there was little change, and children became consistent friends with those they had already chosen. Julie experienced this difficulty when she tried to abandon her friendship with Gabi and build new friendships with other children. Julie wanted to be a play partner with Emily, but there was no room for Julie. Jay was available to play with her, but Julie was more interested in female friends. She went back to Gabi.

Paul was interested in peers who did not accept him as a playmate. Although he noticed this rejection, he did not give up and move onto another relationship. As a result, he missed out on an opportunity to establish relationships with Marimoto and

Bruce A. If Paul had tried to build friendships with Marimoto and Bruce A instead of with Mark's group, he might have had more opportunities to use English as well as to have stable play partners. Fillmore (1979) put it like this: "To learn a language rapidly, it is perhaps most necessary to identify with the people who speak it" (p. 227).

*Peers' Attitudes and the Learners' Attitudes may Affect Learning English*

Learning English is closely related to creating social relationships with English speakers. Consistent with the finding of the previous researchers (Hirschler, 1994; Kohn, 1991), the context in which Julie was accepted by her peers and her efforts to join them had a major positive impact on her opportunities to learn English. Although Paul put in the same effort to socialize with the members of a group as Julie did, his peers did not accept Paul. Being neglected and ignored by his peers hindered his English learning as well as his social relationships with the other children. Paul had a difficult time developing and improving his English because he did not have any social partners with whom to receive English input, to interact with or to practice English (Gerther et al., 1994).

Previous studies support the connection between social acceptance and verbal communication skills (Gallagher, 1991; Hazen & Black, 1989; Gerther et al., 1994). Howes (1988) pointed out that children's linguistic incompetence may lead to social rejection. In Paul's case, at the beginning of the school year, Mark was interested in playing with him, but this diminished over time. Mark seemed to notice Paul's English skills and avoided playing with him. For example, Mark asked Paul to look at a picture in his book when he was sitting by Mark in the book area, but called upon another peer immediately when Paul seemed not to understand what he was talking

about. In contrast, Julie also did not have sufficient English skills to communicate with her peers, but they assisted Julie's learning, as they corrected and guided her English skills. It is unclear whether Paul's verbal communication skills hindered his being a member of a group or if it was the peers' attitudes in the classroom that affected learning English. Another possible explanation for Paul's rejection may be due to his social skills in general, such as monopolizing books and blocks. This strategy was used in an effort to access his peers, yet seemed to backfire and increase rejection (Hatch, 1990; Ladd & Coleman, 1993).

Like the finding of Ladd and Coleman (1993), Julie showed high rates of social conversation, cooperative play, and a low rate of aggression which is typical of popular children who more often meet the needs of others in a group. On the other hand, Paul's peers did not respond to him, despite his frequent bids for their attention.

In summary, English is not learned only by an individual's effort, but by communicating with available partners. Mutual involvement or shared understanding is essential in order to communicate and socialize with English speakers. English learners' willingness to communicate and socialize with English speakers and English speakers' willingness to communicate and socialize with English learners need to be reciprocal. For mutual involvement to occur, English learners have to find the peers who can be cooperative and be loyal to their relationships. Also, they need to show positive social behavior as well as other-centered strategies.

#### How Children's Learning Strategies Affected Learning English

Many different strategies are employed in learning English (Dirk, 2007; Gardner & Masgoret, 2003; Hisio & Oxford, 2002; Karasoglu, 2009; Wong-Fillmore,

1979, 1983). Wong-Fillmore's three social strategies were observed in this study. Julie used these social strategies to participate in play: a) join a group and act as if you understand what's going on, even if you don't; b) give the impression –with a few well-chosen words – that you can speak the language; and c) count on your friends for help. The first strategy was used from the beginning of school with various non-verbal and verbal strategies, such as giggling, clarification (e.g., "What?"), and offering. The second strategy was employed as she used "Uh oh," "Okay," and "Sure" even though she did not know what her peers were saying. Her peers started to correct her misstatements and sustained play and interactions. However, these social strategies were not observed for Inwoo and Paul. Instead of joining a group, Inwoo and Paul observed their peers and played beside them at the beginning of the school year. Since there were no opportunities to sustain social interactions, the second and third social sharing identified by Wong-Fillmore simply did not take place.

Although Wong-Fillmore did not indicate an other-centered strategy, this appeared an important element to learning English and building social relationships in this study (Asher, Oden, and Gottman, 1977; Balter, Susan, & Lemonda, 2006; Rogers & Ross, 1986). Julie and Paul considered others as they offered and shared materials with them earlier than did Inwoo. They looked carefully at what their peers were doing and provided what was needed. Julie used other-centered conversational skills at the beginning of the school year, trying to be cooperative with her peers. Paul, however, showed these skills only after he unsuccessfully tried monopolization and protest actions. Julie's cooperative play helped her verbal communication evolve

into more diverse verbal functions: attention-getting, role-play, verbal justification, suggestions, protests, and reasoning. Paul, however, used verbal communication for attention-getting, protest, and “need” statements and ended up unsuccessfully repeating the same verbal functions to be in an effort to be a member of a group (McTear, 1985). Paul even used other children’s speech when he realized his speech was not effective in building friendships.

In summary, successful learners seemed to employ strategy that helped them become successful group members to avoid drawing attention to themselves. Unpopular children were more likely to draw attention to themselves in the ongoing conversations of the group, (Dodge et al., 1983) and to focus on their own needs and interests when trying to enter a group (Dodge et al., 1986; Putallaz & Gottman, 1982; Putallaz, 1983). In addition, active participation from the beginning was a central role for a successful language learner.

### Implications

In this study, I found that learners’ active participation and face-to-face interactions with more capable adult or peers’ collaborations are important opportunities for learning English (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Dickson, 1986; Gibson, 2002; Joyce, 1997; Hruska, 2000; Oxford, 1997; Wells, 1998; Wong-Fillmore, 1986; Wood et al, 1976). At the beginning of the school year, ELLs needed scaffolding to understand an unfamiliar environment, including language, as teachers provided support for learning about school routines and expectations. Overall, it was interactions with peers that served as the primary means of learning English.



