AN INVESTIGATION OF THE NEEDS OF PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATORS IN THE CAPE METROPOLITAN AREA WORKING WITH LEARNERS WHO HAVE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

Bilingual	"Uses two languages on a daily basis" (Owens, 2005, p. 467). In this study the term bilingual is used to refer to multilingual speakers as well, that is, people who are able to use more than two languages.
First language / Home language	The first language acquired in a bilingual speaker
Metalinguistics	Component of linguistic processing that allows the language user to think about language out of context (Owens, 2005).
Phonology	"Aspect of language concerned with the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech-sound patterns," (Owens, 2005, p. 471).
Second language	Additional language/s acquired in a bilingual or multilingual speaker
Cape Metropolitan Area	This area was stipulated as including the Cape Town City Bowl, Southern Suburbs and the Atlantic Seaboard (as far as Bakoven). It also included the Athlone enclosed between the N2 and the N7.
ESOL	English-second (or other) language
LoLT	Language of learning and teaching
BICS	Basic interpersonal communication skills
CALP	Cognitive academic language proficiency
LAC	Language across the curriculum
PART.	Participant

CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Introduction

Speech-language therapists have a linguistics background and have specialised knowledge of language and its development. The majority of speech-language therapy clients in South Africa are bilingual (SASLHA Ethics and Standards Committee, 2003), as this country has a wide range of cultures and languages. However, many of these bilingual children are attending school in a language that is not their first language (PANSALB, 2000). Children learning in a language that is not their first language are often referred to speech-language therapists because of difficulties that they experience at school due to learning in their second language (Crago, Eriks-Brophy, Pesco & McAlpine, 1997; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994; Stoffels, 2004). Referral of English-second (or other) language (ESOL) learners to speech-language therapy is often inappropriate as these children may not have a language disorder but are in the process of acquiring a second language (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999) and, therefore, their language cannot be expected to be on the same level as their English-first-language peers. Thus, ESOL learners are being 'pathologised' due to educators possibly interpreting communicative differences as deficiencies (Crago et al., 1997).

As a result of the increasing numbers of learners being thus referred in the South African context, speech-language therapists are seeking ways of collaborating with educators to promote the language learning of these children and to prevent them from experiencing academic difficulties due to their language differences (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999; Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Jordaan & Yelland, 2003; O'Connor, 2003). Educators are expected to cope with large numbers of ESOL learners in their

classes (PANSALB, 2000). ESOL learners may experience academic and social challenges as a result of learning in their second language (Baker, 1996; Dawber & Jordaan, 1999; Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). Educators have to deal with the difficulties that ESOL learners experience in addition to the other pressures of their work. Speech-language therapists are able to assist educators in the classroom with regards to teaching ESOL learners (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003; Jordaan, 1992; Struthers & Lewis, 2004; Wadle, 1991). This is because speech-language therapists are trained to facilitate language learning and have specialised knowledge of language, its development and the effects of language (listening, speaking, reading and writing) across all academic content areas (Wadle, 1991).

In order for speech-language therapists to provide relevant assistance to educators, it is necessary to explore the needs of educators with regards to teaching ESOL learners in order to determine what their experiences are, what they perceive the learners' needs to be and what strategies they employ when working with ESOL learners. If the specific needs of educators can be understood in greater depth, it is hoped that speech-language therapists, with their expertise in the issues of language, language learning and language pathologies, will be able to provide improved support and assistance to them.

1.2. Review of the Literature

1.2.1. Language Policies and their Implementation in South Africa

South Africa has eleven official languages, each language having equal status in terms of the Constitution and no person may be discriminated against on the grounds of language in this country (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 2002). The

Language Policy and Plan for South Africa states that "since language, as the fundamental instrument of learning and teaching, is at the heart of all education, learners should be strongly encouraged to use their primary languages as their main Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) at all levels of schooling" (The Advisory Panel on Language Policy, 2000. p.15).

The Revised National Curriculum statement (Department of Education, 2002) states that all learners should learn their first language as well as at least one other language, and that learners should "become competent in their additional language, while their home language is maintained and developed," (p.4). The Department of Education (1997) thus promotes an additive approach to bilingualism. The additive approach to bilingualism views the learning of a second (or other) language as most effective when the learner's first language is continually used and respected, as well as the cultural beliefs and values that are connected with that language, as it is very difficult to separate language from culture (Baker, 1996). In this way, the first language is maintained and used as a basis for the learning of the second (or other) language (Chick & McKay, 2001). An additive approach to bilingualism has benefits for the learner as "continued development of both languages into literate domains…is a precondition for enhanced cognitive, linguistic, and academic growth," (Cummins, 2000, p. 37). However, when the additive approach to bilingualism is used, it is important that one language is developed to a level that is adequate for learning subject content, as it may take longer to develop academic proficiency in both languages, resulting in the learner not being able to process high level language in either the first language or the second language (Morrow, Jordaan & Fridjhon, 2005). Alexander (2000) states that in the long term an additive approach to bilingualism will

lead to high literacy levels in home languages of South Africans as well as some fluency in English, if the policy of learners learning in their first language is consistently implemented.

However, this policy is currently only being partially implemented in South African schools. In a study carried out by the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB, 2000) it was found that although only 9% of South Africans spoke English at home, it was used in 78% of school situations. In the Western Cape, specifically, 68% of the province's education is provided in English, 48% in Afrikaans and only 4% in isiXhosa. This is in spite of the fact that 31% of the province's population use isiXhosa for neighbourhood communication, while only 18% use English for communication in their neighbourhood. In the Western Cape, Afrikaans is the dominant language (49% of the population use it for neighbourhood communication) even though it is not the dominant language used at schools in this province. (PANSALB, 2000). (See Table 1.1). Participants may have been able to give an 'other' response resulting in the total for language use in neighbourhood communication having a sum of less that 100% (PANSALB, 2000). As participants of the PANSALB (2000) study could give multiple responses it was possible for the total responses to language use in education to have a sum of more that 100%.

Table 1.1: Languages used for neighbourhood communication and education respectively in the Western Cape (adapted from PANSALB data, 2000).

Language	**Neighbourhood Communication**	**Education**
Afrikaans	49%	48%
English	18%	68%
IsiXhosa	31%	4%

Thus, it can be seen that the majority of learners in the Western Cape are learning in a language that is not their first language, usually English. Furthermore, the first language of these learners is often not maintained (Chick & McKay, 2001). This reflects a subtractive approach, which occurs when education commences in a language the learner may not fully understand and the learner is expected to acquire this language through submersion and exposure to the language (Chick & McKay, 2001). In this way, the learner is placed in a school where the language of instruction is not the learner's first language and he/she is expected to acquire the language of instruction through engaging in that language in the school environment. The subtractive approach may lead to learners losing their home language as a language that can be used for high level cognition (Morrow, et al., 2005).

Adler (2001) states that South African schools can be divided according to three geographical contexts: non-urban schools, urban township schools and urban suburban schools. In non-urban schools educators and learners usually speak the same African language and only make use of English in the formal school environment (Adler, 2001). In some urban township schools English is used as the medium of instruction in spite of the fact that it is not the first language of learners and educators (Adler, 2001). In addition, learners and educators at these schools may not speak the same African language as their first language (Adler, 2001). At English-medium urban suburban schools educators are usually English- or Afrikaans-first-language speakers and have multilingual classes (Adler, 2001).

There are a number of reasons why many South African learners are not learning in their first language. In addition to the shortage of educators for some language groups

(Moyo, 2001), many parents prefer their children to be educated in English as it is viewed by many South Africans as being an international language (Vesely, 2000). isiXhosa-speaking high-school learners in Cape Town preferred their classes to be taught in English, in spite of academic difficulties due to learning in their second language (Vesely, 2000). These learners viewed English as providing more opportunities than isiXhosa in terms of jobs and tertiary education – a viewpoint that may be shared by other South Africans (Vesely, 2000). However, it may still be possible to obtain sufficiently high levels of proficiency in English through learning it as a second language, rather than learning everything *in* English (Morrow, et al., 2005).

Further reasons for the language policy not being fully implemented include the need for greater willpower to apply the language policy effectively at a political level (Moyo, 2001). In addition, Moyo (2001) argues that a larger number of educators are required, both in English as well as in the other official languages of the country, and that there needs to be better infrastructure in terms of equipment and buildings (Moyo, 2001). This relates well to the needs perceived by educators in the past in this respect. (O'Connor, 2003, Pluddemann, Mati & Mahlahela-Thusi, 2000).

South Africa's neighbouring countries have experienced similar barriers to ensuring that learners learn in their first language, largely due to the perceived higher status of colonial languages. Botswana has Setswana and English as its official languages and is currently implementing a policy of learners being taught in Setswana for the first two years of schooling followed by education in English (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2002). This is because English has a high status in Botswana in spite of the fact that

Setswana is spoken by approximately 80% of the people in Botswana (Hornberger, 1999). Namibia has a language policy similar to South Africa's where education is promoted in the learner's first language. However, this policy is not always implemented resulting in many learners learning in a language that is not their first language (Munganda, 2002). Mozambique has adopted a bilingual education model that attempts to include African local languages with Portuguese in the education system (Veloso & Patel, 2002). Swaziland's education system adopts a transitional bilingual-education policy which accepts the use of the first language (usually SiSwati) as a medium of instruction as an instrument to facilitate the move to English as the official language of education (Mbatha, 2002). In Zimbabwe there is no explicit language policy but English is the dominating language for business and politics, while African languages are undervalued in the education system (Chimundu, 1997 cited by Brock-Utne, 2001, p. 126). Thus, it seems that there are problems promoting education in learners' first languages throughout Southern Africa and not only in South Africa.

The Language in Education Policy (Department of Education, 1997) represents the ideal standard for accommodating South Africa's eleven official languages in education but it has not yet been fully implemented in South African schools. Until such time as the Language in Education Policy is fully implemented, educators continue to face the challenges of large numbers of English-second (or other) language (ESOL) learners in their classrooms (PANSALB, 2000). These learners may experience academic and emotional challenges, which educators are then required to deal with. In order to support educators in this responsibility, it is necessary to explore the needs of educators working with ESOL learners in depth, with the aim of

obtaining information that will lead to effective strategies that can be implemented practically.

1.2.2. Previously established needs of educators working with ESOL learners

The needs of ESOL learners

The literature dealing with learners being taught, and learning, in a language in which they are not fully proficient, indicates that these learners experience various difficulties in the school environment. Language and cultural barriers, which lead to a communication breakdown, may result in misunderstandings arising between learners and educators (Crago, et al., 1997). In fact, language is seen as the main issue at South African schools resulting in other problems such as learners dropping out of school, low grades and failure (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004). In South Africa the language problem is sometimes exacerbated as English is used in conjunction with other languages and learners do not always gain sufficient proficiency in English but are assessed in English (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004). This phenomenon is more likely to occur at non-urban and urban township schools than at English-medium urban suburban schools where English is the only language used (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

Cummins (2000) draws a distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). He states that schools focus on CALP as "it reflects the registers of language that children acquire in school and which they need to use effectively if they are to progress successfully through the grades," (Cummins, 2000, p. 59). CALP "…enables learners to use the

concepts, to engage in the cognitive strategies and to employ the study skills which constitute school learning" (Burkett, Clegg, Landon, Reilly & Verster, 2001, p.152). One of the difficulties that ESOL learners may experience is that, although they may be able to use English competently among peers and in social settings (BICS), they may not be proficient in the type of language that is expected in the classroom situation (CALP) (McKeon, 1994). It has been found that without special intervention ESOL learners take approximately two years to become competent in everyday English communication skills (BICS), but about five to seven years to reach the same level as their first-language peers in terms of CALP (Hall, 1996).

In a South African study Burkett et al. (2001) noted three obstacles that ESOL learners may encounter when acquiring CALP in their second language. Firstly, these learners (especially in the Foundation Phase – Grades 0 to 3) are unlikely to have learnt these academic language skills in their first language sufficiently (Burkett et al., 2001). Secondly, ESOL learners may not have well-developed CALP in their second (or other) language, either because these skills have not transferred from their first language, or because educators have not explicitly highlighted these skills in their lessons (Burkett et al., 2001). The third obstacle that ESOL learners may face when acquiring CALP in their second language, is that they may not have sufficiently well developed BICS in their second language to acquire CALP in that language (Burkett, et al., 2001). Thus, if a child does not have adequate CALP in the language of instruction (usually English), their success at school may be compromised.

Earlier on, an international study had already identified that the effectiveness of education may be reduced when a learner is taught in his/her second language (Cloud,

1993). This is due to a number of reasons. These include the fact that the learner, having inadequate CALP, may become fatigued due to information taking longer to process in a second language (Cloud, 1993). In addition, fatigue may result in the learner not receiving all the information given by the educator (Cloud, 1993). Furthermore, educators may unintentionally reduce the amount of information that is given, in an attempt to reduce the language demands that are placed on the ESOL learners (Cloud, 1993). Yet another factor is that the speech discrimination of ESOL learners has been found to be worse in noise than that of learners learning in their first language (Nelson, Kohnert, Sabur & Shaw, 2005). As most classrooms are noisy, ESOL learners may have difficulty processing English linguistic information, making the learning of new concepts even more difficult for them (Nelson, et al., 2005).

A very important area of school achievement is that of reading and the learning of this skill may have added difficulties for an ESOL learner. It has been found that learners should learn to read in their first language before learning to read in any other languages (Baker, 1996). This is because a learner needs to have spoken language competency before being able to learn to read in that language, as various linguistic processes are required for reading, and oral language proficiency aids comprehension of written material (Cloud, 1993). Once learners have learnt to read in their first language, the foundation has been laid upon which reading skills in another language can be built (Baker, 1996). However, as many learners in South Africa do not start school in their first language, it is to be expected that they are learning to read in their weaker language first. This means that they may experience less success and slower progress in their reading skills than those learners who are learning to read in their stronger language first (Baker, 1996). An added problem in the South African context

is that African languages are not related to English in terms of structure or sound (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999). As a result, the languages would express ideas differently making it very difficult for the ESOL learner to understand *what* they are reading (Dawber & Jordaan 1999). "This means that there will not be a simple match between the written language the child is trying to learn to read and speak, and their own first language…There is also almost no meaning being associated with the reading until the child has acquired enough language skills to make sense of words and structure in English," (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999, p. 31).

It can be seen that ESOL learners may experience academic underachievement due to the impact of their poor language skills. The Western Cape Education Department (2004) recognises that ESOL learners may have academic difficulties related to not learning in their first language, yet it recommends that, where possible these learners should proceed through the grades with their peers so that their self-esteem is not negatively affected. It is further recommended that these learners get additional support in the following grade where possible, although the nature of this support is not specified (Western Cape Education Department, 2004).

In addition, limited academic success is likely to impact negatively on ESOL learners' self-esteem and confidence. This in turn is known to affect other areas of learning and functioning (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999). It has been found that bilingual children have a greater risk of developing disfluency than children who speak only one language (Travis, Johnson and Shover, 1947 and Stern, 1948 cited by Silverman, 1996, p. 108). ESOL learners may experience embarrassment when they make mistakes in their second language in front of their first language peers (McLaughlin, 1992). Educators

in South Africa working with learners who were not learning in their first language have reported that many of these learners experience social isolation due to inadequate language abilities, frustration due to the fact that they battle to express their needs and emotions, as well as problems with discipline because of limited comprehension skills (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). Discipline problems are reported to be common when the educator and learners do not share linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Pluddemann, et al., 2000). When educators are forced to spend a great deal of time on discipline it can interrupt the regular flow of the lessons. This will require increased concentration on the parts of the learners to follow the lesson (Pluddemann, et al., 2000), thus adding to the academic difficulties experienced by ESOL learners.

The needs of Educators working with ESOL learners

It is left to educators to cope with the large number of ESOL learners and the problems they may experience at school. Furthermore, it is up to educators to ensure that ESOL learners obtain a good education that is equal to that of their peers who are learning in their first language by conveying concepts in a manner that can be understood by ESOL learners (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005). Therefore, it is important to explore the specific needs of educators working with ESOL learners.

Educators may experience ESOL learners as awkward and find them difficult to teach (Baker, 1996). In addition, South African educators reported that at times they battle to understand what ESOL learners are trying to say, sometimes due to the pronunciation that ESOL learners use (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). At some schools in the Western Cape educators have to deal with the basic needs of learners such as

hunger and fatigue due to poverty and travelling long distances (O'Connor, 2003; Stoffels, 2004). In Botswana it was found that educators had a multilingual class with there being a number of first languages among ESOL learners (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005). Thus, educators had to deal with the multilingual context and ensure that their lessons were conveyed in such a manner that all ESOL learners could understand (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005). Due to South Africa having eleven official languages, this may also be a problem in this country.

In two surveys of speech-language therapists working with ESOL children in the United States of America, it was found that the most frequently experienced problem by speech-language therapists, was not being able to speak the first language of the children (Roseberry-McKibbin, Brice & O'Hanlon, 2005; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994). This finding also applied to educators in South Africa (O'Connor, 2003). Basically, educators in the United States of America reported that they had a good response when they were able to use the first language of ESOL learners (Sidhu & Mills, 1993). However, in the Western Cape there are a shortage of educators who are able to speak isiXhosa, which is one of the three main languages of the area (Smith, 2005).

Educators have reported difficulties communicating with the parents of ESOL learners due to cultural differences (Willett, Solsken, Wilson-Keenan, 1999). Educators in Du Plessis and Naudé's (2003) study were concerned that learners did not receive supportive input in their second language (English or Afrikaans) at home, but were expected to learn that language as well as academic concepts at school (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). Parents need to be informed about language acquisition as

well as language stimulation (SASLHA Ethics and Standards Committee, 2003). A need for greater parent collaboration with educators has been indicated, (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; NAEYC Position Statement, 1996; O'Connor, 2003; SASLHA Ethics and Standards Committee, 2003). However, strategies to deal with this need have not yet been addressed. The Western Cape Education Department is in the process of developing an early childhood education resource programme to provide information to caregivers of young children on language development and language stimulation (Naicker & Van Wyk, 2005). This concept could be developed further to provide information to caregivers on language in education.

