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## "Teaching and learning of pre-school English in Austria: beliefs and attitudes of parents and teachers"

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## Table of Contents

Table of Contents ..... I
Abbreviations ..... III

1. Introduction ..... 1
2. Definitions ..... 3
3. Physical, psychological and linguistic development of children ..... 4
4. Early language learning. ..... 8
4.1. Aims of early language learning and teaching ..... 9
4.1.1. Language development ..... 10
4.1.2. Social development ..... 10
4.1.3. Emotional development. ..... 12
4.1.4. Cognitive development ..... 13
4.1.5. Physical development ..... 15
4.2. Methods of early language learning and teaching ..... 16
4.2.1 Games ..... 18
4.2.2. Music ..... 21
4.2.3. Books ..... 24
4.2.4. Visual media ..... 26
4.2.5. TPR - Total Physical Response ..... 29
5. The influence of the L1 on the learning of a L2 ..... 32
6. The critical age hypothesis ..... 35
7. The study ..... 38
7.1. Assumptions ..... 38
7.2. Description of research design and methodology ..... 39
7.2.1. Questionnaire ..... 39
7.2.2. Interview ..... 40
7.3. Information about the respondents ..... 41
7.3.1. Children ..... 42
7.3.2. Parents ..... 43
7.3.3. Teachers ..... 47
8. Findings ..... 48
8.1. Interview: Teachers' attitudes ..... 48
8.1.1. Interview A: monolingual playschool ..... 51
8.1.2. Interview B: bilingual playschool ..... 57
8.2. Questionnaire: Parents' beliefs ..... 62
8.3. Summary of findings ..... 71
8.3.1. Interpretation of the research result ..... 71
8.3.2. Interpretation of assumptions ..... 72
8.3.3. Comparison with theory ..... 75
9. Conclusion ..... 78
References ..... 80
List of Figures ..... 84
List of Tables ..... 84
Appendix A: German Abstract ..... 85
Appendix B: Questionnaire ..... 86
Appendix C: Interview Questions ..... 90
Appendix D: Interview Transcription Codes ..... 92
Appendix E: Text passages interview MP ..... 93
Appendix F: Text passages interview BP ..... 96
Eidesstattliche Erklärung ..... 98

## Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used frequently throughout the paper:
BP Bilingual Playschool
E English
ELL Early Language Learning
ELT English Language Teaching
FL Foreign Language
FLL Foreign Language Learning
KDG Kindergarten
L1 First Language
L2 Second Language
MP Monolingual Playschool
SLA Second Language Acquisition

## 1. Introduction

English is the most popular language in the world. Media promotes it as the most important language in both business and private life. Consequently, it has become more popular to teach English as a second language to children at a very young age. In order to be competitive as a grown-up, children should acquire linguistic skills as early as possible. However, the necessity of learning English as a second language as an infant is questionable. Opinions of parents, linguists, psychologists and pedagogues differ greatly. In addition, media broadcasts provide a wide range of viewpoints. These bring forward a variety of arguments, but there is no clear answer to the question of whether a child should learn English at an early stage.

An article, published on October 5th 2005 by 'Spiegel Online', which is a popular German magazine and news-website, deals with the topic of early English learning. The article was written by Jens Radü who claims that parents want their children to have careers as polyglot all-rounders. Bilingual kindergartens and schools are becoming more and more popular, with English lessons put on the agenda for pre-schools. Parents are ambitious, while at the same time worried about their children becoming confused and overextended. The article questions whether so much linguistic knowledge is appropriate and reasonable for young children, and promises clear answers given by brain researchers and linguists. Radü (2005) states that Georges Lüdi, working at the University of Basel, argues there is no need to worry. He claims the case is quite the contrary, and that even the child's mother tongue proficiency will benefit from the early learning of another language. Together with neuropsychologists, he investigated children's neurologic activities when dealing with the learning of a foreign language. Most notably he states that children can more easily adopt additional foreign languages if confronted with English early. The younger the child the better. Lüdi says that the critical age limit is approximately four. Before that, the neural systems in their brains which process languages are developing, so the foreign languages are assimilated. Once the brain has built this network it is used for every single language. If children learn a foreign language at a later age, their brains will build a separate network for each language, which is very difficult.