### *Recommendations for Teachers*

In this preschool, the curriculum focused on alphabet awareness and many activities were designed to meet that goal. The teachers introduced diverse themes (from animals to electricity) once a week through worksheets (Let's Find Out). These themes had interesting topics and new words. The teachers introduced a topic every week, but did not come back to the topic later. The new words that were used on the worksheets were not repeated later or in other contexts, which did not support ELLs' language development. Even some English-speaking children did not understand the new words and instructions and subsequently performed incorrectly. Therefore, the teachers need to provide structured activities and routines so that the learners can determine and learn different kinds of discourse and genre (Genishi, Dyson, & Fassler, 1994; Howes & Ritch, 2002). Also, children's interests that can enhance motivational participation were not considered. If teachers caught the children's interests in certain topics and provided authentic and communicative activities to learn about the topics in-depth, ELLs as well as English-speaking children would be able to extend their knowledge and increase their communicative skills.

Starting from the children's interests rather than teacher determined objectives would enhance overall opportunities for learning. For example, Inwoo's inattention during project time changed when there were interesting topics, such as salamanders or birds. He listened to the teachers carefully and even asked to himself "This is lizard?" as he showed his interest. However, the lesson was over before he had a chance to explore this interest.

If the curriculum encourages children's interests and these topics were sustained for a longer period of the time, children will not only become more familiar with the topic but also have opportunities to use and promote related words, expressions, and terms. They will increase learning English and enhance social interactions among classroom members. Therefore, teachers need to organize a curriculum that considers children's interests in terms of broad themes for inquiry to engage a willingness to wonder, to ask questions, and to collaborate with others in building knowledge (Wells, 1998).

Teachers need to provide more play time than the didactic projects encountered in preschool. Although the ELLs learned the English vocabulary that was used in project time according to the teachers' instructions, more English learning occurred while they interacted with other children during play time (Mehan, 1979; Peaze- Alvarez et al, 1991; Wong-Fillmore, 1982). "Children's play often contains language that is highly predictable, repetitious, and well contextualized" (Litfords, 1987 p. 210). Play encourages children to engage in conversation and gives opportunities to use language related to roles, plans, and themes (Yawkey & Miller, 1985). Although teachers' lecture-styled instructions promoted the children's understanding and listening skills through repeated instructions in this study, during play, the ELLs had more opportunity to express themselves, practice their English, and receive feedback as well as to learn diverse expressions that are used in everyday life from their peers. Thus, learning English is enhanced with more extended time for play with peers.

The teachers provided scaffolding to enhance the ELLs' understanding of English at the beginning of the school year, and then gradually decreased when the ELLs started to understand instructions (Woods et al., 1976). Teachers need to provide more interaction time with the ELLs beyond scheduled academic instruction, especially for socially isolated children, and to facilitate peer interactions. Teachers need to provide ample opportunities for children to participate in and use the language. According to Hartup (1983), peer-peer interactions are more difficult than adult-child interactions. Adults provide substantial conversation support, but peer partners showed greater conversational challenges than adult partners. Therefore, teachers need to provide social interactions with ELLs and help them move to peers when they have become communicatively and socially competent.

In this study, the two classroom teachers rarely engaged in children's play. Their roles were to help the children complete their daily projects, and they barely even went to the play area unless some conflicts or interruptions occurred. They divided their work from the children's work.

According to Howes and Ritch (2002), positive relationships and classroom organizational structure such as predictable routines, consistency, and sensitivity to children's emotional needs all foster language learning. Inwoo showed the importance of consistent routines in this study. Inwoo liked to play in the block area. One day, the lead teacher announced that the block area was closed without any explanation. Inwoo went to the block area and was about to play because he did not understand the teacher's announcement. The teacher called Inwoo from the project area and said loudly "No block today." Inwoo cried, expressing his frustration. I

observed his frustrations and tears on occasions, no one ever responded to him. Inwoo checked with the lead teacher in order to confirm instructions after several times misunderstanding the directions and announcements. For example, he looked at the teachers several times while he was playing; he seemed to want to know if it was clean-up time. Another example was when the teacher put new jigsaw puzzles on a table; Inwoo looked at the teacher, the puzzles, and peers not knowing if he was allowed to play with them. Inwoo finally played with the puzzles when Jay sat down at the table.

Finally, teacher training is needed to prepare teachers to be able to understand and help the ELLs who come from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds (Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Teachers with more experience and training are more likely to facilitate ELL's learning and have positive relationships with them (Clarke, 1999; Gillanders, 2007; Saville-Troike, 1988).

#### *Support for Enhancing Children's English Learning*

In this research, I found that learners' active participation is essential in learning English. They need to pay attention to English input and become avid observers, listeners, and participants to learn English (Garton & Pratt, 1998; Richard, 1995; Saville-Troike, 1988; Wong-Fillmore, 1983). Even if there is a good environment and a sense of cooperation for helping classroom members, English could not be mastered without the ELLs' motivation to actively participate in learning. Mutual involvement and shared knowledge (Gumperez, 1983; Yawkey & Miller, 1985) between the learners and their peers is essential. Therefore, ELLs need to cooperate with their peers as soon as possible to give them the impression that they

will be good friends and play partners. They also need to use other-centered strategies (Rogers & Ross, 1986) at the beginning of the school year in order to be a successful English learner and to build friendships. If they give the impression that they are not cooperative peers at the beginning of the school year, it is very difficult to change the impression later, like Paul's situation.

Even if ELLs put all of the effort in being a good friend, and their peers still are not ready to be a play partner or would not share any conversation and play, ELLs have to move to another relationship before all friendship groups are formed and they have a difficult time making friends. ELLs need to select friends who can be mutually involved in their friendships and play because friendship or English learning might not occur without mutual involvement. Consequently, to enhance peer relationships and support ELLs' language learning, teachers and educators need to spend time to observe children who are lacking social skills and strengthen the curriculum of social development.