A need for resources such as posters and charts to use in teaching ESOL learners has been expressed by South African educators (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; O'Connor, 2003; Pluddemann, et al., 2000). The use of reading books and other resources in the home languages of ESOL learners has been promoted (Crawford, 1993; Pluddemann, et al., 2000). However, these books are not readily available and some educators in the Western Cape have expressed a need for such reading books in the home languages of ESOL learners (Pluddemann, et al., 2000; O'Connor, 2003).

Other needs of educators include the involvement of other professionals to assist them (O'Connor, 2003). In the study done by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003) it was found that educators would like help in selecting appropriate material for language lessons. In addition, educators cope better when provided with a teaching assistant who is fluent in the mother tongue of ESOL learners (Pluddemann, et al., 2000; O'Connor, 2003). At present the Western Cape Education Department is prioritising the

implementation of employing teaching assistants in foundation phase classes to assist with literacy and numeracy (Western Cape Education Department, 2006).

Other professional support, for which educators have expressed a need, is that of English second-language educators for the ESOL learners (O'Connor, 2003). Hall (1996) states that partnership teaching is required. This involves all education partners, including learners, educators, support staff as well as the senior management of the school, working together for the benefit of the ESOL learner (Hall, 1996). District-based and institutional level support teams at schools in South Africa are a potential resource for educators working with ESOL learners (Department of Education, 2001). According to the policy of inclusive education, educators should have access to district-based and institutional-level support teams (Department of Education, 2001). The district-based support team is comprised of staff from district, regional and head offices as well as from special schools. It has roles to play in evaluating and building the capacity of schools, early childhood education, dealing with severe learning difficulties as well as assisting in a wide range of learning needs (Department of Education, 2001). The role of the institutional level support team, on the other hand, is to support the learning and teaching process through identification and meeting of learner, educational and institutional needs (Department of Education, 2001).

In addition to the above-mentioned needs of educators, South African studies have found that the needs of educators are primarily in training and knowledge with regards to bilingualism, second language acquisition and learning in a second language (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; O'Connor, 2003). It has been found that *speech-language*

therapists who had more training with regards to treating ESOL clients experienced problems less frequently (Roseberry-McKibbin, et al., 2005). In addition, in the United States of America ***speech-language therapists*** are expected to know the developmental characteristics of the languages of their bilingual clients (American Speech and Hearing Association, 2004). These findings may also apply to South African *educators*. The effects of bilingualism on language learning have been widely documented and the importance of considering the effect of simultaneous acquisition as opposed to successive acquisition has been emphasised (Owens, 2005). Simultaneous bilingual acquisition refers to acquiring two languages before the age of three years, whereas successive acquisition refers to acquiring a second language once the first language is established (usually after the age of 3 years) (Owens, 2005). Simultaneous bilingual acquisition is characterised by the child mixing the languages in the initial stages and eventually developing an improved awareness of the differences between the languages (Owens, 2005). The child develops both languages at a similar rate to that of monolingual children, with consistent use of both languages in the environment being the key to successful language development (Owens, 2005). Successive bilingual acquisition is characterised by the child mastering receptive language before expressive language (Kohnert & Bates, 2002 cited in Owens, 2005, p. 420) and development of the second language reflecting the development of the first language (Owens, 2005). First language knowledge as well as metalinguistic skills that the child has already acquired may facilitate the development of the second language (Owens, 2005). Factors that determine successful second language acquisition include need and motivation as well as the child's attitude towards speakers of the second language and towards his/her first language and associated

culture (Owens, 2005). It is important for educators working with ESOL learners to be aware of how a second language develops.

Reeves (2006) found that educators felt untrained to work with ESOL learners and that they had misconceptions about how a second language is learnt. However, nearly half the educators in this international study were not interested in receiving training to deal with ESOL learners (Reeves, 2006). Du Plessis and Naudé (2003) found that pre-school educators in Pretoria had not covered issues on working with multilingual learners as part of their formal diploma training, however a small percentage had obtained some training in the form of courses, workshops or independent study, once their formal training was completed. In South Africa there is not the problem observed in other countries of there being very few educators who are able to speak more than one language and thereby assist learners in the classroom (Baker, 1996). However, there is the problem of educators possibly having unrealistic expectations of ESOL learners as they may have inadequate knowledge of second language development (Stoffels, 2004).

Alexander (2002) documents the importance of ensuring that South African schools have a multilingual approach to education in the long term so that the language-in-education policy is properly implemented. He suggests that there are a range of different ways of accomplishing this that increasingly phase in the use of the home languages of learners as the languages used for learning and teaching (Alexander, 2002). The different options range from support for home languages of ESOL learners to a completely dual-medium approach to education (Alexander, 2002). The option chosen would depend on teacher competence, availability of books and resources in

addition to language attitudes of the different communities (Alexander, 2002). However, Heugh & Siegruhn (1995, p. 91) acknowledge that not all schools can immediately adopt a multilingual model of education and the "impetus for change is likely to come from teachers within the school simply because they are directly confronted by the education system's inadequacy in catering for the needs of linguistically-diverse students". This means that the educator in the classroom is often the one taking the initiative, either to experiment with new teaching strategies, or to call for the school as a whole to deal with the changing circumstances (Heugh & Siegruhn, 1995). Implementation of multilingual education needs to address educator training (Alexander, 2002), as one of the assumptions underlying it is that teachers should be able to understand and speak the first language of ESOL learners in their classes fluently as well as the medium of instruction - English (Young, 1995).

As it can be seen, according to the literature, the first area needing to be addressed by educator training, is ensuring fluency in at least two languages for graduating educators (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005; NAEYC Position Statement, 1996; Young, 1995). These languages would have to be chosen depending on which part of the country the training educator plans on working in, as different languages are spoken more frequently in different parts of the country (Young, 1995). In the Western Cape, for example, an educator would need training in isiXhosa and Afrikaans, as languages of the area, in addition to English (Young, 1995).

Young (1995) also indicates that educators need language awareness. This concerns awareness and sensitivity of educators regarding the language situations in different environments, including home, community and school, and how these contexts affect

the learner (Young, 1995). A language awareness programme would address issues such as language acquisition, the relationship between language and cognition and how concepts are comprehended in the first and second languages, the role of parents and caregivers in language acquisition as opposed to the role of educators in language teaching and language learning, as well as socio-linguistic issues such as language and power (Young, 1995). The acquisition of knowledge in this area is supported by Cloud (1993) as well as Johnson (1994) and can be summarised as educators needing to know "how children learn; how language is understood, interpreted and created in different situations, how language use varies across cultures and across situations; and how all of these processes relate to second language development," (Johnson, 1994, p.184).

Furthermore, Young (1995) indicates that language-across-the-curriculum (LAC) should form part of South African educator training courses. LAC makes every educator aware of how language affects the subject that they are teaching and a course in this area would entail educators learning about how subject knowledge is encoded in language (that is, every subject has its own discourse that needs to be understood in order for the learner to comprehend the subject), how educator-learner interaction is shaped by language processes such as questioning, explaining and instruction-giving as well as the role of textbooks (Young, 1995). Barkhuizen (1993) suggests that implementing LAC would involve making LAC a policy, taking into account educator attitudes and educator resistance as well as doing a needs analysis (Barkhuizen, 1993). In addition, educator training courses should teach educators practical strategies for teaching language subjects such as English or isiXhosa (Young, 1995) as well as teaching educators about different cultures (NAEYC Position Statement, 1996) as this

was highlighted as a need of educators in a study by Stoffels (2004). Implementing the above-mentioned areas into educator-training would equip educators to deal with the needs of ESOL learners. Although the knowledge of what training educators need has been available for ten years or more, investigation into whether educators have received this training is necessary.

South Africa's Revised National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education, 2002) has specific and different language expectations from those learners who are learning in their home language as opposed to those learners who are learning in an additional language. For instance at a Grade 1 level in the area of speaking, an ESOL learner is expected to be able to respond to simple questions with single words or phrases. However, a first language English speaker is expected to be able to use more complex language and should be able to use descriptive words and use language imaginatively (Department of Education, 2002). Thus, theoretically, educators' language expectations should not be the same for ESOL learners as they are for English-first language learners and they should be able to teach on different language levels (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). However, Mills and Thurtell (2005) found that some educators are not able to differentiate between a first language communication problem, that is, a language disorder, and a communication problem that arises due to a learner being in the early stages of second language development.

Educators also need to know the difference between a *learning* difficulty and a *language*-based academic problem (Ortiz, 1997). It has been found that some ESOL learners underachieve academically as a result of learning in a language that is not their first language (Baker, 1996; Dawber & Jordaan, 1999; Ortiz, 1997; Statham,

1997). Often learners who are learning in a second language are mistakenly labelled as “learning disabled” and may even be inappropriately referred for special education (Ortiz, 1997). Essentially, the often mistaken diagnosis of a learning difficulty in an ESOL learner is due to confusion between language and learning, as it is difficult to distinguish whether a learner’s difficulties are due to language problems or learning difficulties (Statham, 1997). Speaking more than one language is usually not the cause of learning difficulties (Baker, 1996). However, if the school is not equipped to support a learner’s first language, such learners may well be labelled as having a learning difficulty, as they are only assessed in their weaker second language as opposed to their stronger first language (Baker, 1996).

A study carried out in the United States of America investigated the awareness and attitudes of student educators with regards to teaching in multicultural settings (Barry & Lechner, 1995). This study found that, in addition to requiring further training in the area of multicultural education, student educators were uncertain of how to become good multicultural educators, but still had a positive outlook on multicultural education (Barry & Lechner, 1995). Willard-Holt (2001) found that exposing student educators to different cultures heightened their cultural awareness and made them want to instil this cultural awareness in their pupils. A study by Meier (2005) found that South African student educators held some negative perceptions towards people of other cultures. It was, thus, recommended that student educators be exposed to multicultural learners from an early stage in their training and that this exposure may lead to a breaking down of stereotypes between different cultures (Meier, 2005). A further recommendation was that all teacher training programmes have compulsory courses on multicultural issues in education (Meier, 2005). As culture and language

are interlinked, exposing student educators to different cultures could be a way of preparing educators and broadening their knowledge with regards to ESOL learners.

1.2.3. Previously established strategies of educators working with ESOL learners

There are a number of strategies that educators have made use of to improve the education of ESOL learners and enhance educator effectiveness (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005). Du Plessis and Naudé (2003) divide these into three categories: verbal strategies, non-verbal communicative strategies and operational strategies.

Verbal Strategies

Verbal strategies are strategies educators employed to change the way they talked in order to improve the understanding of ESOL learners. These strategies included simplifying or rephrasing what is said, repeating instructions and new vocabulary, using alternative forms of interaction such as songs, rhymes and stories, slowing the rate of speech, repeating what the learner says and expanding on it, as well as translating into the first language of ESOL learners, to name but a few (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005; McKeon, 1994; Met, 1994). By changing the way they talked in these ways, educators were able to improve the comprehension of ESOL learners.

Non-verbal strategies

Non-verbal strategies refer to communicative strategies that educators utilise to accompany their speech to aid the comprehension of ESOL learners. According to Du Plessis and Naudé (2003), there are three main non-verbal communicative strategies that educators made use of with ESOL learners: easily interpretable

gestures, mimed actions as well as dramatised speech. These strategies were used in conjunction with speech and made the educators' speech more understandable to ESOL learners.

Operational strategies

Operational strategies are those that do not form part of the way in which the educator communicates, but incorporate other ways in which he/she can improve the participation and understanding of ESOL learners in the class. Operational strategies that have been used include the use of extra visual material such as concrete objects or pictures, teaching learning strategies directly, games, making use of an interpreter; have English-second-language educators to teach English explicitly to ESOL learners as well as valuing the first language/s of ESOL learners (Baker, 1994; Burkett, et al., 2001; Cloud, 1993; Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005; Statham, 1997).

One of the most documented operational strategies is that of co-operative learning. This strategy makes use of methods that encourage learners to learn with and from each other (Hudelson, 1994). Thus, the class is divided into groups according to language, knowledge or friendship, for example. Within these groups ESOL learners with a better knowledge of English can be encouraged to explain, in their first language, to their peers who are not as proficient in English as they are (Burkett et al., 2001). Educators who allowed learners to make judicious use of their first language found that their lessons became more understandable to ESOL learners with limited English proficiency, and that it encouraged the participation of these learners (McKay & Chick, 2001). Reyes, Laliberty and Orbanosky (1993) found that the use of a co-

operative learning approach allowed learners to experience and learn about other cultures first hand. It also gave these learners an idea of multilingualism that viewed it as a positive asset and encouraged them to learn each other's languages. As well as highlighting linguistic and cultural differences among groups, this approach also made these pupils aware of what they had in common (Reyes et al., 1993). "Use of co-operative learning communicates that the school values the natural cultural and learning dispositions of students as well as the use of their social and cultural patterns of communication," (Lasley & Matczynski, 1997, p.346). Fung, Wilkinson and Moore (2003) found that a related strategy, that of L1-assisted (first-language-assisted) reciprocal teaching, improved the reading ability of ESOL learners. Reciprocal teaching involves small groups of students questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting while reading the same text. Use of the first language of ESOL learners in these groups improved their reading ability as they were able to use their proficiency in their first-language as well as literacy experiences as they learned higher level thinking strategies (Fung et al., 2003). Once these ESOL learners were required to use English they knew which strategies to use.

1.2.4. Speech-Language Therapist Involvement

It has been proposed that speech-language therapists may be able to meet some of the earlier-mentioned needs of educators (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999; Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Jordaan & Yelland, 2003; Jordaan, 1992; Lewis, 2004; Struthers & Lewis, 2004; Wadle, 1991) and educators have expressed an interest in collaboration with speech-language therapists (Farber & Klein, 1999; Mills & Thurtell, 2005). Jordaan (1992) carried out a study involving ESOL learners in a pre-school setting and the language intervention strategies that were used to facilitate the acquisition of English.

The ESOL learners' English improved when no language intervention strategies were used and there was even greater improvement when language intervention was received on an individual basis from a student teacher. However, optimal English improvement was noted when language intervention was received from a speech-language therapist. Jordaan (1992), therefore, believes that speech-language therapists are able to inform educators with regards to how best to facilitate the acquisition of English of ESOL learners. However, caution should be exercised when generalising from a pre-school setting to a primary school environment.

Wadle (1991) highlights the fact that speech-language therapists are "language focused" and are therefore able to explain to teachers the effects of language on learning. She also suggests that speech-language therapists are able to provide curriculum guidelines for all areas, as the communication skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing form part of all content areas (Wadle, 1991). In addition, speech-language therapists are able to assist educators in identifying learners who have a specific language disorder as opposed to those learners who are in the early stages of second language development (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999).

There is a continuum of collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists (DiMeo, Merritt & Culatta, 1998). This continuum has three levels: the traditional level, the transition level and the collaboration level (DiMeo, et al., 1998). The traditional level involves learners being taken out of class to receive speech-language therapy and there is little collaboration between the educator and the therapist (DiMeo, 1998). The transition level combines such "pull-out" therapy with in-class intervention where the speech-language therapist supports and instructs

learners in the classroom. At this level there is increased opportunity for collaboration between the educator and the speech-language therapist and they are "increasingly able to share expertise and complement the skills of each other," (DiMeo, et al., 1998, p.62). The collaboration level entails the educator and speech-language therapist working as a team and conducting assessments, planning and intervention together (DiMeo, et al., 1998). The speech-language therapist spends most of her time in the classroom setting at the collaboration level (DiMeo, et al., 1998). The collaboration level reflects a transdisciplinary approach in which different disciplines are integrated to form a united entity so that the learner is managed from a holistic perspective (Mackey & McQueen, 1998; Rapport, McWilliam & Smith, 2004). Thus the professionals engaging in the collaboration level would need to help one another to learn some of their profession's skills through role release, and be prepared to learn skills from the other profession through role acceptance (Rapport, et al., 2004).

A number of barriers to effective collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists have been identified in international literature. These include limited knowledge of educators regarding the roles of speech-language therapy and a lack of speech-language therapy involvement in policy-making committees (Pershey & Rapking, 2002). In addition, speech-language therapists and educators, with their busy schedules, need to formally reserve time to plan collaboration and define their roles (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Farber & Klein, 1999; Pershey & Rapking, 2002). These problems are also experienced by South African speech-language therapists and educators.

However, collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists is advantageous to the ESOL learners and other learners with communication problems as well as educators and speech-language therapists (DiMeo, et al., 1998; Cirrin & Penner, 1995). The learners benefit by receiving language intervention in a natural context which may result in better generalisation of new communication skills (Cirrin & Penner, 1995). In addition, communication problems may be prevented as the educator may become more aware of communication difficulties and adapt the language of the curriculum and her own language to meet the learner needs (Cirrin & Penner, 1995). Through collaboration, speech-language therapists can learn more about the curriculum and teaching methods as well as about implementing programmes with large groups (Di Meo, et al., 1998; Farber & Klein, 1999). Educators in turn are able to learn language techniques that have broad applicability (DiMeo, et al., 1998; Jordaan & Yelland, 2003). Advantages of collaboration with speech-language therapists for educators may also include language enrichment lessons of the speech-language therapist benefiting the whole class, not just those learners with language difficulties, as well as learners making good progress through the collaborative process (Pershey & Rapking, 2002). Speech-language therapists are also able to assist educators in providing information to parents of bilingual children (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003). Furthermore, speech-language therapists may be able to assist educators in using language appropriately for the benefit of ESOL learners. This is because it has been found that mainstream classrooms using only English as the language of learning and teaching demand high levels of auditory processing and short term memory skills from ESOL learners and that educators in these classrooms tend to use long, complex sentences (Brice & Brice, 2000).