Opposing critics fear that mixing languages and code-switching could become the biggest problem in early language learning (ELL), and that children may no longer be aware of clear differentiation between the languages. The result would be confused children who do not speak any language properly, but instead know fragments of many languages. Some teachers in Austria complain about their pupils' poor knowledge of German vocabulary and their minimal reading skills, as well as a lack of general competence in the German language. Would it be more reasonable to only teach only German until children reach a certain level of proficiency before introducing them to another language?

The aim of this paper is to investigate whether ELL at pre-school age is reasonable, taking into account arguments of various scientific fields including philology, psychology, pedagogics and neurology. A second intention is to find out whether teachers and parents of children attending an Austrian kindergarten support English language learning at preschool age and if so, why.

Definitions will be provided at the beginning of this paper. Then, arguments about the physical, psychological and linguistic development of children will be presented. The paper will provide a general introduction to the scientific field of ELL, analyze the aims, and examine the most popular existing methods of ELL. Next, the influence of the L1 on the learning of the L2 is discussed. Finally, the critical age hypothesis will be explained.

This theory will then be incorporated into my own empirical research which is a comparative case study that consists of two parts. First, the quantitative research was completed through the use of an information-gathering questionnaire which was distributed to parents of children attending both a private playschool in Upper Austria and a public playschool in Lower Austria. The intention was to get information on the diverse attitudes of the parents, such as their motivation for letting their children learn English at a very young age, and their beliefs about a critical age hypothesis or preferred methods for ELL. The second part of the research consists of interviews with two preschool English teachers. Two semi-structured interviews were performed which intended to examine and compare the teachers' attitudes towards ELL, motivation for teaching English to pre-schoolers and favorite methods used for English language teaching (ELT). The content of the interviews is evaluated with the help of the qualitative content analysis model (Mayring 2010). Interview questions and transcription codes are attached at the end of the paper.

## 2. Definitions

In order to examine ELL and its related scientific fields it is important to define 'early language learning' as well as the terms 'pre-schooler', 'pre-school' or 'kindergarten' which occur frequently in related debates.

Early language learning is the acquisition of language skills at a young age. In this paper, early second language learning is focused. This is described as an early process of building second language knowledge which enables the learner to use the language (Lightbown \& Spada 2013: 35). The term SLA (Second Language Acquisition) is also used in this paper, which describes the learning of a language other than the mother tongue. It is the "scholarly field of inquiry that investigates the human capacity to learn languages other than the first, during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood, and once the first language or languages have been acquired" (Ortega 2009: 1-2). Distinguishing between first and second language learners is crucial, as they differ in internal and external factors. Differences are mainly present in characteristics such as cognitive maturity or metalinguistic awareness and the learning environment in which the language acquisition takes place (Lightbown \& Spada 2013: 35).

The learning environment provided for infant English language learners in Austria can be categorized in private or public institutions. These can synonymously be referred to as pre-school, kindergarten, playschool, nursery school or playgroup. These are any schools where children can learn, play, be educated and prepared for compulsory primary school. Moreover, a pre-school is described in the Cambridge dictionary online as "a school for children who are between about three and five years old". A similar statement can be found in Oxford Advanced learner's dictionary of current English (Wehmeier, McIntosh \& Turnbull 2005: 1189) saying that a pre-school is "a school for children between the ages of about two and five". The two definitions differ in terms of the starting age, which is on the one hand defined as two years and on the other as three. Both definitions are accurate for the situation in Austria, as children typically start kindergarten at the age of three. However, it is also possible to register children at the age of two for early entry into kindergarten. This is then called the 'Kleinkindergruppe' which equates to a toddlergroup. Pre-school services in Austria do not only cater to children up to the age of five, but up to the age of six, when primary school education begins. Cambridge dictionary online
defines a pre-school child as a young person who "does not go to formal school". Therefore, a pre-school child in Austria must be under the age of six. For that reason, the term pre-schooler is used in this paper for children two to six years old who are prepared for primary education in a private or public institution in Austria.

To summarize, 'early language learning' is meant as the process of learning a foreign language, in this case English, at pre-school age in a public or private institution, as defined above. The next chapter will deal with the development of young children, which is closely connected to both the ability to learn as well as to the intake of information, and therefore important for language acquisition and development.

## 3. Physical, psychological and linguistic development of children

The physical and psychological development of children is of fundamental importance to the study of ELL. This chapter covers developmental psychology related to language learning processes and children's biological preconditions for learning. Various psychological and biological factors, such as the capacity of the infant brain, allow a child to take in and process information, or to learn. Therefore, they reveal much about whether a foreign language should be taught to young children and if so, how.