#### Suggestions for Further Study

Many researchers have found that social pretend play promotes language development (Nelson, 1989; Rice, 1993), social interactions (Odom & Strain, 1984), and social skills (Rice, 1993; Oxford, 2002). Most social interactions occur during play and when children share their ideas, experiences, conversations, and learning (Bunce & Watkins, 1995; Oxford, 2002). Second language researchers have rarely examined the relationship between play and learning English, and whether children's play types and play area choices affect their learning.

Usually, boys selected block play rather than sociodramatic play, girls were the opposite. In this study, Julie participated in sociodramatic play where communications and social interactions were required and she had opportunities to communicate with English-speaking peers in that area. However, I did not investigate if there were differences between the two areas in terms of the structural frequency of social interactions that promoted learning English. How social interactions take place in the two areas, and whether area choice affects social interactions and learning English needs to be studied. Also, girl-girl play partners produced more communications than boy-boy partners in this study. Further study might look at three types of partners: girl-girl, boy-boy, and girl-boy in order to understand how their play partners might affect learning English.

In this study, children's play types affected learning English. Although I found that Julie's cooperative play type was successful for building friendships and learning English, further study needs to consider cooperative play as a successful strategy regardless of play partners' attitudes toward ELLs. Julie could participate in the conversations because her friends accepted her as a play partner, while, Paul's cooperative play in the spring was not accepted and he was ignored by his peers. If Paul had used cooperative play at the beginning of school, would his peers have accepted him as a friend or a play partner? Or do preschoolers have preferences for play partners that might lead to inclusion and exclusion? Why do children accept someone as a friend and not accept others? Does English language status have any impact on friendship formation?

Another suggestion for further research is to examine how different types of preschool programs affect learning English. For example, do more interactions occur in play-oriented preschool and facilitated learning English than in traditional-styled preschool? Also, are there any differences when ELLs are in a half-time program or in a full-time program? This study was conducted in a half-time program; it is anticipated that more interactions and English learning would occur if the ELLs were in a full-time program than in a half-time program. A comparison study could be done between the two programs to identify the factors of successful learning conditions; whether ELLs' attitudes (e.g., active participation) and their peers' attitudes (e.g., social acceptance) are still important for learning English regardless the quantity of input. Children's social skills might be different or the same when they participate in other environments, such as a Korean Saturday school. It will be helpful to understand, as a researcher might compare and contrast, how social interactions occur and how children's social skills toward peers and play types emerge in two different environments.

Third, research is needed to understand roles of family and culture to validate cultural beliefs about American education and language learning. The parents in this study selected this preschool because they believed that this school would provide a strong academic-based curriculum. The desire for better education for their children had become one of the reasons to participate in the school. To better understand parents' beliefs about education, research might consider a comparison of parents' beliefs about early childhood education and language learning between strong academic-based curriculum and emotionally warm and supportive curriculum.

In addition, the parents in this study believed that their children would pick up English quickly as long as their children participated in an English-speaking preschool. Their concerns were Korean language maintenance and social relationships with other children, rather than new language learning. In an interview, the mothers of Julie and Inwoo expressed that they would send their children to a Korean Saturday school. They said it was time to teach the children how to read and write Korean and not lose Korean since their children were exposed to more English than Korean. On the other hand, Paul's mother was concerned about Paul's social relationship with other children. She had experienced that her oldest son had a difficult time making friendships. Inwoo's mother also expressed her concern about Inwoo's solitary play because she observed it in the previous preschool.

Finally, research is needed to identify and better understand ELLs' language learning and experiences because of cultural differences. For example, do Korean ELLs undergo similar or different learning processes than other English-language learners who come from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds? How do linguistic and cultural differences affect language learning when Korean ELLs interact with teachers and peers? For instance, linguistically, Spanish-speaking children use the same alphabet as English-speaking children, but Korean-speaking children use a totally different language of the Korean alphabet. Culturally, Koreans do not use someone's name if he/she is older than the speaker, but call them by their title, as a sign of respect. If you call the older person by their name, it is regarded as impolite. Koreans call their teachers "Teacher" instead of "Mrs. A" or "Mrs. B" and "Professor" instead of "Dr. C."



Overall, research is needed to consider how cultural differences (e.g., parent's perspective on learning and children's social experiences in dual cultures), curriculum differences (e.g., different types of school programs), and individual differences (e.g., personality and social skills) might have an influence on young children's learning English.

### Limitations

This study was limited to Korean language learners within two classrooms. The perspectives and experiences of Korean ELLs may not be typical or be replicable for other populations, such as the large number of Spanish-speaking children. This qualitative study of three Korean ELLs and their experiences, provided with rich descriptions, is limited in generalizability. However, translatability or typicality (Erickson, 1981) of this study enables the audience in similar settings with similar students to use the in-depth lessons and interpretation as a means of examining children's language learning processes.

The PLAI-2 which was used to establish the baseline and to determine the children's progress imposes further limitations because it has not been widely used for the ELL population and the assessment has not been standardized for ELLs. However, the assessment provided important information about social interactive components of English proficiency which was useful in this study.

Qualitative research must make every reasonable effort to eliminate validity concerns when using collected evidence. According to Spindler and Spindler (1992), validity is established if the researcher stayed in the setting long enough to observe things happening over and over again, leaving nothing new to learn. Thus, the more

time spent in the field, the better the validity. To establish validity, I observed the same events more than once and increased the validity of observations.

In this study, I did not use member checking as a form of validity because the teachers were not involved in most child-peer interactions and therefore would not be able to provide feedback. The three target children informants could not provide their feedback. In some research (e.g., Corsaro, 1985), children serve as informants and provide triangulation for observation of classroom interaction and events. It was not possible to use the target children for member checks given their limited English proficiency. However, during data analysis, some discussion occurred with another expert in early childhood education on some aspects of data sorting and interpretation, but overall, the opportunities to do member checks were very limited. This in turn somewhat weakens the overall validity of the observations.