It is felt that speech-language therapists would be most effective in the classroom ensuring carry-over of speech and language skills as well as providing information and support to the teacher (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Lewis, 2004; Wadle, 1991). For this, speech-language therapists require an understanding of the curriculum and the classroom context (Lewis, 2004). Thus, speech-language therapists require training that moves away from a medical model focusing on providing rehabilitative support to individual learners who need it (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). Speech-language therapists need to be able to provide support that is not only directed at the learner, but also the educator, school-environment and parents through a health promoting model (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). This is in line with the Declaration of Alma Ata's (World Health Organization, 1978) primary health care principles of promotion of good language use, prevention of further communicative problems, resolving current communication problems and rehabilitation. Speech-language therapists also need to be knowledgeable of second language acquisition, how language is used in different classroom contexts and the different language demands placed on ESOL learners in different environments (Brice & Brice, 2000).

By working in collaboration with educators in the classroom environment, speech-language therapists will be able to support and build the school environment in which the ESOL learner has to function (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). Speech and language services that are provided in a natural setting such as the classroom facilitate communicative competence and promote academic success (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994).

1.3. Rationale for current research

Studies by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003) as well as O'Connor (2003) found that educators require further training with regard to teaching ESOL learners. However, it was felt that more information was needed with regards to what specific training has been received and what further training is required. In addition, the study by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003) was carried out in Pretoria, which is very different geographically and socially to Cape Town. Furthermore, most of the schools used in their study were dual-medium (English and Afrikaans) pre-schools, whereas more information was needed on the needs of educators in primary schools with only one Language of Learning and Teaching.

The previous Cape Town sample used by O'Connor (2003) was small and specific (educators at 6 schools who had access to speech-language therapy students in clinical training). This sample may have biased the results and, thus, cannot be generalised to the teaching population in the Cape Metropolitan area. A wider, more representative sample was required.

Speech-language therapists have a Linguistics background and have specialised knowledge of language and its development (Lewis, 2004; Wadle, 1991). It has been found that speech-language therapists can assist educators in the classroom with regards to teaching ESOL learners (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Wadle, 1991; Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; O'Connor, 2003). If the specific needs of educators working with ESOL learners can be understood in greater depth, it is hoped that speech-language therapists, with their expertise in language will be able to provide improved assistance to them.

More literature is needed that focuses specifically on the perspectives of the educators teaching ESOL learners. This is because knowledge about the needs, experiences and coping strategies of educators teaching ESOL learners could lead to better training for educators, and better preparation for speech-language therapists for their role in supporting educators, as well as their role in educator training. In addition, this knowledge could lead to further research into this area as well as possible policy changes that would meet educators' needs, and, thus, provide a more effective education to ESOL learners. It is thus necessary to answer the question: "***What are the needs of educators in the Cape Metropolitan area working with ESOL learners***?"

CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGY

2.1. Aims of the study

In view of the previously mentioned limitations of the South African studies that provide information on what the needs of educators may be (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; O'Connor, 2003), and studies done elsewhere that do no address South Africa's distinctive context, more information was needed on the needs of educators working with ESOL learners. Thus, the **main aim** of this study was to describe the needs of educators working with ESOL learners to inform the practice of speech-language therapists in meeting these needs. The main aim was dealt with through the following **objectives**:

1. To describe the perceptions of educators in the Cape Metropolitan area regarding the difficulties experienced by ESOL learners
2. To describe the experience of educators in the Cape Metropolitan of teaching ESOL learners
3. To describe the strategies educators in the Cape Metropolitan area employ to overcome the challenges they face with regard to ESOL learners.

2.2. Overview of Methodology

The study fell within an interpretive paradigm as it aimed to understand the reality of the experience of educators working with ESOL learners (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). In order to achieve the aims of the study, triangulation was used. This is the use of different methods to confirm research findings (Cresswell, 1998). Data from different sources allows for richer information (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Thus, the first part of the study consisted of a questionnaire with a mixed quantitative

and qualitative design. The quantitative element traditionally falls within the positivist paradigm (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). However, the purpose of the study was to understand how educators teaching ESOL learners construct their experiences and to discover the meaning attached to their experiences, which is in line with interpretive practice (Gubrium & Holstein, 2003; Schwandt, 2001). The questionnaire was followed by three focus groups with a qualitative design. Participants for both parts of the study were educators at English-medium primary schools. The methodological issues concerning each part of the study will be discussed separately. Figure 2.1. gives an overview of the structure of the study.

<table>
<tr><td>Questionnaire</td><td>Focus Groups</td></tr>
<tr><td>Quantitative</td><td colspan="2">Qualitative</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 2.1.: Methodology Overview

2.3. Ethical Considerations

The four ethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice were addressed (Medical Research Council, 2003). The participants' confidentiality and anonymity was ensured by numbering questionnaires so that the use of names of participant educators and participating schools was not necessary. In addition, the informed consent letter explained what the study was about, thus informing them of the research in which they would be participating. This addressed the issue of autonomy. No identifiable information (such as participant names or names of schools) was included in the study. In addition, the participants could refuse to participate and could withdraw from the study at any time, with no negative consequences. The study was not harmful to participants and no risks were involved,

ensuring non-maleficence. The issue of beneficence was addressed by each school being sent a summary of the research results ensuring that all participants have would have access to the results of the study. In addition the issue of beneficence was addressed by the value of the immediate insights gained by reflection, which occurred with educators completing the questionnaire and participating in the focus group. Furthermore, the aim of the study was to benefit educators and ultimately ESOL learners in the Cape Metropolitan area and this will be achieved if the findings of the study lead to changes in the way educators are trained and in the support they receive, thus addressing the ethical principle of justice.

Following University of Cape Town Research Ethics Committee approval (See Appendix F) the following protocol was followed:

1) Permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department to conduct research at schools under their jurisdiction (Appendix A)
2) Permission was obtained to conduct research at participating schools from the school principals (Appendix B)
3) The consent form and information letter were used to invite educators at the identified schools to participate in the research (See Appendix C)

2.4. Questionnaire

2.4.1. Research Design

The first part of the study had a mixed quantitative and qualitative descriptive design. The design was partly quantitative as numerical data was analysed using statistical procedures (Cresswell, 1994). The first part of the study was also qualitative in design

as it obtained some in-depth information (Katzenellenbogen, Joubert & Abdool Karim, 1997), made up of words that reported the views of participants (Cresswell, 1994). In addition, the design was descriptive as it aimed to describe the needs of educators working with ESOL learners accurately so that these needs could be met (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The descriptive design allowed the researcher to measure relationships between variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). However it did not seek to provide causal explanations for these relationships as in an experimental or quasi-experimental design (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This mixed quantitative and qualitative descriptive design was appropriate for this study as it allowed for an accurate description of the needs of educators working with ESOL learners from their perspective.

2.4.2. Participant Information

Selection Criteria

Grade 1, 2 and 3 educators in permanent or temporary posts teaching at English-medium government primary schools in the Cape Metropolitan area could be selected for the study. The educators had to have a minimum of three ESOL learners in their class. This specific region was chosen as it was easily accessible to the researcher. English-medium schools were chosen as these made data collection easier, as English is the first language of the researcher, and there was, thus, not a language barrier between the participants and the researcher. In addition, it is clear from the literature that most learners in the Western Cape who are not learning in their first language, are learning in English (PANSALB, 2000). Grade 1, 2 and 3 educators were chosen as the first three years of primary schooling form the basis for the rest of the education process.

Sampling

Cluster random sampling was used to obtain the sample as schools formed convenient pre-existing units which could be sampled randomly rather than sampling individual educators (Oppenheim, 1992). A decision was made to sample one third of schools in the Cape Metropolitan Area and permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department (Appendix A). Thus, 23 schools from the list obtained from the Western Cape Education Department website (2005) were randomly selected and then approached. The principals of all of the schools that were sampled agreed to participate in the research. Within these schools, all educators that taught Grade 1, 2 or 3 were included in the sample and invited to participate in the research.

Recruitment Strategy

The participants were recruited by firstly obtaining permission from each of the schools to conduct research with their educators. This was achieved by an introductory telephone call and then faxing a letter requesting permission to the principals at each of the schools (Appendix B). The principals were then contacted telephonically a few days later to ascertain whether permission had been granted. In some cases the facsimiles had to be resent as they had been misplaced or had not been received. Once permission had been obtained from the schools, the Grade 1, 2, and 3 educators at each of the schools were invited to participate by means of an information letter accompanied by a consent form together with the questionnaire. The letter assured them that participation was voluntary and that all information given would be kept confidential (Appendix C).

Description of participants

Of the 139 educators approached to participate in this research, 100 returned their questionnaires. This indicates a response rate of 72%. There were differences between the urban suburban schools that participated in this study. Six of the schools that participated were previously Model C schools that were regarded as the privileged 'white' schools during apartheid. Some of the other schools that participated in the study were formerly 'coloured' schools that had experienced an influx of isiXhosa speaking learners.

Seventeen participants' questionnaires were excluded as they had fewer than three ESOL learners in their classes (these educators were all from former Model C schools). A further three questionnaires were excluded as they were incomplete. Therefore, the actual sample size was 80 and it was made up of 27 Grade 1 educators, 30 Grade 2 educators and 23 Grade 3 educators from 21 schools, as educators from two schools did not return their questionnaires as they reported not having a problem with ESOL learners. One of these schools was a previously Model C school. Thus, educators who participated in the research may have been those who have problems with ESOL learners, and those educators who do not experience difficulties with this learner population may have chosen not to participate. All areas within the Cape Metropolitan region were represented in spite of the fact that stratified random sampling was not used.

2.4.3. Data Collection

Instrument

A self-administered questionnaire based on those used by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003), Roseberry-McKibbin and Eicholtz (1994) as well as O'Connor (2003) was used for the first part of the data collection (Appendix D). The self-administered questionnaire was chosen as it saved time (Bourque & Fielder, 1995) and participants could complete it in their own time without the researcher being physically present. Furthermore, the self-administered questionnaire was a cost-effective means of accessing a large sample (Bourque & Fielder, 1995). However, one of the limitations associated with using a self-administered questionnaire for data collection is that participants could not ask for clarification on certain items. For this reason, the participants were provided with the researcher's contact details (in the consent letter) and were encouraged to contact her if they had any enquiries. None of the participants contacted the researcher with queries. A further disadvantage of self-administered questionnaires is that the researcher had no control over who actually completed the questionnaire and whether they consulted with others (Bourque & Fielder, 1995).

The content of the questionnaire aimed to meet the aims of the study. Factual questions were asked to obtain demographic information from participant educators. These questions included a question on the years of teaching experience of participant educators as well as a question on the qualification they received. Questions were asked to determine information on the class demographics of participant educators. In this regard, participant educators were asked what grade they taught, how many learners were in their class as well as how many of these learners were ESOL learners. To acquire information on languages in the classroom, participants were

asked about the most common languages of ESOL learners as well as what their first and other languages were. In order to understand the experience of educators when teaching ESOL learners, they were asked questions about their felt competence teaching these learners, the frequency of problems they experienced teaching these learners, as well as what training they had received in issues of ESOL learners and what needs they had in teaching these learners. A question was also included to determine the strategies participant educators used when teaching ESOL learners. In addition, a question was included to establish the extent to which educators collaborated with parents of ESOL learners and what strategies they used to encourage parent involvement.

Predominantly closed questions were asked as these promote faster, more standardised data collection (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997). To balance the limitations these questions place on the variety and depth of responses, an open-ended question was asked at the end of the questionnaire to provide the opportunity for the respondents to add any further information that they deemed relevant (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997). The responses to the open question were also used to plan the focus groups. The closed questions made use of varied response formats. These included:

- Likert Scale response format
- Checklist response format (multiple options from which the respondents could choose)
- Yes/No questions
- One-word-answer questions.

These response formats all have inherent advantages and disadvantages associated with them and, therefore, a combination of response formats was used. For example, with the Yes/No response format, when an option was not ticked, it was unclear whether it had been left out or whether the respondent simply did not agree with the statement. When no 'disagree' option was checked for checklist questions but the respondent had checked options with which (s)he agreed , it was assumed that the participant did not agree with the unchecked statements. A problem of acquiescence also occurred for the checklist response questions. This refers to a tendency to agree rather than disagree (Oppenheim, 1992). Thus, some participants ticked all options and it was unclear whether they agreed with all responses, or whether they were ticking all the options because it was easiest to agree with all statements. Yes/No questions also have the disadvantage of possible acquiescence where some participants may have answered yes to all questions without really considering their answers and these questions did not allow for a more subtle response other than agreement or disagreement (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The Likert Scale response format (used in question 8, Appendix D) allowed the researcher to assess subtle gradations in the frequency with which problems were experienced when teaching ESOL learners (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). However, a problem with a Likert Scale response format is that of participants predominantly choosing the middle option. This question was adapted from Roseberry-McKibbin and Eicholtz's (1994) questionnaire and an extra option (that of 'infrequent') was added, as it is usually advisable to have an even number of options (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997) so that participants cannot choose the middle option.

It was ensured that questions were “simple, concise and specific” (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997, p. 85) and every effort was made to avoid ambiguities. Participants were provided with an option for ‘other’ in most questions so that they could identify topics that the researcher may have omitted (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Questions that suggest an expected answer as well as sensitive questions were avoided (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997). In addition, a pilot study was completed to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire (Liwin, 1995).

Pilot Study

Three educators from outside of the Cape Metropolitan area were approached to participate in the pilot study. Although the educators approached for the pilot study were not in the same geographical area of the research, they taught in a Western Cape Education Department primary school and were representative of the proposed sample. The pilot study included one Grade 1 educator, one Grade 2 educator, and one Grade 3 educator. The pilot study helped to determine the time it would take to complete the questionnaire (approximately 15 minutes). In addition, it helped to clarify the questions and assisted in correcting any difficulties with the format of the questionnaire. Two minor changes were made to the questionnaire following the pilot study. In question 2, “What teaching qualification do you have?” was changed to “What teaching qualification/s do you have?” In addition, the instruction “Please tick one” in question 9, was changed to “Please tick **one**” as an educator who participated in the pilot study ticked two options (Appendix D). The problems of acquiescence that occurred in actual data collection had not occurred during the pilot study, and changes had therefore not been made to control for this issue.

Data Collection Strategy

The self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix D) was used in order to gather descriptive information about the needs of educators working with ESOL learners. A good response rate to the questionnaire was ensured by the questionnaires being dropped off at schools personally and then collected a week later, following a telephone call to act as a reminder two days before they were collected. This method of data collection has been found to result in a better response rate than a mailed questionnaire (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997). The anonymous questionnaires were numbered when they were returned to aid data analysis.

2.4.4. Data Analysis

Data obtained from the questionnaire was first coded into numeric values, for example, Yes = 1 and No = 2 (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The codes were then entered into the computer program, MOONSTATS (2002). Questions that were omitted or where the response was inappropriate based on previous data were not coded and formed missing data (Bourque & Fielder, 1995). The data was analysed for frequency, means and standard deviations. Two-sample *t* tests were used to assess the difference between means (Howell, 1999). Chi-square analysis was used to measure the association between certain categories (Howell, 1999). For example the association of felt competence as well as the frequency with which problems were experienced with certain categories was analysed using the chi-square test. Tables and figures were used to clarify written results where necessary.

2.4.5. Reliability and Validity

Efforts were made to ensure the reliability and validity of the quantitative part of the questionnaire. Reliability refers to the extent to which the data from a questionnaire is reproducible, while validity assesses how well an instrument measures what it aims to measure (Litwin, 1995).

There are five types of reliability: test-retest reliability, intraobserver reliability, alternate-form reliability, internal consistency and interobserver reliability (Litwin, 1995). Test-retest reliability is the measurement of the stability of a response over time, while intraobserver reliability is the measurement of the stability of a response over time in the same individual respondent (Litwin, 1995). To improve these forms of reliability a pilot study was conducted. In addition, an ambiguous question from the questionnaire used by O'Connor (2003), which was the same questionnaire used in this study, was changed to enhance its clarity and the format of the questionnaire was slightly altered to allow for quicker and clearer completion of the questionnaire. Alternate form reliability refers to using differently worded questions to obtain the same information (Litwin, 1995). As the questions in the questionnaire were based on those used by Roseberry-McKibbin and Eicholtz (1994) as well as the results of the study by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003), this form of reliability checking was not employed. On the whole participants' responses seemed to have alternate form reliability. However, the answers of a few participants did not have alternate form reliability. For example, a participant indicated that she did not think that educators required training with regards to bilingualism and teaching learner learning in a second language, but then indicated which topics she thought should form part of educator training courses on these issues. "Internal consistency is an indicator of how

well the different items measure the same issue" (Litwin, 1995, p. 21). Internal consistency was ensured as the questionnaire was based on literature and the questionnaire used in another study (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994), in spite of the fact that internal consistency is usually measured using computer programs to do calculations. Interobserver reliability, which is a measure of the extent to which two different interviewers agree in their assessment of a variable (Litwin, 1995), was not an issue in this study as the questionnaire was self-administered.

According to Litwin (1995) there are four types of validity: face validity, content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. Face validity is a review by a casual untrained observer of how good the questionnaire seems to be (Litwin, 1995). This was applied and the questionnaire was concluded to have good face validity by an untrained objective observer. Content validity, which is a review of the adequacy of the questionnaire by an individual with some expertise in the subject of the study (Litwin, 1995), was assessed by a speech-language therapist as well as by participants in the pilot study. Additional questions were included following review by the speech-language therapist (questions 10 and 11, Appendix D) to allow for richer data and to ensure that all relevant areas were covered by the questionnaire. There are two types of criterion validity: concurrent criterion validity, which measures how well items compare with established measures of the same variables, and predictive criterion validity, which is a measure of how well an item can predict behaviour (Litwin, 1995). Concurrent criterion validity was not statistically calculated, but, as the questionnaire was closely based on previously used questionnaires (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Roseberry-McKibbin & Eicholtz, 1994), it was assumed to be adequate.