Also, in this study, only visible and audible interactions and actions in the classroom and at the playground were measured. As a result, intrapersonal skills were observed when it was visible and audible. The ELLs no longer used private speech when they internalized the learning and it became inner speech. Their learning was continued, but was not observable. For example, Inwoo did not know the instruction of coloring at first. When he learned the words through interactional routines, he performed his project without clue-looking, but instead, he directed himself by learned (memorized) words (saying to himself “Back and forth, back and forth”). Finally, when he was coloring, he did not talk aloud, but completed his task without verbal direction because the unfamiliar words were internalized. At this moment, his learning was no longer visible or audible.

My research provided an opportunity to look at how young Korean children learned English over the course of one year in an American preschool. Social interactions with peers were an important vehicle for learning and the three children engaged in different types of strategies to develop friendships. Suggestions for further research presented here will further understanding about how the sociocultural environment of the preschool supports young children's English language learning.



## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Dore's code for conversational acts

##### Codes, Definitions and Examples of Conversational Acts

Code	Definition and Examples
	Requestives solicit information or actions
RQCH	Choice Questions seek either-or judgments relative to propositions: "Is this an apple?"; "Is it red or green?"; "Okay?"; "Right?"
RQPR	Product Questions seek information relative to most "WH" interrogative pronouns: "Where's John?"; "What happened?"; "Who?"; "When?"
	Process Questions seek extended descriptions or explanations: "Why did he go?"; "How did it happen?"; "What about him?"
RQPC	Action Requests seek the performance of an action by hearer: "Give me it!"; "Put the toy down!"
	Permission Requests seek permission to perform an action: "May I go?"
RQAC	Suggestions recommended the performance of an action by hearer or speaker both: "Let's do it!"; "Why don't you do it?"; "You should do it"
RQPM	Assert facts, state rules, convey attitudes, etc.
RQSU	Identifications label objects, events, people, etc.: "That's a car."; "I'm Robin."; "We have a boat."
	Descriptions predicative events, properties, locations, etc. of objects or people: "The car is red."; "It fell on the floor."; "We did it."
ASID	Internal Reports express emotions, sensations, intents and other mental events: "I like it."; "It hurts."; "I'll do it."; "I know."
ASDC	Evaluations express personal judgments or attitudes: "That's good."
ASIR	Attributions report beliefs about another's internal state: "He does not know the answer." "He wants to."; "He can't do it."
ASEV	Rules state procedures, definitions, "social rules," etc.: "It goes in here." "We don't fight in school."; "That happens later."
ASAT	Explanations state reasons, causes, justifications, and predictions: "I did it because it's fun."; "It won't stay up there."
ASRU	Performatives accomplish acts (and establish facts) by being said.
ASEX	Claims establish rights for speaker: "That's mine."; "I'm first."
	Jokes cause humorous effect by stating incongruous information, usually patently false. "We threw the soup on the ceiling."
PFCL	Teases annoy, taunt or playful provoke a hearer: "You can't get me."
PFJO	Protests express objections to hearer's behavior: "Stop!"; "No!"
	Warnings alert hearer of impending harm: "Watch out!"; "Be careful!"
PETE	Responsive supply solicited information or acknowledge remarks
PEPR	Choice Answers provide solicited judgments of propositions: "Yes."
PFWA	Product Answers provide Wh-information: "John's here." "It fell."
	Process Answers provide solicited explanations, etc.: "I wanted to."
RSCH	Compliances express acceptance, denial, or acknowledgement of requests: "Okay."; "Yes."; "I'll do it."
RSPR	
RSPC	Clarification Responses provide solicited confirmations: "I said no."
RSCO	Qualifications provide unsolicited information to requestive: "But I didn't do it."; "this is not an apple."
RSCL	Agreements agree or disagree with prior non-requestive act: "No, it is not."; "I don't think you're right."
RSQL	
	Acknowledgements recognize prior non-requestives: "Oh." "Yeah."
RSAG	Regulatives control personal contact and conversational flow
	Attention-Getters solicit attention: "Hey!"; "John!"; "Look!"

RSAK	Speaker selections label speaker of next turn: "John"; "You"
ODAG	Rhetorical Questions seek acknowledgement to continue: "Know what?"
ODSS	Boundary Markers indicate openings, closings, and shifts in the conversation: "Hi"; "Bye!"; "Okay"; "Alright"; "By the way"
ODRQ	Politeness Markers indicate ostensible politeness: "Please"; "Thank you"
ODBM	Expressives non-propositionally convey attitudes or repeat others.
ODPM	Explanations express surprise, delight or other attitudes: "Oh!"; "Wow"
EXCL	Accompaniments maintain contact by supplying information redundant with respect to some contextual feature: "Here you are"; "There you go"
EXAC	Repetitions repeat prior utterances.
EXRP	Miscellaneous Codes
UNTP	Uninterpretables for uncodable utterances.
NOAN	No Answers to questions, after 2 seconds of silence by addressee.
NVRS	Non-verbal Responses for silent compliances and other gestures.

## **Appendix B**

### **LETTER TO THE PARENT FOR TARGET CHILDREN**

Dear Parent or Guardian,

The purpose of this letter is to ask your permission to conduct an observation and interview of your child at his/her child's preschool. I am a doctoral student in Human Development at the University of Maryland and will be conducting research at your child's school, two days a week, over the course of a year.

The topic of my research will be English language learning in classrooms. I am interested in how children develop their learning English in an English-speaking classroom. This information will help educators and policy makers understand better effect of educational practice on children's English language learning, and ultimately provide more adequate learning environments for these children.

In order to conduct this study, I will observe children's behaviors and activities at certain times of the day in the classroom, and I will interview children to better understand their learning experiences in the preschool. I will videotape the children's naturally occurring interactive behavior. In addition to observation, there will be a parent interview to gather information on the children's and their family backgrounds and parents' beliefs about language learning.

All information gained in this study will be confidential and anonymous. There will be no information identifying any child, family, or preschool in any written report of the study. Finally, children and/or their parents can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Your permission for your child to be observed and your cooperation in this project is sincerely appreciated. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to call or email me.