Predictive criterion validity could not be measured. Construct validity is a theoretical measure of the meaningfulness of an instrument, which can only be determined after many years of experience with the tool with a number of different researchers (Litwin, 1995). This is yet to be established.

Ten percent of the questionnaire coding was verified by an independent external observer to improve the validity of the results. One minor change was made after the codes were verified.

2.5. Focus Groups

2.5.1. Research Design

The second part of the study had a qualitative design because it concerned the participants' subjective experience and obtained in-depth information on how they "perceive their situation and their role within its context" (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997, p.176). It allowed the researcher to understand a social phenomenon based on forming a holistic representation by reporting detailed views of participants (Cresswell, 1994). The design of the second part of the study was also descriptive as it aimed to make factual claims about what was perceived as all description and interpretation are related (Schwandt, 2001). This part of the study also had a phenomenological aspect, which seeks to understand human experience in a certain context (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999) by describing the meanings and essence of this experience, (Cresswell, 1998; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Thus, the phenomenological perspective focuses on how individuals subjectively experience their reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Schwandt, 2001). This type of design was

appropriate for this study as it allowed the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of the experiences and needs of educators from their own perspectives with regard to teaching English second (or other) language (ESOL) learners.

2.5.2. Participant Information

Selection Criteria

All participants who completed the questionnaire had the opportunity to attend the focus groups. As part of the information letter and consent form, participants were asked to indicate whether they would be interested in attending a focus group at their school or at a school in their area (Appendix C).

Sampling

All participants who expressed an interest in attending the focus groups were contacted. This method of accepting participants on the basis of their availability is known as convenience sampling (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

Recruitment Strategy

Three focus groups were arranged at central schools for the participants who were interested in attending. The participants were then contacted telephonically approximately three to five days in advance to tell them the time and location of the focus group. However, most of the participants gave their school's number as a contact number so a message had to be left for them and receipt of the message could not be ensured.

Description of participants

Thirty-one participants expressed an interest in attending the focus groups. As a result of difficulties communicating with potential participants, only six participants arrived for the first focus group and only four participants attended the second focus group. These participants were all from the schools where the focus groups were held. Six participants attended the third focus group, of which one participant was not from the school where the focus group was held. The principal at the school where the first focus group was held attended the focus group for approximately five minutes out of interest. The teacher aid at the school where the third focus group was held attended for the last twenty minutes of the group. Table 2.1. summarises the number of participants who were interested in attending each focus group compared to the number that arrived.

Table 2.1.: The number of participants who attended the focus groups as compared to those who expressed an interest in attending.

Focus Group	Participants Interested	Participants Arrived
1	8	6
2	11	4
3	12	6

The first and third focus groups consisted of educators who worked at former 'coloured' schools that had experienced an influx of ESOL learners in the past few years. On the other hand, the second focus group consisted of educators from a former 'Model C' school where there were a small percentage of ESOL learners. See Appendix E for further descriptions of the focus groups.

2.5.3. Data Collection

The respondents were all invited to attend a focus group to add additional in-depth information to the open-ended question of the questionnaire. The focus group method entails a group of people meeting, and the participants of the group talking to one another under the guidance of a facilitator (Katzenellenbogen, et al., 1997). This method has the advantage of being a practical way of accessing many research participants in a short time period (Macun & Posel, 1998). In addition, it is flexible and exploratory and allows one to elicit a wide range of responses in a conversational setting (Macun & Posel, 1998). The focus group method is particularly suited to a phenomenological perspective as it sheds light on the world-views of the participants (Macun & Posel, 1998). Furthermore, the focus group may be advantageous to the participants as, through in-depth conversation, the focus group "may deepen and shape the participants' self-understandings, heightening their awareness of, and insight into, those aspects of their experience under discussion," (Macun & Posel, 1998: p. 122).

The focus groups in this study provided more qualitative information about the participants' attitudes, perceptions and opinions of the education of ESOL learners (Katzenellenbogen, et al, 1997). The small numbers at the focus groups allowed for good interaction and input from every participant. The fact that most of the educators at the focus groups were from the same school, meant that the groups may have been too homogenous which may have affected the extent of the debate that occurred (Macun & Posel, 1998). However, familiarity and trust contributed to the flow of conversation during all three focus groups and the researcher only had to ask questions to maintain the flow and make sure that conversation was meeting the aims

of the study. The focus groups were heterogeneous from one another, due to the differences between the schools and the number of ESOL learners at each of the schools as well as the availability of resources to educators at those schools. Thus, diverse information was obtained. The researcher recognises the possibility of volunteer bias as only eager educators may have attended. For this reason the results of the focus groups cannot be generalised beyond the groups.

A research facilitator was present in order to take notes of the verbal and non-verbal, interaction. The research facilitator was another speech-language therapy masters student who had done a research methods course. She was given a brief overview of the topic as well as what open-ended questions would be asked in the focus group. In addition, verbal interactions during the focus group were tape-recorded with two tape-recorders so that verbal interaction that was unclear on one tape could be checked on the second tape, thereby improving the accuracy of the information recorded. The tapes were later orthographically transcribed for content analysis.

The focus groups made use of an open-ended format with the aim of understanding concepts from the perspective and experience of the participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The questions used were based on the aims of the study as well as information obtained from the open-ended question of the questionnaire and issues that arose within the focus groups. The participants led the conversation. Data saturation occurred by the end of the third focus group when the same information recurred and new data could be integrated into already devised categories (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

2.5.4. Data Analysis

Content analysis was used to analyse the focus group and the open-ended question from the questionnaire. Content analysis involves immersion in the data and familiarisation, theme induction, coding, elaboration as well as interpretation and checking (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The researcher became familiar with the data during the process of transcribing the tapes. The second tape was then played to ensure the accuracy of the transcriptions. For further verification of the transcriptions, a research facilitator checked a random ten percent of the tapes with the transcriptions. The researcher then read through the focus group transcripts as well as the responses to the open question of the questionnaire a number of times to immerse herself in the data and become familiar with the data (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The analysis programme ATLAS.ti (2003-2006) was used to code the data according to the aims of the study. This involved the data being broken down into "labelled, meaningful pieces" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 143). This data was then used to determine categories. Within the categories, codes were divided into subcategories (Katzenellenbogen et al., 1997) and these, along with the categories, were used to establish emerging themes. Figure 2.2. depicts the qualitative analysis process.

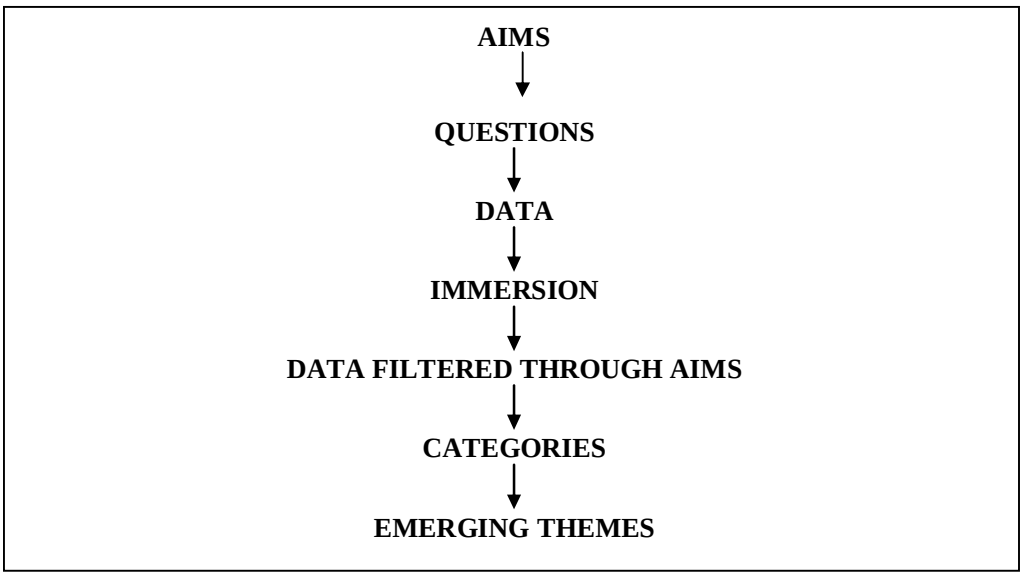

Figure 2.2.: Content analysis of qualitative data

2.5.5. Trustworthiness

A number of steps were taken to ensure trustworthiness of qualitative data according to the criteria of credibility, applicability, dependability and confirmability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Reflexivity contributed towards ensuring trustworthiness as personal preconceptions, biases and beliefs in the context of the research were acknowledged and analysed (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). These included how knowledge of the literature may have caused the researcher to have preconceptions on what the needs of educators are. In addition, peer debriefing took place in which the research process and findings were discussed with a supervisor who has experience in qualitative methods (Krefting, 1991). Thick description was used to describe the context of the findings (Appendix E) so that others who wish to apply the findings elsewhere can establish the similarity of their context to the context of this study and negative or opposing data was included for analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Furthermore, a detailed audit trail was provided detailing exact steps followed in the

research process so that the research can be replicated (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The use of triangulation of methods also enhanced the trustworthiness of the study. Different methods (questionnaire and focus groups) were used to confirm research findings (Cresswell, 1998). Triangulation of data ensured that the researcher obtained a correct understanding of the phenomenon (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The researcher summarised and reflected within the focus groups to ensure that she had understood correctly. As a means of member checking, findings from previous focus groups were confirmed with the following focus groups to ensure that the researcher had not misinterpreted some of the results (Cresswell, 1998). Member checking has limitations as the researcher inherently has a different account of the findings to the participants due to the different role that she plays in the research process and the fact that her account is for a wider audience (Mays & Pope, 2000).

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study was both quantitative and qualitative in design and was carried out in two parts: the questionnaire followed by focus groups. For clarity purposes the quantitative and qualitative results are presented separately and the discussion, which integrates the quantitative and qualitative results with the literature, is incorporated with the qualitative results section.

3.1. Quantitative Results

The quantitative findings of the questionnaire are reported in this section and will be discussed in the subsequent section with the qualitative findings of the study.

3.1.1. Teaching experience and qualifications of participants

Years of teaching experience

The years of teaching experience of educators in the Cape Metropolitan area, who took part in this study, are summarised in Table 3.1. It can be seen that most educators had teaching experience of more than 10 years. The least experience reported was 1 year (indicated by 3 participants) and the most experience reported was 40 years (indicated by 2 participants).

Table 3.1: Years of teaching experience of educators in the Cape Metropolitan Area

Teaching Experience (years)	**Number of Participants (N = 80)**
1-10	20 (25%)
11-20	20 (25%)
21-30	34 (42.5%)
31-40	6 (7.5%)

Qualifications

Four educators did not respond to the question regarding the qualifications they had received (thus, N = 76). Of those who responded 19 (25%) had received a Higher Diploma in Education, 25 (32.9%) had qualified with a Teaching Diploma, 9 (11.8%) received a Teaching Certificate and only 1 had a Bachelor in Education. Sixteen educators (21%) had more than one teaching qualification. Educators were considered to have an "other" qualification if they did not specify what qualification they received.

Table 3.2: Qualifications of educators in the Cape Metropolitan Area

Qualification	**Number of Participants (N = 76)**
Higher Diploma in Education	19 (25%)
Bachelor of Education	1 (1.3%)
Teaching Diploma	25 (33%)
Teaching Certificate	9 (12%)
More than one qualification	16 (21%)
Other qualification	6 (8%)

3.1.2. Class Information

There were 27 Grade 1 educators, 30 Grade 2 educators and 23 Grade 3 educators who participated in the research. Educators who participated in this study had a mean class size of 34 learners per class. However, the standard deviation was 8 and there was, therefore, a wide range of class sizes. The smallest class size reported was 12 learners and the largest class size was 50 learners. Of the participants, 37 (46%) reported between 31 and 40 learners in their class and 20 educators (25%) had between 21 and 30 learners. Eighteen educators (23%) reported between 41 and 50

learners in their class. Only 5 educators (6%) had a class size that was smaller than 20. These results are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Size of classes in the Cape Metropolitan Area

Class size	Number of Participants (N=80)
12-20	5 (6%)
21-30	20 (25%)
31-40	37 (46%)
41-50	18 (23%)

A statistically significant difference was found between the mean class size for previously Model C schools and other schools using the two-sample *t* test (t=7.06; df=78; p<0.001). Educators at previously Model C schools had significantly smaller classes than educators at other schools with the difference between the two means being 11.9 learners. The mean class size for previously Model C schools was 24.9 learners (standard deviation of 5.098) while the mean class size for other schools was 36.8 learners (standard deviation of 6.537). There were only 18 participants from previously Model C schools included in the sample as 17 participants from these schools were excluded from the study as they had less than three ESOL learners in their class. Therefore, due to the small size of this sample, these results should be interpreted with caution.

In this study, there was an average of 17 ESOL learners in Grade 1, 2 and 3 classes. This should be interpreted with caution, as the standard deviation was 12 and there was a wide range. In addition, 17 questionnaires were excluded from the study as they reported fewer than 3 ESOL learners, while the maximum number of ESOL learners reported in one class was 42. Figure 3.1. shows the percentage of ESOL learners in

classes (N=76). As it can be seen, 2 participants (2.6%) had 100% ESOL learners in their classes while 19 participants (25%) had less than 20% ESOL learners in their classes (this is excluding those educators that were not included in the study as they had fewer than 3 ESOL learners in their class). Of the participants, 31 (41%) had more than 60% ESOL learners in their classes and, of these, 18 participants (24%) had over 80% ESOL learners in their class.

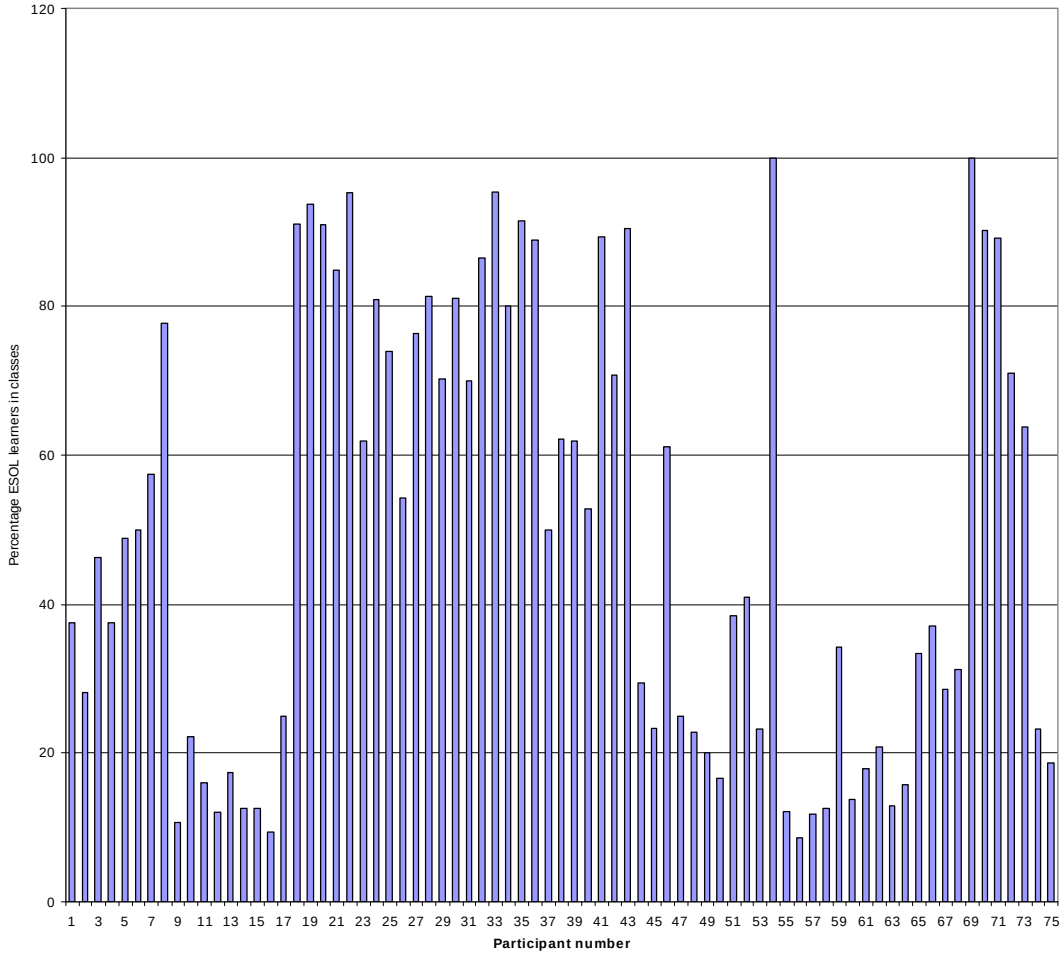

Figure 3.1: Percentage of ESOL learners in Grade 1, 2 and 3 classes in the Cape Metropolitan Area

A two-sample *t* test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean percentage of ESOL learners in classes at previously Model C

schools and the mean percentage of ESOL learners in classes at other schools. The mean percentage of ESOL learners in classes at previously Model C schools was 23.3% (standard deviation of 17.9) while the mean percentage of ESOL learners in classes at other schools was 55.8% (standard deviation of 28.4). The difference between these two means of 32.5% is statistically significant ($t=5.74$; $df=45.98$; $p<0.001$). Thus, previously Model C schools, tended to have a lower percentage of ESOL learners per class. There was also a statistically significant difference in the mean number of ESOL learners at previously Model C schools as compared to other schools ($t=8.40$; $df=70.6$; $p<0.001$). The mean number of ESOL learners in classes at previously Model C schools was significantly less than the mean number of ESOL in classes at other schools with the difference between the two means being 15.4. Once again, the small sample size for participants at previously Model C schools must be taken into account as 17 educators from these schools who completed the questionnaire had to be excluded from the study as they had less than three ESOL learners in their classes.