Sincerely,

Sunkyoung Yi and Professor Elisa Klein

Department of Human Development

University of Maryland



## **LETTER TO THE PARENT FOR ALL CHILDREN IN THE CLASSROOM**

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Dear Parent or Guardian,

The purpose of this letter is to ask your permission to conduct an observation and interview of your child at his/her child's preschool. I am a doctoral student in Human Development at the University of Maryland and will be conducting research at your child's school, two days a week, over the course of a year.

The topic of my research will be English language learning in classrooms. I am interested in how children develop their learning English in an English-speaking classroom. This information will help educators and policy makers understand better effect of educational practice on children's English language learning, and ultimately provide more adequate learning environments for these children.

In order to conduct this study, I will observe children's behaviors and activities at certain times of the day in the classroom. Although your child will not be the child whom I want to observe, I will videotape the children's naturally occurring interactive behavior. Thus, your child can be videotaped in the study.

All information gained in this study will be confidential and anonymous. There will be no information identifying any child, family, or preschool in any written report of the study. Finally, children and/or their parents can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Your permission for your child to be observed and your cooperation in this project is sincerely appreciated. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to call or email me.

Sincerely,

Sunkyoung Yi and Professor Elisa Klein

Department of Human Development

University of Maryland

## Appendix C

### The school map

#### 1<sup>st</sup> Floor Map

Science classroom	Art classroom	Nurse's room	Director's room	School office
Entrance	Hall way			
Classroom for three years olds	Classroom for three years olds	Classroom for three years olds	Classroom for three years olds	Classroom for three years olds

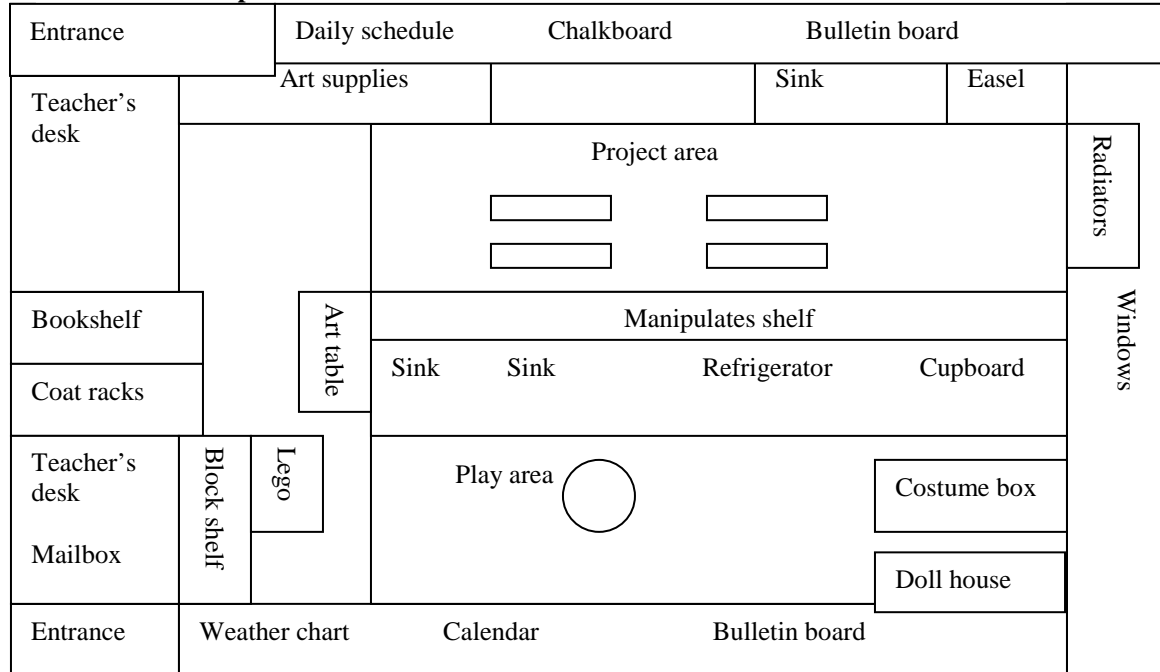
#### 2<sup>nd</sup> Floor Map

Mrs. Handerson's Classroom	Mrs. Pearson's Classroom	A classroom for four years olds	Nursery room	Music classroom
Entrance	Hall way			
Mrs. Anderson's classroom	A classroom for four years olds	Restrooms for boys and girls	School supply room	

## Appendix D

### Mrs. Pearson's Classroom

**D-1 The map of classroom**



**D-2 The detailed materials for each area**

- Sociodramatic play area
- Child-size oven
- Child-size dolls and child-size bed
- Standing mirror
- Plastic vegetables, fruits, fish, spaghetti, meat, and dumplings
- Plastic dishes and cups
- Plastic cooking utensils
- Plastic pots and pans
- Drawer filled with plastic jewelry such as rings and necklaces, costumes
- Two wireless telephones (real but used)
- Adult-size rocking chair
- Doll house
- Human figured dolls: daddy, mommy, and babies
- Household furniture: tables, chairs, beds, drawers, bathtubs, a sink
- Block
- Small/big wooden and plastic blocks
- Hollow blocks
- Plastic mega blocks
- Brick-shaped cardboard blocks
- Wooden trains and tracks
- Plastic animals, human figures, mini-cars, and trucks
- Art table
- Stencils
- Markers
- White multi-purpose paper
- Scissors

Glues

- Books

Many books were displayed on a bookshelf. The books were changed depending on the seasonal or special occasion's themes.

- Manipulative

Different kinds of puzzles

Plastic bears for sorting by colors

Scales

## **Appendix E**

### **Mrs. Anderson's classroom**

#### **E-1 The classroom design**

The structure of Mrs. Anderson's classroom was the same as that of Mrs. Pearson's: two doors, two divided areas (the project area and the play area). The rectangular-shaped classroom had two doors, an entrance and exit. Beside the entrance was a built-in teacher's desk with dark, wooden cabinet on the desk at the front door. The desk was used to store teachers' materials for projects. Along with the desk, there was a space that children hung their tote bags and coats. Another built-in desk was located next to the cubby area and ended up at the back door. On the desk at the front door was sat a movable wooden mailbox for children's works from art class or project time beside the mailbox. Under the mailbox, from the side of entrances, the opposite wall was covered with windows and was divided into two spaces: the play area and the project area. Under the windows there were two radiators as long as the windows.