3.1.3. Language Information

The most common first language reported for ESOL learners was isiXhosa (reported by 70 educators – 87.5%; N = 80) and the second most common first language amongst ESOL learners was reported to be Afrikaans. Not all participants filled in a second most common or third most common first language for ESOL learners. Other first languages reported for ESOL learners included other official South African languages such as isiZulu and seSotho, Asian languages such as Korean and Chinese and languages used in other parts of Africa, for example, French and Portuguese.

Most educators who participated in the study were English-first-language speakers (65 of the 80 participants – 81 %). Eight educators (10%) spoke Afrikaans as their first language. Only 7 educators (9%) spoke isiXhosa as their first language in contrast to the fact that most ESOL learners have isiXhosa as their first language. Apart from isiXhosa-first language educators, no other educators reported being able to teach in IsiXhosa. Of the participants, 64 (80%) indicated that they would be able to teach in Afrikaans, although it was not their first language. One educator (1.5%) reported being able to speak German well enough to teach in that language while 2 educators (2.5%) could teach in seSotho. Four educators (5%) were not able to teach in any other language besides English. Table 3.4. shows the languages spoken by educators in this study.

Table 3.4.: Languages spoken by educators in the Cape Metropolitan Area

	Number of educators' first language (N=80)	**Number of educators' other language**
English	65 (81%)	15 (19%)
isiXhosa	7 (9%)	0
Afrikaans	8 (10%)	64 (80%)
Other	0	3 (4%)

3.1.4. Educators' Felt Competence

Forty-one participant educators (52%) reported feeling competent when teaching ESOL learners in most circumstances and activities. Twenty-one educators (27%) reported feeling confident in all circumstances while 17 educators (21%) reported feeling confident in some circumstances when teaching ESOL learners. No educators reported that they did not feel competent teaching ESOL learners in any circumstances. One participant's response to this question was not included as it was considered invalid because (s)he had ticked two responses, thus, N=79.

Chi-square testing was used to determine whether certain categories were statistically significantly associated with the felt competence of participants. A statistically significant association was found between class size and how competent the participants felt teaching ESOL learners (chi-square=6.40; df=2; p=0.041) (see Figure 3.2). Participants with a class size larger than 30 learners were more likely to feel competent in only some circumstances when teaching ESOL learners (28% of participants with a large class felt competent in some circumstances as compared to 4% of educators with smaller classes). Conversely, significantly more educators with class sizes of less than 30 learners felt competent in most circumstances (70%) than educators with large class sizes (45%).

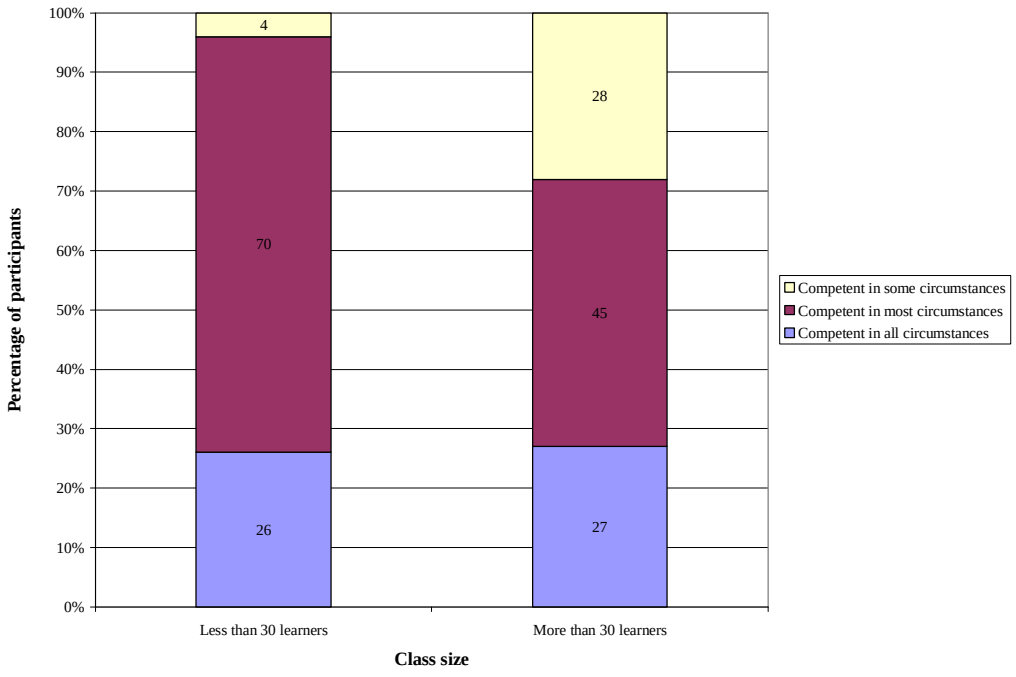

Figure 3.2.: Class size and Felt Competence when teaching ESOL learners

The chi-squared test was also used to determine whether there was a statistically significant association between felt competence when teaching ESOL learners and other categories. These categories included years of teaching experience, grade, educators' first language, percentage of ESOL learners in the class, formal training received as well as whether or not the participant taught at a previously Model C school. No statistically significant associations were found between these categories and how competent the participants felt when teaching ESOL learners. Graphs illustrating these relationships can be viewed in Appendix G.

3.1.5. Problems experienced when working with ESOL learners

Table 3.5. depicts the frequency with which educators experienced certain problems when working with ESOL learners. To make this simpler to interpret, the responses 'very frequent' and 'frequent' were combined to form 'frequent' responses. In the same way the responses 'somewhat frequent' and 'somewhat infrequent' were combined to form 'experienced sometimes', and 'infrequent' and 'very infrequent' were combined to form 'infrequent' responses. Thirty-four educators (43%) experienced not being able to speak the first language of ESOL learners as a problem frequently and 27 (34%) experienced this as a problem sometimes. Not being able to speak the first language of ESOL learners was the most frequently experienced problem of participant educators. Most educators (55%) sometimes experienced a lack of knowledge of ESOL learners' cultural characteristics as a problem. Forty-two percent (42%) of educators who participated in this study sometimes experienced a lack of knowledge of second language acquisition as a problem, while 43% of participant educators sometimes experienced a lack of knowledge of bilingualism as a problem. Only 15 participants (19%) experienced an inability to distinguish a

language problem from a learning problem frequently. Participants seemed to be equally divided on how frequently problems were experienced with discipline due to ESOL learners not understanding. Twenty-seven participants (34%) experienced this problem frequently, 26 participants (32%) experienced this problem sometimes and 27 participants (34%) experienced this problem infrequently.

Table 3.5.: Frequency of problems experienced by educators when working with ESOL learners

	Frequency with which problem is experienced		
	Frequent	**Sometimes**	**Infrequent**
Don't speak first language of the learners (N = 79)	34 (43%)	27 (34%)	18 (23%)
Lack of knowledge of children's cultural characteristics (N = 76)	18 (24%)	42 (55%)	16 (21%)
Lack of knowledge of second language acquistion (N = 78)	24 (31%)	33 (42%)	21 (27%)
Lack of knowledge of bilingualism (N = 80)	21 (26%)	34 (43%)	25 (31%)
Inability to distinguish language problem from learning problem (N = 80)	15 (19%)	28 (35%)	37 (46%)
Problems with discipline (N = 80)	27 (34%)	26 (32%)	27 (34%)

The association between certain categories and the frequency with which participants experienced problems was analysed using chi-square testing. The categories included the grade taught, whether or not formal training with regards to bilingualism and teaching ESOL learners had been received, class size, years of teaching experience, participant educators' first language, as well as whether or not the participants taught at a previously Model C school.

A statistically significant association was found between grade taught and the frequency with which the problem of not being able to speak the first language of ESOL learners arose (chi-sqare=11.65; df=4; p=0.020). Although the largest proportion of Grade 1 and Grade 2 educators experienced this problem *frequently* (45% and 55% respectively), this problem was only experienced *sometimes* by 61% of Grade 3 educators. This is possibly because most Grade 3 ESOL learners have better English skills than younger learners as a result of having spent a greater number of years in an English-medium school and therefore Grade 3 educators may not have to rely on knowledge of the ESOL learners' first language as much as educators of earlier grades. The grade that educators taught was not statistically significantly related to the frequency with which other problems, such as knowledge of bilingualism and the process of second language acquisition, were experienced (Appendix H)

A statistically significant association was found between the frequency with which a lack of knowledge of bilingualism was experienced as a problem and whether the participant educators had received training in the areas of bilingualism and teaching ESOL learner as part of their formal diploma training (chi-square=6.26; df=2; p=0.044). Of the participants who had not received any of this type of training, 76% experienced a lack of knowledge of bilingualism as a problem frequently and sometimes while only 24% experienced this problem infrequently. In comparison 59% of participant educators who had received training in theses areas as part of their formal training experienced a lack of knowledge of bilingualism as a problem frequently and sometimes, while 41% experienced this as a problem infrequently. Training received with regards to bilingualism and teaching ESOL learners was not

statistically significantly related to the frequency with which any other problems were experienced (Appendix H).

A statistically significant association was found between the percentage of ESOL learners in a class and the frequency with which a lack of knowledge of second language acquisition processes (chi-square=8.03; df=2; p=0.018) and a lack of knowledge of bilingualism (chi-square=9.95; df=2; p=0.007) were experienced as problems. Participant educators with less than 40% ESOL learners in their class were more likely to experience a lack of knowledge of second language acquisition as a problem infrequently while participant educators with more than 40% ESOL learners in their class were more likely to experience this problem frequently. Forty-six percent (46%) of participants with less than 40% ESOL learners in their class experienced a lack of knowledge of bilingualism as a problem infrequently, while 58% of participants with more than 40% ESOL learners in their class experienced this as a problem sometimes. The percentage of ESOL learners was not statistically significantly associated with any other problems (Appendix H).

A statistically significant association was found between class size and the frequency with which certain problems were experienced. These problems included a lack of knowledge of second language acquisition processes (chi-square=16.22; df=2; p<0.001), a lack of knowledge of bilingualism (chi-square=6.64; df=2; p=0.036) and problems with discipline due to limited comprehension of ESOL learners (chi-square=9.69; df=2; p=0.008). Figure 3.3. shows the relationships between the frequency of problems experienced and the class size. Educators with large classes (more than 30 learners) were more likely to experience these problems frequently. A

large percentage of educators with smaller classes (less than 30 learners) experienced these problems infrequently as compared to educators with larger classes (see Figure 3.3).

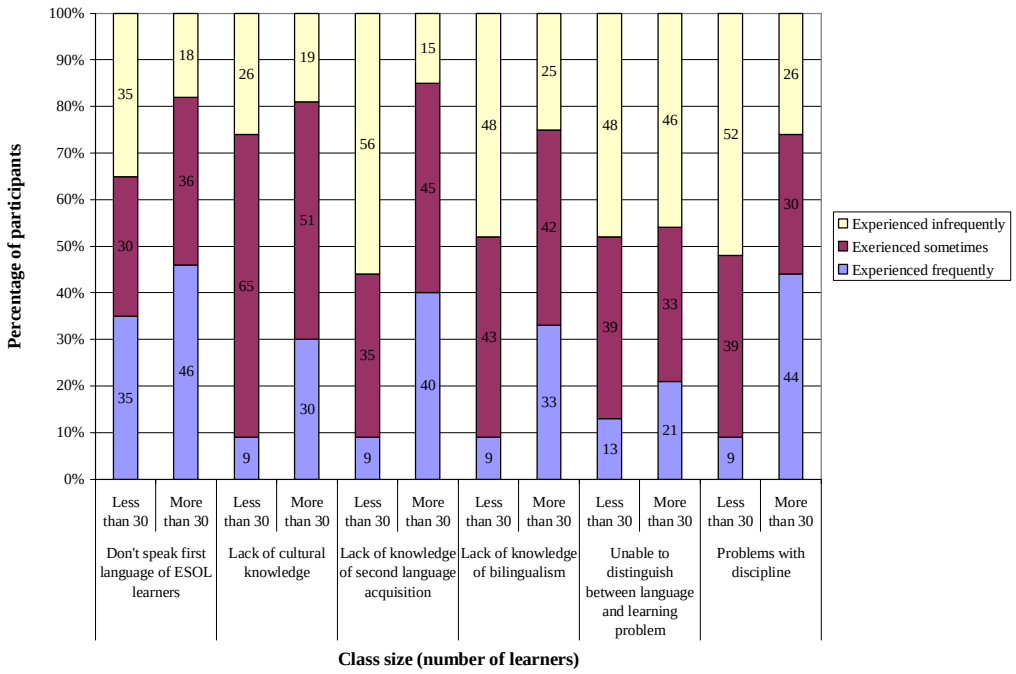

Figure 3.3.: Class size and frequency of problems experienced

A statistically significant association was found between the type of school that participant educators taught at and the frequency with which the problems were experienced as shown in Figure 3.4. Participant educators who taught at schools that were not previously Model C schools were more likely to frequently experience the problems of:

- not being able to speak the ESOL learners' first language (chi-square=11.35; df=2; p=0.003)

- a lack of knowledge of ESOL learners cultural characteristics (chi-square=9.30; df=2; p=0.010)
- a lack of knowledge of second language acquisition (chi-square=17.42; df=2; p<0.001)
- a lack of knowledge of bilingualism (chi-square=18.51; df=2; p<0.001)
- discipline problems due to ESOL learners not understanding instructions (chi-square=15.30; df=2; p<0.001).

The fact that problems were experienced more frequently by educators at schools that were not previously Model C is related to the fact that these educators had bigger classes and a higher percentage of ESOL learners in their classes. Whether or not the participant educators taught at a previously Model C school was not statistically significantly associated with the frequency with which the problem of differentiating between a language and a learning problem was experienced. These results should be interpreted with caution, as the sample size for participants at Model C schools was small (N=18). The small sample size is a result of a number of questionnaires returned by educators at these schools having to be excluded due to having less than 3 ESOL learners in their class.

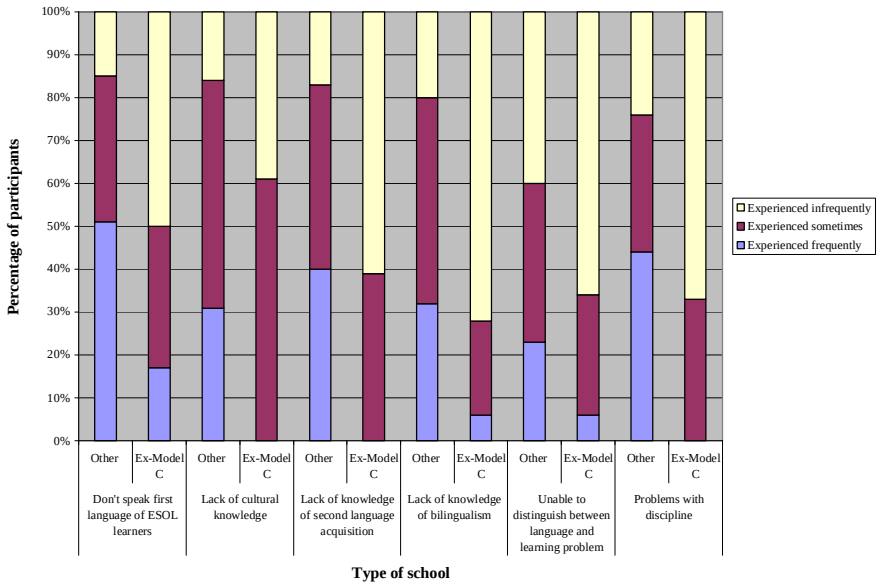

Figure 3.4. Type of school and frequency of problems experienced

The frequency of problems experienced was not statistically significantly associated with educators' years of teaching experience or the educators' first language. The graphs that show these relationships are shown in Appendix H.

3.1.6. Strategies used by educators when teaching ESOL learners

Educators reported making use of a number of strategies to enhance the comprehension and participation of ESOL learners (Table 3.6.). All participants reported making use of the strategy of simplification or rephrasing of their utterances. Other commonly used strategies (indicated by more than 90% of participants) were repetition of instructions, accentuation of key words, repetition of new vocabulary, use of stories, songs and rhymes, slower rate of speech, use of gestures, as well as the use of other ESOL learners to act as interpreters. The strategy used the least by educators working with ESOL learners was that of intensive individual training

sessions (only indicated by 36.7% of educators). The use of humour and translation to the ESOL learners' first languages as well as the use of a translator from outside the classroom were other strategies that educators used infrequently.

Table 3.6.: Strategies used by educators to facilitate the comprehension and participation of ESOL learners

Strategy	Frequency (N=80)	Percentage
Simplifying/rephrasing utterances	80	100%
Repetition of instructions	79	98.75%
Repetition of new vocabulary	78	97.5%
Slowing rate of speech	78	97.5%
Making use other ESOL children to translate	76	95%
Using gestures	74	92.5%
Accenting key words	72	90%
Using stories, songs and rhymes	72	90%
Making use of additional visual material	70	87.5%
Dramatising	68	85%
Involving parents to assist at home	68	85%
Miming actions	62	77.5%
Expanding learner's utterance	58	72.5%
Repetition of learner's utterance	51	63.75%
Translating to the learner's first language	47	58.75%
Using humour	37	46.25%
Making use of a translator from outside the classroom	34	42.5%
Intensive individual training sessions (N = 79)	29	36.71%

3.1.7. Parent Collaboration

Fifty-nine participants (76%; N=78) reported that they collaborate with parents of ESOL learners. Reasons educators gave for whether or not they collaborate with parents as well as suggested strategies to encourage parent involvement are reported in the qualitative results section as these questions were analysed qualitatively for emerging themes.

3.1.8. Educator Training

Participants were asked whether they thought that educators require training in the areas of bilingualism and learning in a second language as part of their diploma training. Seventy-four educators (N=79; 94%) responded 'yes' to this question. There was evidence that some educators may have misunderstood this question to refer to educators learning a second language, as some educators wrote comments stating that it would be difficult to know which language to learn as there are many different languages. This indicated that educators were unsure of the difference between knowing two languages and the theories of bilingualism. Educators were then asked to indicate what training they had received in the area of bilingualism and teaching learners learning in a second language. The results are represented in Table 3.7. Most educators had attended workshops, engaged in independent reading or discussions on the issues of bilingualism and teaching ESOL learners. However, 53% of educators had not received any training in these areas as part of their formal training. The fact that some educators misunderstood the term bilingualism to refer to them being bilingual in English, Afrikaans and/or isiXhosa may have affected the validity of the results obtained for this question. This issue had not been raised during the pilot study and could thus not be clarified by rewording in the revised questionnaire.

Table 3.7.: Training educators had received in the areas of bilingualism and teaching learners who are learning in a second language

Training	**Frequency (N=79)**
Engaged in discussions on these issues	59 (75%)
Attended workshop(s) after formal studies	48 (61%)
Engaged in independent reading on the subject	44 (56%)
Completed course(s) as part of diploma training	37 (47%)
Completed course(s) after formal studies	16 (20%)
Took related courses e.g. other languages	10 (13%)

3.1.9. Educator Needs

Of the participants, 68 (85%) perceived a need for workshops or courses on bilingualism. Assistance from speech-language therapists in planning language lessons was perceived to be a need by 69 (86 %) of educators in this study. The majority of educators (74 participants – 92.5%) perceived a need for material to use in language lessons. Of the participants in this study, 67 (84%) indicated that they needed professional help to evaluate the language needs of ESOL learners.

Topics that participants felt should form part of educator training courses are depicted in Figure 3.5. Most educators, i.e. more than 60 participants or more than 75%, perceived a need for topics regarding bilingualism, teaching ESOL learners as well as acquiring basic vocabulary in new languages to form part of educator training courses. Less than half of the participants indicated a need for learning about the use of translators/interpreters in the classroom as well as community involvement and bilingualism. The educators were equally divided on whether cross-cultural communication should form part of educator training courses. Other topics that most educators indicated should form part of training courses included second language acquisition, language and culture as well as habits and customs of different cultures.

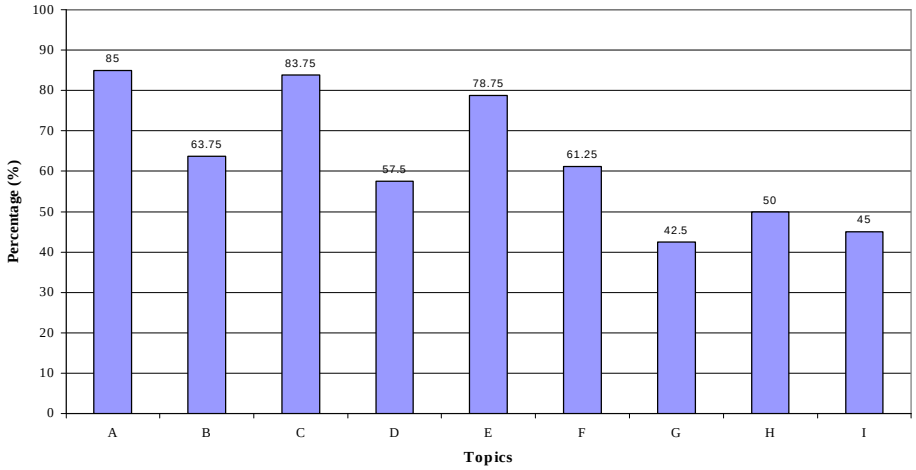

Figure 3.5.: Topics that educators felt should be included in training courses according to the percentage of educators who indicated each topic.

Key:
A: Bilingualism
B: Second language acquisition
C: Teaching ESOL learners
D: Language and Culture
E: Acquiring basic vocabulary in other languages
F: Habits and customs of different cultures
G: Use of translators/interpreters in the classroom
H: Cross-cultural communication
I: Community involvement and bilingualism

This section represents the responses from the questionnaire that could be analysed quantitatively. Some participants added qualitative information to the questionnaire and this information along with the responses to the open questions of the questionnaire was analysed qualitatively with the data from the focus groups.

3.2. Qualitative Results and Integrated Discussion

This section reports the findings from qualitative information from the questionnaire as well as the focus groups and discusses them with regard to the literature and the quantitative questionnaire results. The focus group transcripts together with the qualitative responses to the questionnaire were analysed by content analysis, according to the aims of the study, into categories which were further analysed into eight emerging themes. Table 4.1. illustrates the eight themes as well as the categories that comprised them. Due to the qualitative, descriptive nature of this study seeking to describe richness of data, it was not necessary to report number of responses (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The qualitative results are reported according to the outline of the aims of the study.

Table 4.1.: Emerging themes and subthemes from focus groups

THEMES	SUBTHEMES
1. Academic challenges to ESOL learners	- BICS and CALP - Effects of first language on English development - Education system
2. Socio-emotional problems of ESOL learners	- Loss of home language and culture - Discipline - Self esteem - Social circumstances
3. Parent Involvement	- Importance of parent involvement - Reasons for parents not being involved
5. Frustration of Educators	- Workload - ESOL learner difficulties - Class size and demographics - Parent involvement
5. Support	- Departmental - Professional - Parental
6. Resources	- Language Resources - General classroom resources
7. Training	- IsiXhosa training - Practical training
8. Coping Strategies of Educators	- Verbal strategies - Non-verbal communicative strategies - Operational strategies

3.2.1. The perceptions of Educators in the Cape Metropolitan Area regarding the difficulties experienced by ESOL learners

Academic Challenges to ESOL learners

Educators in this study reported that ESOL learners experienced various academic challenges, the first of these being due to poor language skills in their second language - English. Poor language skills resulted in them proceeding to the next grade without having an adequate grasp of the previous grade's work or having to repeat a grade. Cummins (2000) reports that successful use of CALP allows ESOL children to progress in school. However, in this study educators reported that ESOL learners in their class had very little exposure to English at home and were only learning the language at school. This reflects a process of successive bilingual acquisition (Owens, 2005). Due to the large numbers of ESOL learners in their classes, ESOL learners tended to speak their home language to their peers at school and at home. One educator reported:

> "You know and there is no sort of continuity at home. I am the only one that is speaking English to them…you know in a day…you know me…When he goes out into the…break-time – Xhosa…at home…There's no English," (Appendix I: Focus Group 1; from line 182)

This means that ESOL learners may not even have had adequate BICS in English, which would affect the development of CALP in this language (Burkett et al., 2001). This was contrasted by the fact that educators from the second focus group did not have a large number of ESOL learners in their classes and reported that their ESOL learners were making good progress. They were able to pair ESOL learners with English-first language learners to aid the development of their BICS in English.

The fact that ESOL learners at some schools in this study did not have satisfactory CALPS nor BICS in the language in which they were learning, may mean that the effectiveness of education was reduced (Cloud, 1993). This may be as a result of fatigue, due to information taking longer to process in a second language, resulting in the learner not receiving all the information that was given by the educator (Cloud, 1993).

Educators who participated in this study seemed to be aware that ESOL learners were struggling academically due to their language differences and not because of an academic learning difficulty. This was evident from statements such as:

> "They're bright in their own home language hey. They're bright." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 190)
>
> "Also her logic just doesn't get a chance to feature because I think she's so hooked on getting the language right." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 126)

Based on the data, specific subjects with which ESOL learners were reported to have difficulty were Mathematics due to the fact that it is encoded in language (Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005) and Afrikaans as it was a third language for some ESOL learners after English.

The second academic challenge to ESOL learners, reported by educators in this study, was that of the education system. A learner is not permitted to spend more than four years in an education phase without special permission (Western Cape Education Department, 2004). Thus, ESOL learners who do not cope with the academic content of a grade are usually promoted to the next grade, although according to the Western Cape Education Department (2004), these learners ***should*** receive additional support

in the subsequent grades. Participants in this study did not feel that this is always in the best interests of the ESOL learners as it means that they are always behind academically and it is very difficult for them to catch up. In addition, educators felt that, although the schools did have access to rehabilitative support such as psychologists and learning support teachers (Department of Education, 2001), these multifunctional teams were often understaffed and were therefore not able to see all the children who needed help. Educators felt that this was not of benefit to the ESOL learners.

Participants in this study reported that the ESOL learners' first language influenced their development of English and also had an effect on academic achievement. They stated that ESOL learners' pronunciation affected their phonics in their writing.

> "One of the problems we have – is it a problem, what is it? – is with the vowel sounds. And we get that all the time. Mostly by the end of grade 3, that's still the mistakes they make in their writing. The /a/ and the /e/ particularly, but I don't know how one changes that or how one can fix that." (Appendix I: Focus Group 2: From line 328).

This finding was similar to findings by Pluddemann, et al. (2000) and is in line with the characteristics of successive bilingual acquisition where the phonological system of the first language forms the foundation for the second language (Owens, 2005). Another effect of the first language of ESOL learners – specifically those who spoke isiXhosa as their first language – was that of personal pronouns. In isiXhosa, the personal pronouns for male and female are the same. This resulted in ESOL learners confusing the English male and female pronouns. Furthermore, educators indicated that English is a complex language to learn:

> "…because we've got so many different sounds and rules that go with everything. I mean, it must be really confusing for someone who's a second language learner to come and have to figure out that three sounds, I mean,

> have different letter combinations but they all make the same sound. And, kind of just, you just have to know it." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 365).

Socio-emotional problems of ESOL learners

Participants in this study reported that ESOL learners experience socio-emotional problems associated with learning in a language that is not their first language. There was evidence that participant educators were sympathetic towards ESOL learners and the emotional problems that they experienced.

Educators sympathised with isiXhosa-first language ESOL learners because they felt that these learners were losing their home language and culture due to not learning in isiXhosa. Educators felt that isiXhosa-first language ESOL learners were replacing some isiXhosa words, such as colours and numbers, with the English equivalent and were losing some of their isiXhosa vocabulary. This may have been an effect of the subtractive approach to bilingual education leading to ESOL learners not being able to use their first language for high level cognition (Morrow, et al., 2005) or a result of the influence of English on the Xhosa language due to the predominant use of English in the media and in urban areas (Vesely, 2000).

In addition, educators felt that these learners were at a disadvantage, as they did not know how to read in their home language. Although reading was not highlighted as a specific academic problem for ESOL learners in this study as in other studies (Baker, 1996; Cloud, 1993), educators felt that an ability to read in English, did not mean that a learner would be able to read in isiXhosa.

> "…the child doesn't know the Xhosa alphabet. You've got a word there, that's the Xhosa word. Doesn't mean because the child speaks Xhosa, he's going to be able to read the word. It's not going to make sense to him anyway." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 410).

This is because English and isiXhosa are not phonetically related and the languages express ideas differently (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999).

Another socio-emotional problem of ESOL learners described by participant educators was that of discipline. Discipline and behaviour problems amongst ESOL learners were reported to arise due to large class sizes compounded by language issues. One educator stated:

> "You can't sit with a group of 4 children, then 40 of them *will* do what they want to do. Really! And some of them they just don't pay any attention. You speak to them and they don't listen…" (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 113).

This is related to the findings of the questionnaire in which 34% of educators reported experiencing discipline problems with ESOL learners frequently. In addition, a significantly larger proportion of participant educators with large classes experienced discipline problems as compared to participant educators with smaller classes. Furthermore it is similar to literature findings of educators who experienced discipline problems due to limited comprehension skills of ESOL learners as well as linguistic and cultural mismatches between ESOL learners and educators (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Pluddemann, et al., 2000).

Educators in this study reported that, due to ESOL learners' limited English language skills, they sometimes lacked confidence. In addition, educators reported that ESOL learners were sometimes confused by the language and were therefore not able to understand instructions. In addition one educator reported that ESOL learners took a long time to express themselves and this may also have affected their confidence.

> "But they're not confident with the language. You know, they're not standing on their feet. They're not confident and here you're passing them along and their self-esteem is zero." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 562).

A further socio-emotional influence on ESOL learners reported by educators in this study was that of their social circumstances, especially those of isiXhosa-first language ESOL learners. These learners often did not live in the same area as the school they attended and had to travel long distances to get to school. This means that they had to wake up very early in order to catch the bus in the morning and arrived home late in the afternoon. This may have been a cause of ESOL learner fatigue in addition to fatigue caused by language taking longer to process in a second language (Cloud, 1993).

Poverty was another social circumstance that affected the ESOL learners. One educator revealed how an ESOL learner in her class had not been able to pay for the school bus for two months. The teacher aid at his school had to negotiate with the bus driver every morning to permit him to get onto the bus or he would have missed school. Educators also reported that due to poverty, nutrition of ESOL learners was also sometimes a problem they had to deal with.

> "You know what also plays a big role is their nutrition as well. With them being so poor, the children eat the last time they have a sandwich at school here in the afternoon until the next day. So that is why they also fall asleep." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 307).

Lack of adequate nutrition could negatively affect the concentration of ESOL learners and thereby affect their academic achievement. These findings are supported by those of O'Connor (2003) and Stoffels (2004).

Life experience also affected ESOL learners. One educator reported that they were more knowledgeable about domestic chores, such as baking, than other learners. However, due to poverty and other social circumstances, they had not had other

experiences, such as exposure to some wild animals and therefore it was difficult for them to learn the vocabulary. For example:

PART. E: And then when you want to speak about the hippopotamus and the camel…
PART. B: Yes, they don't know!
PART. E: Everything is dog and a cat. You know, they don't know
PART. C: It's because they're not experienced where they live
(Appendix I; Focus group 1: from line 287)

Culture and social circumstances affected the ESOL learner's attitude towards learning. Educators reported that some ESOL learners were very eager to learn and they worked hard and did well. Others, however, did not show respect for their books and messed them up. One educator told of how learners started selling their reading books on the train and, thus, the school had to stop sending their reading books home.

Parent involvement

The involvement of parents of ESOL learners was reported by participants to influence their scholastic achievement. Educators who attended the focus groups reported that some parents of ESOL learners were not involved in their children's schoolwork.

Most educators (76%) who completed the questionnaire reported that they collaborated with parents. However, in the focus groups, educators reported that despite the fact that they tried to involve parents of ESOL learners, not all parents were interested. Educators reported that when the parents of ESOL learners were involved and helped their children with their homework at home, the ESOL learners made good progress. This reflects that educators of ESOL learners in this study were

aware of the importance of parent collaboration as advocated by the literature (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; NAEYC Position Statement, 1996). Educators felt that it was the parents' responsibility to take an interest in their child's progress at school. Ways that educators collaborated with parents of ESOL learners indicated in the questionnaire included:

- Parents were asked to help with homework including worksheets, reading and flashcards.
- Parent-teacher meetings about the child's progress at school.
- Education of parents about importance of helping children at home.
- Encouraged parents to speak English at home.

From this data it appears that participant educators were aware of the benefits of encouraging parents to use their first language when helping their child with homework as well as creating opportunities for their child to listen and interact in English (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999).

Educators in this study reported that parents of ESOL learners sometimes could not assist with their child's schoolwork at home as they themselves did not understand English. Furthermore, some ESOL parents were illiterate or unable to read and write in English. Social circumstances may also have affected the degree to which ESOL parents could become involved. They may not have had the transport or the finances to attend parent-educator meetings. In addition, parents of ESOL learners were reported to work long hours and may not have had the time to assist their children with their homework. One educator said that she thought that it was the individual's interest that determined their involvement in their child's education. Another educator

reported that their school took their parent-teacher meeting into the community in which the learners lived and the parents still did not attend. Ultimately, educators are unsure of why parents do not get involved in their children's education:

> "It's not a matter of saying, here is a letter. I send it to the parents saying this is an important meeting. I need to speak to you about your child's progress, I mean the parents…It's a not a matter of the lack of interest – I don't know I can't actually tell you. I haven't researched it long enough. You know, I can't tell you what…I can't also say that it's financial. It cannot be financial all the time. You don't have to come see me because you don't have bus-fare, but you can actually phone me or you can write me a letter or you can just check your child's book when it's sent home. You know?" (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 290).

3.2.2. The experience of educators in the Cape Metropolitan Area of working with ESOL learners

Frustration of Educators

> "You know all these…um…these 'handicaps' let me call it that. You know the language thing. That has cause many teachers to lose their *love* for the actual teaching." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 640).

A feeling of frustration of educators working with ESOL learners was evident from the data from the focus groups. This was in spite of the fact that they felt sympathy for the needs of ESOL learners. Participants in the second focus group (from the former 'Model C' school) had smaller classes, less ESOL learners in their classes and more support than participants in the other two focus groups and experienced less frustration. This is in line with the questionnaire findings of educators at former Model C schools experiencing problems when teaching ESOL learners less frequently than educators at other schools.

The workload of participant educators was a source of frustration to them. They reported that they could not start the academic syllabus with ESOL learners until they had taught the language and vocabulary for the specific content.

> "But now I find it's just ***harder*** to, um, to get to the Xhosa-speaking children because whatever word you use, you've got to explain." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 99).

This was difficult for the educators as they were expected to cover a certain syllabus in a year and they found this impossible to do. In addition, there were learners in the class with better English abilities and, thus, educators in this study reported that they had to teach on different language and academic levels, as found by Du Plessis & Naudé (2003) too.

> "You know, we have to work on different levels all the time. And so, in Grade 3, you're working on Grade 1, 2 and 3 level in the same class at the same time so it is rather difficult… So, we're being…you know…split yourself in three everyday. More than 3 – some of them are on a grade R level." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 101)

This made teaching difficult, as educators needed to ensure that the learners in their class all received an equally effective education. They needed to give extra individual attention to learners who were not keeping up with the work as well as making sure that the stronger learners were being adequately challenged. The workload created by the large number of ESOL learners in participant educators' classes was in addition to the other demands of teaching such as marking and preparation of lessons. Educators, thus, described their working day as very busy and said that they did not have much free time.

> "I constantly feel that I am over-working and something's not fair towards me somewhere along the line. I'm doing work that I shouldn't be doing." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 127).