In the project area (left side of the classroom), there were four tables indicated by shapes – triangle, square, rectangle, and circle – where the children had a snack and small-group and whole-group projects, and where the nametags of each of the four children were put on each table. On the left side wall of the classroom was one chalkboard that was used when teachers wrote a specific alphabet letter during project time. On the left side of the board was located a "month of the year" chart. Under the chalkboard was a shelf that had scissors, glues, crayons, and markers. Next to the shelf were a sink and an easel with a baby-sized cardboard weather bear. Unlike the weather chart in Mrs. Pearson's classroom, the children in the classroom changed the bear's clothes according to the weather. In a corner of the project area that was close to the play area, a dollhouse was located on a table. A front-opened bookshelf toward the play area faced a front-opened shelf that was used to store manipulative and art materials situated to separate the project area and the play area. Next to the shelf were a desk and a chair; if a child misbehaved, the teachers sent him/her there and the child sat down until he/she was ready to behave again.

The daily schedule was posted on the wall in the middle of the windows side (opposite side of the entrances). The walls were covered with posters about the alphabet, different colors, numbers one to twenty, a children's birthday chart, and more rule posters than Mrs. Pearson's, such as "Keep your hands to yourself," "Eat politely," "Put things away," "Cover your mouth when you sneeze." Like Mrs. Pearson's classroom, children's works were posted on the wall outside the classroom or hung them by strings that connected to the ceiling.

On the right side wall was a bulletin board containing specific seasonal themes. The right side of the classroom consisted of three open areas: the kitchen, the block area, and the book area. In the play area, a movable bookshelf faced the shelf for art and manipulative materials. Between the kitchen sets and the bookshelf was a crib that contained two baby-sized baby dolls.

Half of the play area was furnished with kitchen equipment, such as a refrigerator, a sink, an oven, a microwave, and a cupboard at the window side. A round table and four chairs were situated in front of the equipment. Under the bulletin board was a big container called a treasure box, which stored various costumes, such as princess dresses, capes, cowboy costumes, and pompoms. On the box, there was a doctor kit and a jewelry box. At the back entrance side, there was a shelf which stored block materials.

The detailed materials for each area are follows:

- Sociodramatic play area

- Child-size oven

- Baby-size dolls and child-size bed

- Plastic vegetables, fruits, fish, spaghetti, meat, and hamburger

- Plastic dishes and cups

- Plastic cooking utensils

- Plastic pots and pans

- Box filled with rings and necklaces

- Treasure box for costumes

- Doctor kit

- Two wireless telephones (real but used)

Adult-size rocking chair

- Doll house

Human figured dolls: daddy, mommy, and babies

Household furniture: tables, chairs, beds, drawers, bathtubs, a sink

- Blocks

Blue and red container for small/big wooden and plastic blocks

Hollow blocks

Plastic mega blocks

Plastic animals, human figures, mini-cars, and trucks

- Manipulative

Two puzzle racks for five jigsaw puzzles

Horse and stables

Beads and strings

- Art equipment

Pencils

Scissors

Papers

Crayons

Markers

- Books

Many books were displayed on a bookshelf. The books were changed depending on the seasonal or special occasion's themes.

## E-2 The classroom map

Entrance	CalendarChalkboard			Windows
Teacher's desk	Art supplies		SinkEasel	
Mailbox		Project area <div></div> <div></div>		
Coat racks		Manipulative shelf	Doll house	
		Book shelf		
Teacher's desk		Block shelf	Play area <div>Costume box</div>	
Entrance	Bulletin board		<div></div>	

## E-3 Daily schedule

As soon as the children arrived at the classroom, they looked at books on their tables until all children came to the classroom between 12:15 p. m. and 12:30 p.m. Around 12:30 p.m., the children lined up for chapel and went to the All-Purpose room. They came back to the classroom and recited the Pledge of Allegiance, standing behind their chairs in the project area at around 1:00 p.m. During the Pledge of Allegiance, a child came in front of the class to lift the national flag (there was a chart with all class names on it where a paper clip by the name indicated whose turn it was to lift the flag) and sang American theme songs together, such as "This Land Is Your Land. This Land Is My Land," "God

Bless America,” “From California to New York City” for a week or two weeks per song. After that, all children sat down in their designated seats.

Group time started with the calendar, such as month, date, and day, and was like Mrs. Pearson’s classroom. Unlike Mrs. Pearson’s classroom, the weather person changed the clothes for the weather bear according to current weather conditions. There was no attendance check in Mrs. Anderson’s classroom. The contents of group time were almost the same all year long: calendar of the year, the month and day and weather.

Around 1:20 p.m., the teacher announced that the children should line-up for outside and special programs that followed around 1:40 p.m. Mrs. Pearson’s classroom had science class on Monday, art class and media class on Thursday, PE class on Tuesday, music class on Wednesday, and Show-and-Tell on Friday. Every Friday, four children brought an item that started with the alphabet letter of the week. The children who had their turns showed the items they brought and explained them and continued to answer questions from the rest of the children. The popular questions were “Where did you get it?”, “Who bought it for you?”, and “Where did you keep it?” After each special program, all children went to the classroom escorted by the classroom teachers, and the teacher surveyed who was going to bathroom. The children who wanted to go to bathroom lined up and went with the lead teacher. The rest of children washed their hands at the sink in the classroom while the assistant teacher helped them prepare for snack time around 2:00 p.m.

The children who finished their snacks earlier went to the carpet and looked at some books that they chose. Paul was the first child to finish his snack first and waited for his peers until they came to the carpet. A story time around 2:20 p.m. was followed by snack time in the play area. Most of the time, the teachers read a story for children (this story time was rarely skipped, unlikely Mrs. Pearson’s classroom). Sometimes, volunteer parents came to the classroom as a guest reader; they brought two or three books to share with the class.