Some of the frustration experienced by educators in this study was caused by difficulties of the ESOL learners. The fact that ESOL learners came to English-medium schools without an adequate knowledge of English was a source of frustration for educators in this study as it created extra work for them. In addition, problems with discipline amongst ESOL learners created further frustration for educators. The educators in this study also found it difficult not being able to speak the home language of the ESOL learners (usually isiXhosa) and there were only 9% of participant educators who spoke isiXhosa as a first language. The findings of the questionnaire confirmed the previous study (O'Connor, 2003) where the most frequently experienced problem for educators working with ESOL learners was that of not being able to speak the home language of the learners, although this problem was experienced less frequently by Grade 3 educators. The Western Cape Education Department, as suggested by Moyo (2001), are considering making isiXhosa speaking educators available at schools throughout the province to work towards achieving a multilingual education system (Smith, 2005).

The size of classes as well as the demographics of classes was another source of frustration to participant educators.

> "Not only that, I started with 48 children at the beginning of the year, I now have 42… I don't only have Xhosa-speaking children but I also have the children that come from Burundi, Congo, Zambia, um, Malawi, did I say Malawi? Yes, Malawi. So I have that as well, besides the Xhosa. And I think I shared with you that time at the beginning of the year, I actually got sick. I actually got sick, the beginning of the year with all this and I knew – I mean teaching I'm teaching long- and I knew what was expected of me and I knew I wouldn't be able to perform, like, normally. And that, I just got sick, I stayed at home. I didn't go to the doctor. I was tearful. I mean 48 children what am I going to do? How am I going to accomplish what I…you know?" (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 208).

Although The Language Policy and Plan for South Africa (The Advisory Panel on Language Policy, 2000) strongly encourages learners to learn in their first language, it was clear from the data collected here that large numbers of learners were attending school in English when English was not the language that was used for communication at home. This is in line with PANSALB's (2000) findings of many learners attending school in English when it was not the language that they used for neighbourhood communication. Educators who attended the focus groups reported that they found having large numbers of ESOL learners in their classes challenging. There were significantly more ESOL learners at schools that were not former Model C schools. Furthermore, although most ESOL learners in the classes of educators who participated in this study had isiXhosa as a first language, educators reported that they had children of *other* languages too and this posed more challenges for the educators as found by Kasule & Mapolelo (2005).

One participant's qualitative response to the questionnaire revealed a positive attitude towards the multicultural and multilingual demographics of the school. The participant stated that with large numbers of ESOL learners in schools, it provided an opportunity for educators to learn about different cultures and understand the difficulties that ESOL learners experienced. Educators from one of the former Model C schools who attended the second focus group also reported that teaching ESOL learners was a rewarding experience.

Class sizes for educators in the first and third focus groups were large. Questionnaire results found that as the class size increased the frequency of problems educators experienced increased. Most educators (69%) had more than thirty learners in their

class and educators reported that it was very difficult to work with large classes. They felt that smaller classes would make their jobs easier. Large class sizes could result in an increase in noise levels which would make second-language processing more difficult for ESOL learners (Nelson, et al., 2005). Therefore, participant educators felt that, not only would smaller classes lessen their frustration, but they would also be of benefit to the ESOL learners.

> "…the smaller classes. It is not because we have such a load and you know we want the easy way out. It's not like that. You know the child…the third language child, the Xhosa child…they need so much of time to talk…" (Appendix I: Focus Group 1: from line 533).

Educators in this study were frustrated that parents were sending their children to school in a language that was not their first language as this was more difficult for the child and created more work for educators. They felt that parents believed that the child would get a better education at an English school than at an isiXhosa school. In addition, educators sensed that parents considered English to be a 'superior' language to isiXhosa as it is an international language and would be useful for obtaining a job in the future as found by Vesely (2000). Educators also found it frustrating that parents' involvement with their children's schoolwork was limited as they felt that the ESOL learners progressed better when the parents assisted at home. Furthermore, educators experienced difficulty collaborating with parents due to language and cultural barriers as found by Willett, et al. (1999).

Support

There was a sense that educators who participated in the first and third focus groups felt unsupported and alone. They felt that they had to accept all responsibility for the education of the learners in their classes, while they were not receiving support from

key contributors. Educators in the second focus group (from the former Model C school) appreciated the support that they had:

> "We're lucky at this school with the support groups and the extra…that we do have." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 348).

Participants in this study expressed a need for departmental support. They felt that they could not make decisions about the progress of the children in their classes. If they felt it was necessary for a learner to repeat a grade, they needed to have the child's work reviewed by an external team who would make the ultimate decision (Western Cape Education Department, 2004). Educators felt disempowered by this system. Educators also felt that although the Western Cape Education Department was aware of the situations they faced of large classes and large numbers of ESOL learners, the department did not assist them or meet their needs.

PART. F: They take it at their own pace. That's what the department wants. And they want a whole file if you want to keep a child behind.
PART. C: You could actually question Western Cape.
PART. F: Nobody seems to help us. We had a meeting in August, all of us were sitting here and no-one could help us. What are you going to do as School X but the department can't help us, we must come up with strategies
(Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 458)

It seems that educators who took part in this study would welcome partnership teaching as advocated by Hall (1996) where there is collaboration between senior management and the educators who work with the learners. One educator reported that it was the Western Cape Education Department's responsibility to equip educators to handle the situation with ESOL learners.

There was a call for support in the form of professionals to assist educators working with ESOL learners. Educators in this study felt that assistance was required *in* the

classroom to assist with ESOL learners and with large class sizes. This assistance could be provided by an isiXhosa-speaking teacher aid. This was supported by findings of Pluddemann, et al. (2000) and O'Connor (2003) who also found that educators in the Western Cape needed teacher aids to assist them. Educators who had an aid to assist them, even for a fixed period every day, reported that it was a great help to them. One educator said that her school had hosted student educators for one month who had assisted in the classroom and she found that it made her job easier. The Western Cape Education Department (2006) is currently planning to provide 500 teaching assistant posts for schools in the Western Cape. This is yet to be implemented.

> "I still say give us something to work with the kids. Give us a teacher at the school, give us a learning support teacher at the school. Just make it a little bit more pleasant." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 663).

In addition, educators who had a language enrichment teacher at their school found her to be of assistance with ESOL learners. The language enrichment teacher provided language support and facilitated acquisition of English for ESOL learners in a fun environment. Not all schools had a language enrichment teacher. This is a job that could be fulfilled by speech-language therapists as 86% of educators in this study stated that they would like assistance from a speech-language therapist and 84% said that they needed professional help to evaluate the language needs of ESOL learners. Speech-language therapists may even be able to provide practical assistance to educators, as it is suggested that speech-language therapists could be of greatest help to educators in the classroom (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Lewis, 2004; Struthers & Lewis, 2004; DiMeo, et al., 1998).

A further area of professional support that educators expressed a need for was that of the educator support team (Department of Education, 2001). Although these teams are meant to assist learners, educators felt that they were understaffed and that the support was not always available for learners who needed it. Educators who participated in the second focus group said that having a remedial teacher, language enrichment teacher as well as an isiXhosa educator who could be called upon to translate was of great assistance to them.

Educators in this study also expressed a need for support from parents of ESOL learners. They felt that parents placed all the responsibility for their children's education on educators. They expressed a belief that more support from parents would benefit the learners they teach and would also lessen the educators' frustration.

Resources

Educators in this study reported that they have to provide some of the language teaching resources necessary for teaching ESOL learners themselves. They expressed a need for resources to address the language needs of ESOL learners. In response to the questionnaire, almost all educators (92.5%) reported that they needed material to use in language lessons with ESOL learners. During the focus groups educators indicated that they needed resources to assist them in helping ESOL learners to become familiar with English vocabulary. This finding is supported by the literature that has found that educators are short of language resources to use with ESOL learners (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; O'Connor, 2003; Pluddemann, et al., 2000). Educators in this study stated that they needed simple picture vocabulary theme books as well as actual objects and pictures to demonstrate vocabulary. Language home

programmes and worksheets were also reported to be useful in assisting ESOL learners at home but they rely on a literate adult who is proficient in English to assist the child.

Educators in the third focus group reported that they had sufficient language resources including isiXhosa reading and storybooks for the children. Educators in the first focus group reported not having isiXhosa books for the children but this was not seen as a need, as they felt that they were an English-medium school. This may have implications for the training of educators with regards to best practice for learning to read (Baker, 1996).

Educators in this study report that, in addition to resources to assist the learning of a second language of ESOL learners, they needed basic resources for their classroom. Educators reported that, due to social circumstances of the learners in their class, not many of them had their own stationery. The educators found themselves providing stationery for the children out of their own finances or unable to do creative activities with the learners as a result of lacking resources. Educators also reported that they needed bigger classrooms as their classes were crowded due to the large numbers of learners in the class. During the third focus group it emerged that two grade two educators were sharing one room:

> "…I'm with [part F] in grade 2, we share a class. In fact it's a hall with a partition. So there's 44 that side and 44 this side. It is sheer madness sometimes. Sometimes she takes her class out to do something outside because it just gets so ***rough*** here on the other side." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 81).

Training

According to the results of the questionnaire, 53% of participant educators had not received any training on bilingualism and teaching learners who are learning in second language as part of their diploma training. This may be because most educators (75%) had been teaching for more than ten years and would thus have trained before South Africa's democracy, prior to many ESOL learners attending English-medium schools. A lack of training in these areas as part of diploma training was significantly associated with the frequency with which the problem of a lack of knowledge of bilingualism was experienced in the classroom. Participant educators reported having learnt about teaching ESOL learners through experience and 94% of educators expressed a need for training in the areas of bilingualism and teaching ESOL learners. During the focus groups it emerged that, although educators would be interested in acquiring theoretical knowledge of bilingualism, they were more interested in practical training.

> "I always say that it's easy for them to stand up there and say, now you need to do this and you need to do that and you need to do that. Instead of that they should take a class of children and show you this is how you do it. And I always sit there and I say 'Show me. Show me that it works'". (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 585).

Educators in this study indicated that, although they had attended some workshops on teaching ESOL learners, they would like to be able to observe demonstrations of how to implement the strategies that they learnt, preferably with the learners that they teach:

> "I think they should come in. Each school is different. Everybody's situation is different. And I think they…we should get people coming into our class and

> don't put on a show, we don't put on a show that day, you know what I'm saying, and they come in and they actually sit and see how we…what's our problem." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 641).

As speech-language therapists are focused on facilitating the comprehension and use of language (Wadle, 1991) they may be able to assist in the training of educators (Jordaan, 1992). Literature has shown that speech-language therapists should work with educators in the classroom (DiMeo, et al., 1998; Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Lewis, 2004; Struthers and Lewis, 2004). This focus group data shows that educators would be open to collaborating with speech-language therapists, as 'language experts' in the classroom and learning from speech-language therapists. Educators also indicated that they would be open to collaboration and help on an ongoing basis:

> "Not one day. For a month every day." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: line 647).

If speech-language therapists were to assist by such transdisciplinary in-class collaborations, they could also provide practical assistance, for which educators expressed a need. "When two professionals are engaged in a collaborative teaching effort, one can facilitate a particular student's response or mediate learning as needed while the other can concentrate on content," (DiMeo, et al., 1998, p. 41). Collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists will assist the ESOL learners who are struggling academically, possibly alleviate levels of educator frustration and broaden the curriculum knowledge and practical teaching strategies of speech-language therapists (Cirrin & Penner, 1995; DiMeo, et al., 1998).

In addition to practical training, educators in this study also expressed a need for training in the isiXhosa language. Young (1995) promotes training in the home

languages of ESOL learners for educators. Only 9% of educators who participated in this study were able to teach in isiXhosa in spite of the fact that isiXhosa was the most common first language of ESOL learners in their classes. Educators in this study reported a good response from isiXhosa-first language ESOL learners when they tried to speak isiXhosa. This had already been found by Sidhu and Mills (1993). Questionnaire results indicated that the most frequently experienced problem by educators working with ESOL learners was that of not being able to speak the first language of ESOL learners and this was a source of frustration for participant educators. Participant educators indicated that, although they knew basic isiXhosa words, that they had to learn through "desperation" (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: line 688), they would like a better knowledge of isiXhosa as this would assist them in teaching ESOL learners:

> "I tell you what would have helped, what I would like to have had is some more Xhosa language myself. Rather than training how to teach, but just some phrases that I could use or content words like 'above', 'below', 'under', 'over', 'more than', 'less than'. I mean I can say 'Sit down and listen' but that's kind of where it ends [laughs]." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 282).

These results indicated that participant educators realised that education in the first language of ESOL learners is optimal (Alexander, 2002). However, in the context of the Cape Metropolitan Area, they did not feel equipped to provide this education as they were not sufficiently proficient in isiXhosa.

3.2.3. Strategies educators in the Cape Metropolitan Areas employ when working with ESOL learners

One theme emerged that dealt with the subaim of identifying strategies that educators use when working with ESOL learners. This subaim was categorised according to the

same format used by Du Plessis and Naudé (2003). There were, thus, three categories: verbal strategies, nonverbal communicative strategies and operational strategies. Educators seemed to use strategies from one category in conjunction with strategies from another.

Coping Strategies of Educators

Verbal strategies seemed to be the most commonly used strategies by participant educators according to the results of the questionnaire. During the focus groups educators reported a good response from learners when stories, songs and rhymes were used (90% of educators indicated in the questionnaire that they made use of this strategy). Educators reported that they used English songs as well as isiXhosa and Afrikaans songs.

> "There was one Xhosa song that I tried, I had a student in my class. She sings it and then they all sing. Then you know then I tried to sing with them but [laughs] I was struggling." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 261).

Of the participants who completed the questionnaire, 59% indicated that they translated to the home language of the ESOL learners. In the focus groups it emerged that most educators had at least a rudimentary knowledge of isiXhosa from working with isiXhosa-first language ESOL learners and educators use this basic isiXhosa knowledge to help ESOL learners when they could.

> "You know what hey, we've picked up some Xhosa words that the children need to know. You know when you say write, 'bala' or look at me, 'jonga'". (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 251).

Educators in this study seemed to be aware of what verbal strategy they should be using but some educators indicated that occasionally they were pressed for time, and did not always implement strategies effectively.

PART. B: Sometimes you finish their sentences for them.
PART. A: Oh yes!
PART. F: We shouldn't but we do that because they take so long.
PART. B: You're supposed to rectify them when they speak incorrectly but sometimes that just goes by because, man, if I must rectify 20 children…you know what I'm saying?
(Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 556).

According to the quantitative and qualitative results, educators often made use of the nonverbal strategies of dramatising, miming actions and using gestures to facilitate the participation and comprehension of ESOL learners.

> "We used to kind of…we used to do it in actions. "What did you do this weekend?" [gestures] "I went swimming" [gestures]. You know…and that was between the 2 of us…we had a kind of demonstrative [laughs]… showing me everything." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 90).

It seems that educators occasionally found the use of dramatising tiring. One educator reported that she found dramatising to be an effective strategy while another reported that miming actions did not always aid comprehension.

> "So everything is an *act* for the teacher. You've got to stand there and perform the whole day." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 103)

> "how do you explain children not understanding when you show them something. You show them how to do it… Now they can't do it. That didn't need a word! I showed you how to do it. You didn't even have to speak to me. You just had to do the action. Now that happens often." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 698).

Most educators (95%) made use of the operational strategy of co-operative learning as advocated by the literature (Hudelson, 1994; Reyes, et al., 1993; Fung et al., 2003; Lasley & Matczynski, 1997).

> "BUT, there's always one or two that speak English quite well and they understand. And those learners become your helpers right from the beginning. You know, translating or they will tell them a word in Xhosa – that we don't know the language. They are your helpers." (Appendix I; Focus Group 1: from line 25).

However, educators who participated in the focus groups reported that this strategy was not always effective as the ESOL learners who were used to translate did not always translate correctly. An educator in the second focus group (who had a small number of ESOL learners in her class) paired ESOL learners with English-first language learners.

> "But what does help a lot I think in any school context where it's possible to actually get the peers to work with…with… I know in my class, the one thing that's made a massive difference was to have children…set up play dates…so a child goes to fluent language speakers and …explaining the reasoning why you're paring them up with this person and what you want to see. So that your class becomes co-teachers with you and that is definitely a very effective tool to get your English-speaking….because it's contextual and meaningful to them." (Appendix I; Focus Group 2: from line 200).

This is in contrast with an educator from the third focus group, whose class was made up of mainly ESOL learners, who was finding it difficult not having learners with better English abilities to assist ESOL learners who were struggling.

> "You could actually at that time put an English speaking child next to a Xhosa child but now the picture has changed and I find it's more difficult now that we don't have the English-speaking children or, for that matter, maybe they were Afrikaans-speaking, but they knew more English, even if it was very pidgin-English that they spoke like the Salt River children." (Appendix I; Focus Group 3: from line 94).

Educators also used operational strategies to involve parents of ESOL learners. These included scheduling parent-educator meetings regarding the child's progress as well as sending letters home. These strategies were not always successful in ensuring collaboration between parents and educators. Educators suggested that firstly parents needed to be educated on their role in their child's education. This education, according to educators, could include informing parents on school choice, implications of learning in a second (or other) language as well as methods for assisting their children at home. Educators in this study suggested that this education of parents could be in the form of parent workshops or information could be conveyed

through popular media such as newspapers, television and radio. Educators also recognised that not all parents of ESOL learners are proficient English speakers. They suggested that school communication could be translated into the main additional languages of the school. Educators in this study had also involved translators when communicating with parents of ESOL learners as well as taken school meetings into the communities where the ESOL learners live to alleviate transport difficulties of parents. However, this strategy was not successful in involving the parents. Educators were asked to provide suggested strategies for involving parents of ESOL learners as part of the questionnaire. The following suggestions were included among those made by educators in this study:

- *Providing parents with the resources* to do homework with their children, for example, reading books, flash cards and worksheets.
- *Informing parents* about the difficulties their child experiences, how to best assist them and how to pronounce words to help with phonics. Parents should also be informed about the importance of certain skills, such as reading, and how to assist their children with these, for example, taking their children to the library. Parent workshops could be used to inform parents on these issues.
- *Language enrichment at home* – Educators felt that parents should be encouraged to speak some English at home or watch English programs on television so that their children are exposed to English. Educators also recognise the importance of using the child's home language at home to assist with homework and concepts the child does not understand.
- *Parent involvement in class*: It was suggested that parents could observe their child in class and see how the educator assists the child. Some educators also

suggested that bilingual parents could assist educators in class as interpreters or teacher aids.