Like Mrs. Pearson’s classroom, during free play and project time between 2:30 p.m. and 2:50 p.m., the class was divided into two groups: a playgroup and a project group. The teachers called out to the group to do projects first or called out individuals to send them to play area. Half of the class did a specific alphabet letter project with the teachers and the remaining half played as they preferred. Most of the time, the two teachers did not find time to stay in the play area; however, if they had time, they usually sat on a rocking chair and watched the children. If any conflict occurred, the teachers solved it. Usually, the children called for attention as they called the teacher’s name, “Look, Mrs. Anderson.”

Sometimes, the teachers initiated a conversation, asking the children, “What did you make?”

In the play area, there were no limited numbers of children. Most boys preferred to play with blocks; they encountered conflicts such as sharing. When it was a clean-up time around 2:50 p.m., teachers sang the “clean-up time song” in rhythms of “Jingle Bells” and children started to clean up as they said, “It’s clean-up time.”

After clean-up time (around 3:00 p.m.), the teacher called children’s name one by one to bring in their own belongings, such as bags, jackets and works on their tables. The teacher checked outside to see if the parents were outside the classroom to pick up their children and called the children’s names according to the order the parents showed up.

#### **E-4 Daily schedule and routines**

Time	Schedule
12:15 – 12:30	Arrival and reading time
12:30 – 1:00	Chapel
1:00 – 1:20	Group time (The Pledge of Allegiance, attendance, weather, calendar)
1:20 – 1:40	Outside
1:40 – 2:00	Special program (music, PE, art, science, media)
	Show-and-Tell (on Fridays)
2:00 – 2:20	Snack
2:20 – 2:30	Story time
2:30 – 2:50	Free play/Project time
2:50 – 3:00	Clean-up
3:00 – 3:15	Dismissal

Schedule times were flexible; sometimes the schedule switched because of weather, or special projects.



## **Appendix F**

### **The interview protocol**

#### **Parent Interview Protocol**

- Backgrounds of The Children
  1. Tell me about your life in America.
  2. Tell me about your family history. Why do you come to the U.S.A?
  3. Tell me about your educational history.
- Language Learning
  1. Tell me about the experience at the school? What is your impression of the school?
  2. Tell me about your experiences with the teachers?
  3. Tell me about the experiences of other family members in your child's school.
  4. What do you think of the program for English language learners?
  5. What kind of relationships does your child have with the teacher in the classroom?
  6. What kind of relationships does your child have with Korean speaking children in your child's school?
  7. What kind of relationships does your child have with English speaking children in your child's school?
  8. Do you help your child learn English?
  9. How do you help your child?

#### **Children Interview Protocol**

(Note: There are initial questions to begin the conversation. Children will not be required to answer specific questions.)

- Learning Process
  1. Tell me about your school. What do you like about school? What do you not like about school?
  2. Tell me about your teacher. How does your teacher help you?
  3. Tell me about your classmate. Who do you play with?
  4. How do you spend a day in your school?
  5. How do you spend a day in your classroom?
  6. Does your teacher help you to learn English?
  7. How does your teacher help you?
  8. Do your classmates help you to learn English in the classroom?
  9. How do your classmates help you?
  10. What do you do during your small group activities?
  11. Do you talk to your classmates in your small group activities?
  12. How do you practice English in your classroom?
- Social Process
  1. How do you work together with your classmates in your small group activities?
  2. What do you talk about with your classmates in your small group activities?
  3. When do you talk with your classmates in your small group activities?
  4. Who do you talk to with your classmates in your small group activities?
  5. Do you participate in your small group activities?

## Appendix G

### Examples of Types of Actions and Interactions

#### *Non-Communicative Action (NCA)*

In the block area (12/15/06) Inwoo

Inwoo was in the block area with a truck, when Kendall entered.

Kendall (K): I'm making a castle.

Inwoo (I): I [am playing with] truck.

K: (no response)

Inwoo scratched his hair and looked at what Kendall did. Brianna entered the block area and joined Kendall. *Inwoo looked over their shoulders* to see what they were doing, as he pushed and pulled his truck. *Inwoo looked at the teacher* who was helping other children with projects. *Inwoo looked at Brianna and Kendall* again.

#### *Private Speech (PS)*

In the art class (3/22/07) Paul

Paul was making a letter W and the art teacher approached him asking, "You're going to glue? Why don't you use a glue stick?" Paul repeated the word with surprise, "Glue stick?" The teacher gave him a glue stick and Paul was gluing with it saying "*glue stick, glue stick, glue stick*" in rhythm.

#### *Non-Responses (NR)*

At the Lego table (1/22/07) Inwoo

Inwoo, Jay, and Julie were at the Lego table. Jay and Julie were talking to each other. Julie said to Jay "Don't use this. It's not working. Okay? I'll put it here."

Jay: (To Julie) "Oh, oh. I don't like it." (To Inwoo) "Inwoo, Inwoo! Have you? Guess what?"

*Inwoo did not look at either Julie or Jay.* He was busy building with blocks.

#### *Non-Verbal Communication (NVC)*

The major purposes of NVC with teachers were answering questions and attention-getting. The major purposes of NVC with peers were attention-getting, answering, and protesting.

For *answering* teachers and peers children were observed nodding, pointing, shaking their heads, and offering objects. *Nodding* was used when teachers and peers asked questions answerable with "yes" or "no." *Pointing* was used to both communicate their choices to teachers or for answering teacher's questions. *Head shaking* performed the same purpose as nodding, but was used to express "no" rather than "yes." *Offering an object* was used to respond to peers' needs and questions or teachers' questions.

For *attention-getting* from a peer or a teacher, the child was observed shaking, lifting, and showing their work, shaking an object, giggling, and offering were used. Shaking, lifting, and showing their work were typical actions for getting attention to show everyone the ELLs had finished the assigned task. If the teachers did not arrive immediately, the child continued holding up their work or waving it, not by announcing verbally, "I'm finished." On the other hand, shaking an object, giggling, and giving it away were used to attract a peer's attention.