- *Community groups*: Groups of parents could be established in the ESOL learners' communities to help ESOL learners with homework. These groups could also act as support groups for the parents.

Another area where educators in this study made use of operational strategies was in the teaching of the English language. Educators reported that they supported their verbal input with the use of additional visual material such as pictures as well as the actual objects to teach vocabulary (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003; Kasule & Mapolelo, 2005). However, due to a lack of resources, educators often had to provide their own additional visual material. Educators in the second focus group reported that they also used a language home programme to facilitate the English language learning of ESOL learners. Furthermore, participant educators reported exposing ESOL learners to English through the use of the radio, computer and videos. Some participant educators also made use of other professionals such as isiXhosa-speaking language aids as well as speech-language therapists.

3.3. Summary of Results and Discussion

In spite of coping strategies that participant educators employed when working with ESOL learners, they faced numerous challenges when teaching ESOL learners. These challenges included the academic and socio-emotional difficulties of the ESOL learners themselves, as well as frustration. Frustration was caused by a considerable workload as well as large class sizes with many ESOL learners per class, especially in schools that were not previously Model C schools. A discrepancy was also noted in

the support and resources available at Model C schools as opposed to other schools. Educators called for increased departmental, professional and parental support as well as more resources to meet the needs of ESOL learners. Furthermore, educators expressed a need for practical training in teaching ESOL learners as well as training in the isiXhosa language to be able to meet the needs of these learners and to ensure that they obtain a good education.

CHAPTER 4: IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study described the needs of educators in the Cape Metropolitan working with ESOL learners. The educators' needs were described through an interpretive paradigm according to their perceptions of the challenges faced by ESOL learners, their experiences of teaching these learners, as well as the coping strategies that they employed to overcome the challenges they faced with regard to ESOL learners. A questionnaire and focus groups were used to gather the data. The results of the study have implications for the practice of speech-language therapists in meeting the needs of educators working with ESOL learners. Furthermore, the results have implications for training and supporting educators as well as for the implementation of South Africa's language in education policy.

4.1. Clinical and practical implications and recommendations

4.1.1. Implications and recommendations for collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators in the South African context

The results of the study show that participant educators face challenges teaching ESOL learners, especially when this is combined with large class sizes and a lack of support and resources. Educators in this study indicated that they require in-service training in this regard, preferably in the classroom environment, so that they can be shown how best to facilitate the learning processes of ESOL learners. Furthermore, those participant educators who had access to a speech-language therapist or a language enrichment teacher, reported that she was of great assistance to ESOL

learners. Educators indicated that help in the classroom in the form of teacher aids would assist them with large class sizes and reduce educator frustrations. It has been shown that, through a collaborative process, speech-language therapists would be able to support educators by helping with the language needs of ESOL learners as well as providing practical assistance and training for educators of these learners.

In the South African context there are some potential barriers to effective collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators. However, if the barriers to effective collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators can be overcome, there are numerous possible benefits to both professionals and learners.

One of the possible barriers to effective collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators in South Africa is that of limited finances, which may limit the number of speech-language therapy posts available in the Department of Education. In an attempt to overcome this barrier, speech-language therapists need to advocate and inform the Department of Education, schools and educators on their scope of practice (Di Meo, et al., 1998) in order to gain support for collaboration (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). This collaboration may take a long time to implement because it requires many levels of compliance: from the Department of Education, school principals, educators and speech-language therapists. In order for collaboration to be established, it needs to be included in policies and must be negotiated with school administrations (Di Meo, et al., 1998).

Another potential barrier to effective collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators is that large caseloads of speech-language therapists may limit the amount of time that the speech-language therapist would be able to spend in a particular classroom. With the many challenges that educators with large numbers of ESOL learners face, in addition to large classes, a limited amount of time spent in the classroom by the speech-language therapist may not be of adequate benefit to the ESOL learners or the educators. However, in the long term, through a transdisciplinary approach, educators could be enabled to implement some language intervention goals on their own or by consultation with a speech-language therapist who is not necessarily *in* the classroom. By collaborating with educators, speech-language therapists will be able to help them identify language problems which they may not have been aware of (Mills & Thurtell, 2005). Furthermore, collaboration with educators in the classroom will allow speech-language therapists to effectively manage large caseloads (Pershey & Rapking, 2002) that arise due to an over-referral of ESOL learners for speech-language therapy. Collaboration in the classroom will also enable speech-language therapists to work within the framework of inclusive education and provide language intervention to, not only ESOL learners, but all learners who require this type of support

An additional barrier to effective collaboration is that collaboration has to include time for planning (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994; Farber & Klein, 1999; Pershey & Rapking, 2002), which may be difficult with the multiple expectations of both educators and speech-language therapists. For this reason, collaboration must occur between compatible professionals (Di Meo, et al., 1998) who realise the benefits of

collaboration and are accommodating of the time commitment it would involve from both the speech-language therapist and the educator.

A further barrier to implementing effective collaboration between professionals for the benefit of ESOL learners is that there are an insufficient number of speech-language therapists who are able to speak an African language (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003). Speech-language therapists may be able to assist educators practically through transdisciplinary in-class collaborations. However, educators in this study specifically expressed a need for teacher aids who are able to speak isiXhosa. In addition, language intervention in the first language of ESOL learners is of the most benefit to them (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

Speech-language therapists will need to adjust their focus, as communication problems are not always the first priority for educators. They have other difficulties such as large classes, discipline problems and socio-emotional circumstances of their learners. This will provide an opportunity for speech-language therapists to broaden their approach and assist educators in other areas besides communication. By being prepared to practice role acceptance, speech-language therapists will be able to apply a truly transdisciplinary approach (Rapport et al., 2004) that will meet the diverse needs of educators working with ESOL learners as well as the needs of the ESOL learners themselves.

If the barriers to collaboration between professionals can be overcome, it has many benefits for learners. Through collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists, learners receive contextual language assistance in the least restrictive

environment, which is the most beneficial and relevant to the child (Di Meo, et al., 1998). As most ESOL learners are merely in the process of second language acquisition and do not have a specific language impairment, collaboration with the educators in the classroom may be the best way speech-language therapists can assist them and avoid 'pathologising' them. Collaboration has benefits for learners not currently receiving speech-language therapy as language lessons may benefit the whole class (Pershey & Rapking, 2002). It also benefits the large number of learners in mainstream schools who are not developing appropriate literacy and, to some extent, numeracy skills (Lewis, 2004). Through collaboration, speech-language therapists are also able to assist educators in informing and supporting parents of ESOL learners so that they can give their children additional assistance at home (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

Effective collaboration between speech-language therapists and educators for the benefit of ESOL learners has implications for the training of speech-language therapists (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994). Speech-language therapists should be confident in the skills they already have that can be used in collaborating with educators (Struthers & Lewis, 2004, Wadle, 1991). However, they do require training regarding their role in the curriculum and need to be equipped with the skills and knowledge to work within the curriculum (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). This type of speech-language therapist training could possibly be accomplished through joint training with educators for some aspects of the speech-language therapist degree (Struthers & Lewis, 2004). It should also be ensured that speech-language therapists who are already practicing receive in-service training to equip them with the

necessary knowledge and skills to work within the curriculum (Elksnin & Capilouto, 1994).

Once collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists is established as a system, speech-language therapists can observe in the classroom to see which learners need assistance as well as which learners can be used as 'peer-helpers' (Di Meo, et al., 1998). Specific, previously identified skills that speech-language therapists are able to use in a collaborative classroom situation could address the needs of educators of ESOL learners established in this study. These skills that speech-language therapists can bring to the collaborative process include:

- pre-teaching of vocabulary relevant to lesson content (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999)
- task analysis skills (Wadle, 1991) that can be used to analyse curriculum guidelines and assessment standards into composite skills that can be taught (Lewis, 2004)
- assist the educator in recognising the language demands of the curriculum (Dawber & Jordaan, 1999)
- assist educators in using language appropriately for the benefit of ESOL learners as it has been found that some educators tend to use long, linguistically complex sentences (Brice & Brice, 2000)
- share ideas regarding how to enhance ESOL learners' self-esteem by respecting their first language and culture (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003)
- share strategies for using themes in teaching (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003)
- assist educators in using effective questioning techniques (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003)

- help educators facilitate acquisition of CALP in English for ESOL learners (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

Collaboration with educators may extend to speech-language therapists advising parents of ESOL learners on maintenance of their child's first language (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003) as first language competence may facilitate second language acquisition (Owens, 2005). 'Pull-out' therapy should be combined with intervention in the classroom (Di Meo, et al., 1998), as this is necessary for ESOL learners who also have a specific language impairment in addition to acquiring a second language (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

4.1.2. Other practical implications and recommendations

This study showed that educators were implementing their own coping strategies in an attempt to provide an effective education to ESOL learners in spite of the fact that most of them had not had formal training in issues related to teaching ESOL learners. This means that all educators - those who are already qualified as well as those entering educator training institutions - require training in bilingualism, second language acquisition as well as the isiXhosa language and culture. Training of educators has time and cost implications. Educators currently teaching already have extensive demands on their time, energy and skill resources and may not be able to attend additional in-service training courses. In-service training that takes place in the classroom during the normal flow of a lesson could remedy this and is something for which educators in this study expressed a need. This type of training could be provided by speech-language therapists. However, some theoretical training outside of the classroom would also be required to address issues such as second language acquisition as well as teaching educators about the isiXhosa culture and language.

Some educators have large classes to cope with in addition to dealing with issues related to ESOL learners. This is not easily dealt with as there seems to be a shortage of educators and minimal finances to employ more educators. Educators have expressed a need for teacher aids who could help them to manage the large classes and ensure that all learners in their care receive a good education. From the results of this study it appears that there is not an adequate number of teacher aids employed by the Western Cape Education Department at this stage, however, a commitment has been made to employ more teacher aids at schools in this area (Western Cape Education Department, 2006). A further possibility for addressing this problem is for student educators to act as teacher aids during their practical training. Furthermore, as already mentioned, if there is collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists in the classroom, speech-language therapists can provide practical assistance to educators and help with communication issues.

It is apparent that many parents of ESOL learners prefer their children to be educated in English as it is seen as an international language of increased opportunities. This results in large numbers of ESOL learners at some English-medium schools. These learners have been found to struggle academically. It would be in the best interests of the ESOL learners, especially in the Foundation Phase, to receive at least some of their education in their first language (in the Western Cape this is usually isiXhosa or Afrikaans), as it would be easier for them to acquire CALP in a language with which they are familiar (Burkett, et al., 2001). If their education is to commence in English at a later stage, it needs to be ensured that these learners are exposed to English while learning in isiXhosa so that they can acquire BICS in English in order to acquire

CALP in English later on. Alexander (2002) promotes this system in an attempt to ultimately attain a multilingual approach to education. For this system to work, however, isiXhosa-speaking educators are needed. It has been shown that, in addition to a general shortage of educators, there is a scarcity of isiXhosa-speaking educators at schools in the Cape Metropolitan Area. If a good education for all learners is to be ensured, more isiXhosa-speaking educators need to be employed, and the Western Cape Education Department is considering how to implement this (Smith, 2005).

It was indicated during the study that parents of ESOL learners may not be open to such a multilingual approach to the education of their children as they would prefer their children to be educated in English. This suggests that parents need to be educated about language choices for their children's schooling to be able to make informed choices. Furthermore, educators indicated that parents need to be informed about how they can best assist their children who are being educated in their second (or other) language. For instance, parents of ESOL learners being informed on the advantages of sending their children to English-medium pre-schools, could act as a preventative measure and lessen educators' frustration. This also has implications for the preparation of pre-school educators.

The process of informing parents could take place through popular media such as newspapers, radio or television. Workshops for parents who are enrolling their children at English-medium schools can also be held. Parents' involvement in the school and their children's education can be encouraged through making them feel like equal partners and informing them of their responsibilities. Speech-language therapists have a role to play in informing parents of the influence of bilingualism on

education and making language choices with regard to their bilingual children's schooling (Jordaan & Yelland, 2003).

4.2. Research Limitations and Recommendations

Schools in all areas of the Cape Metropolitan region were represented in the sample. However, a limitation of the study was that stratified random cluster sampling was not used to ensure that the proportion of schools from each area in the sample reflected the proportion of schools in those areas. Ideally, the research should also have used stratified random cluster sampling to ensure that the proportion of former Model C schools included in the sample was representative of that of the population. However, the data indicated that educators at previously Model C schools had different needs to educators at other schools and this was not known at the time of sampling.

A self-administered questionnaire was used due to cost limitations and time constraints. However, as educators were busy at the time of data collection, many did not read questions thoroughly and the problem of acquiescence may have occurred, which affects the reliability and validity of the results obtained. Having the researcher or an interviewer present during the completion of the questionnaire would have improved the validity and reliability of the questionnaires as she could have asked the participants if she was unsure of their response validity or reliability. This may also have improved the response rate as the questionnaire would have been completed immediately, as some educators may have forgotten about the questionnaires during the week they were given to complete them. On the other hand, this process would have taken longer and, due to their busy schedule, fewer educators may have been willing to participate, thus, reducing the response rate. In accordance with the aims of

this study, the results of the questionnaire are relevant for educators at government primary schools in the Cape Metropolitan Area and cannot necessarily be generalised to other populations.

Educators who participated in the focus groups may be those for whom teaching ESOL learners is a problem or a priority. Thus, the results of the focus groups cannot be generalised to all educators working with ESOL learners in the Cape Metropolitan Area.

Further research is required to investigate the availability of speech-language therapists in government primary schools in the Western Cape. In addition, more research is needed on educators' knowledge of the role of speech-language therapists in dealing with ESOL learners as well as in other communication difficulties and this is in fact being addressed by a study in process (H. Wilkinson, personal communication, 17 February, 2006). Furthermore, future research should investigate the extent to which speech-language therapists are collaborating with educators in the South African context and how effective this collaboration is perceived to be.

Further opportunities for related research include investigating the needs of educators working with ESOL learners at other levels of schooling. This is because, this study only investigated the needs of educators in Grade 1, 2 and 3 and the needs of educators in the senior primary phase, high school or pre-primary school may be very different. Similarly further studies at pre-schools are indicated to identify preventative measures that may lessen primary school educators' frustration levels.

In addition, future research is needed into the perceptions of ESOL learners regarding their education. This research could look at their perceptions of the challenges as well as the opportunities they face.

4.3. Conclusion

Participant educators were sympathetic to the challenges that ESOL learners faced. These challenges included academic difficulties as a result of poor language skills in their second language (English) as well as the effects of their first language on the development of their English abilities. Educators also felt that the way the education system was structured did not meet the academic needs of ESOL learners. Another challenge to ESOL learners perceived by participant educators was that of their socio-emotional circumstances. Educators in this study felt that ESOL learners were at risk of losing their home language and culture through attending a school in their second (or other) language. Furthermore, participant educators reported that ESOL learners experienced problems with discipline and self-esteem. Educators in this study recognised the importance of parent involvement for ESOL learners but were concerned that not all parents of these learners were able to assist their children at home.

Educators in this study were frustrated in their efforts to meet the challenge of providing an effective education to ESOL learners, as, in addition to dealing with the difficulties experienced by the learners, some educators had large classes as well as a high proportion of ESOL learners in their class. A significant difference was found between the class sizes as well as the percentage of ESOL learners at former Model C schools as compared to other schools. Schools that were not former Model C schools

had larger classes with a significantly greater percentage of ESOL learners in their classes. This led to these educators experiencing problems when teaching ESOL learners more frequently and the large class sizes negatively affected how competent they felt when teaching these learners. It was evident that educators required increased support from the Western Cape Education Department, other professionals as well as parents of ESOL learners. In addition, educators needed additional resources to meet the needs of ESOL learners as well as more training, in terms of practically teaching ESOL learners as well as in the isiXhosa language.

Educators made use of a number of verbal, nonverbal and operational strategies in an attempt to meet the challenges they faced when teaching ESOL learners. These strategies were learnt through experience with ESOL learners and not through formal training. Educators felt that hands-on practical training in strategies to use with ESOL learners that took place in the classroom would be of enormous benefit to them.

Speech-language therapists are able to meet some of the needs of educators by working in close collaboration with them. Due to the large classes of some educators as well as the large numbers of ESOL learners in these classes, speech-language therapists would be the most effective in assisting educators and ESOL learners by employing a transdisciplinary approach and being in the classroom with the educators. Speech-language therapists need to change their perceptions through role acceptance and be prepared to take on roles that they may consider to be outside of their scope of practice. They also need to equip educators to assist ESOL learners through role release. By collaborating in this way speech-language therapists can be effective at a number of levels. These include the policy level by being involved in policy-making

committees that advocate collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists. Furthermore, speech-language therapists need to be advocates for the roles they can play in assisting educators and ESOL learners. Speech-language therapists can assist with language intervention in the classroom as well as on a practical level (through role acceptance) to assist educators with large class sizes and large numbers of ESOL learners.

Educators need to be provided with appropriate support, training and resources in order to be able to provide the best education possible to large classes as well as the large numbers of ESOL learners in their classes. With many learners attending school in a language other than their first language, meeting the needs of the educators who teach them, partially through the involvement of speech-language pathologists, will ensure that these learners achieve their academic potential and have the same opportunities in life as their peers who are learning in their first language.

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