To demonstrate a *protest*, the children were observed grabbing, blocking, shaking heads, turning their bodies away, and staring to protest actions by peers and show their objections. For *Teaching*, nonverbal teaching was used to teach their peers by pointing.

#### Answering

##### *Nodding*

At a table (9/28/06) (Paul)

Paul arrived first at school.

T: Do you know what to do?

P: (*nodding his head.*)

He picked up a book on the table and looked at it.

##### *Pointing*

At a table (9/29/06) (Julie)

T: Where would you like to go?

J: (*pointed to the doll house without saying anything.*)

*Shaking head*

Example 1.3 At the project area (9/29/06) (Inwoo)

T: (to Inwoo, who was busily making a body with wooden sticks) Your doll has feet?

I: (*shook her head.*)

*Offering an object (Giving*

In the dramatic area (12/18/06) (Paul)

When Paul was in the kitchen with a plastic hamburger, Nick approached Paul, asking "Can I bite?"

Paul *gave it to him* instead of verbally answering.

*Getting attention*

*Shaking their work*

At the project area (10/8/06) (Inwoo)

When the lead teacher passed his table, Inwoo said, "This." The lead teacher did not notice him. Inwoo lifted his work and shook it. The lead teacher came to him, saying, "Okay, good."

*Shaking an object*

In the dramatic play area (10/18/06) (Julie)

Julie approached Elian, who was playing in the kitchen

J: (grabbing a plastic fish from the table and shaking it at El)

El (grabbed the fish) Cut that out!

*Giving*

In the dramatic play area (10/17/06) (Paul)

When Marimoto came to the sink, Paul grabbed a plastic cake from the sink and *gave it* to Marimoto.

Marimoto looked at the cake and did not take it.

*Giggling*

In the manipulative area (9/29/06) (Julie)

Timothy, Jay, and Julie were classifying bears by color.

Julie put a plate on her head and giggled. Jay and Timothy were looking at her.

*Protest*

*Covering and grabbing his blocks*

In the block area (4/18/07) (Paul)

Marimoto approached Paul, trying to take one of his blocks. Marimoto said, "I need this." Paul *covered his blocks* with his hands. Marimoto took Paul's blocks and Paul went to him and *grabbed the blocks* in order to take back his.

*Shaking head*

In the dramatic play area (12/8/06) (Paul)

Paul put a telephone on Nick's ear. Nick took the phone and put it on Paul's ear. Paul *shook his head* and Nick put the phone on his ear. Whenever Nick did the same thing, Paul shook his head, as if saying "No, don't do that"

*Turning her body away*

In the dramatic play area (4/20/07) (Julie)

While Julie and Annie were playing in the kitchen, Gabi approached Julie and tried to take a doll that Julie was holding. Julie quickly turned her body away to retain the doll.

*Staring*

At the dollhouse (11/15/06) (Julie)

Julie and Gabi were playing at the dollhouse, and Gabi was telling Julie what she had to do.

G: You hold mother and dad.

J: (held the dolls.)

G: No, no, no (in a highly rising voice). Hold it just like this.

J: (put the dolls down and stared at Gabi raising her eyebrows.)

G: Come on! Hold this. I told you. Julie! Julie! (in an angry voice).

J: (stared at Gabi with raised eyebrows and held the daddy doll.)

*Teaching*

At the project area (3/20/07) (Inwoo)

T: Put your finger on the number 3.

Timothy A did not put his finger on number 3.

I: It's not number 3.  
TA: What?  
I: (Pointed at number 3).

*Verbal Communication (VC)*

In the block area (4/24/07) Inwoo

Inwoo counted the cars that he lined up and announced to Isaiah, "It's seven. Hey, it's seven."

Isaiah: "Oh, yeah."

I: "*Yeah. Hey, Isaiah, Mine cars count*" [I counted my cars]

Inwoo added more cars beside them and said to Isaiah, "*Me 17.*"

In the dramatic play area (5/1/07) Julie

Sophie was putting the ponies in a basket as Julie approached her.

J: (reaching for one of the ponies) "*I'll get you!*"

Sophie (S): "No, no. She can fly in."

J: "*I like your wings.*"

S: "Thank you."

Elaine: "Can I play with you guys?"

J: "*No more pony though.*"

## Appendix H

### Tables of Learning Strategies

#### Julie's frequency of strategies

Table G-1 Julie's strategies by month

Month	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7
9	3	0	0	1	0	0	0
10	10	3	0	2	2	2	2
11	1	12	6	6	1	3	4
12	7	1	1	1	1	0	0
1	6	9	17	7	4	6	3
2	0	2	5	8	4	0	1
3	0	3	4	10	6	1	4
4	0	0	4	7	1	1	6
5	0	0	0	2	2	0	5
Total	27	30	37	44	21	13	25

#### Paul's frequency of strategies

Table G-2 Paul's strategies by month

Month	# 1	# 2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	# 8	#9	#10
9	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	3	2	0	4	3	0	0	2	3	4
11	3	4	0	4	4	0	0	1	1	0
12	1	3	0	1	1	2	3	1	0	3
1	0	4	1	1	2	4	2	6	2	0
2	3	1	3	1	0	1	2	2	0	3
3	3	1	3	1	1	5	2	6	1	0
4	1	1	3	1	1	7	4	4	3	1
5	0	1	0	0	0	7	0	4	5	1
Total	11	17	10	13	12	26	13	26	16	12

#### Inwoo's frequency of strategies

Table G-3 Inwoo's strategies by month

Month	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6
9	3	2	0	0	0	0
10	3	13	0	0	0	0
11	8	14	2	0	1	1
12	4	6	0	0	0	1
1	4	11	7	0	2	1
2	10	23	2	0	5	1
3	4	9	6	2	3	3
4	12	10	3	4	4	3
5	4	1	5	4	3	2
Total	52	94	25	10	18	12

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