At pre-school age, children undergo vast linguistic, emotional, social and physical development. There are multiple stages in children's language development, ranging from babbling to speaking in full paragraphs. Apart from linguistic skills, children begin to develop independence, as well as self-control and learning to cooperate socially. By improving in all these categories children come to learn more about communication and thereby extend their world-knowledge (Shorrocks 1991: 260). The responsibility for "the drive towards competence in using language" can be assigned to "social and cognitive development during the early years" (Tough 1991: 213). The relevance of social and cognitive growth for language acquisition is shown when a child communicates with his or her parents. Apart from linguistic content in communication, parents also use body language, visual and aural stimulation (Tough 1991: 213). All those means of communication result in a response from the child which is again of physical, aural and visual nature. At a later stage, once the child is able to produce words, the linguistic
components will be added. By communicating in this way, socializing is closely connected to language development.

Children, especially in the pre-school phase, have to deal with a large quantity of input due to the new situations they experience, giving them a lot of information to process. They are exposed to new concepts for which they need to develop schemata in their brains. Learning and using language is defined as a highly complex process involving problem-solving strategies (Shorrocks 1991: 273), which stresses the role of the infant brain in language acquisition processes. Research on the infant brain shows that development happens as a sequence of growth spurts. These growth spurts are rather dense in the first years, then expand to greater intervals from the age of four onwards. Children experience intensive changes in their brain capacity roughly every four years, at the ages of four, seven, eleven, 15 and 19 years (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 29). For the topic of pre-school language learning, only the first growth spurt is directly relevant as it shows progress in brain capacity at the age of four, which is within the age-frame of pre-school English learners. The next growth spurt happens at the age of seven, at which time most children in Austria already attend school. For this reason it is not directly relevant to preschool language learning.

Not only does the brain show growth in processing capacity, but there can also be remarkable progress detected in memory capacity of pre-school children (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 42). In order to memorize input, the human brain prefers regularities and peculiarities. Any language acquisition process needs cognitive resources such as attention and memory, which become relatively well established between the ages of four to ten years (Hohenberger 2000: 53). A limit of resources can be interpreted as an advantage, as children benefit from little chunks of information that are processed slowly in order to detect regularities. Therefore, ELL can be beneficial to children's development. Neurons prefer stimuli which occur repeatedly in the same setup, which is also true for language acquisition processes (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 31). Neurons and synapses develop according to given stimuli. This means that depending on the input, surplus neurons are degenerated and an overflow of synapses remains unused, and spare synapses can connect quickly when needed (Hohenberger 2000: 54). ELL forms the prepared neuronal system according to the child's needs. Neuronal plasticity, as described, is ideal in the very early first language acquisition period and still exists in early foreign language learning between the ages of four to ten years (Hohenberger 2000:54).

Respecting the individual learner in his or her personal development has been emphasized in the research of didactics in the last number of years. Any developmental stages and age-related skills described in this chapter are to be considered as approximate values from which every child's development can deviate individually. However, what is true for all children generally is that there are genetically determined factors in the human body that are responsible for brain activity and language acquisition. Ambridge and Lieven (2011: 368) state that "[a]ll researchers agree that there is clearly some genetic involvement in speech and language", however the scope of genetic influence on language learning is not described. It is further argued that language is a communication concept which is exclusively used by humans and therefore, "it must have some genetic basis in evolution" [original emphasis] (Ambridge \& Lieven 2011: 365). The authors immediately add that language is not the only concept exclusively accessible for humans but also skills such as calculating, driving or literacy.

Humans dispose of an inborn, genetic program which enables language acquisition. This is generally acknowledged by developmental psychologists because of enormously complex processes shown by babies acquiring language (Rossmann 2000: 24). Those processes in language learning are neurologic and therefore neurolinguistics is of potential relevance in ELL (Edmondson \& House 2000: 91). Researchers agree that genetic influence is present in language acquisition, but they put their claims into perspective by emphasizing the uncertainty about the dimension of genetic influence and add other factors that play a role in language acquisition processes. Ambridge and Lieven (2011: 368) add that the "strengths of genetic influence on language" depend on the age and developmental stage of the learner. Therefore, one can assume that the learning processes vary in their intensity and difficulty at specific stages of child development. While the existence of biological dispositions for learning is not denied, they are closely connected to other human influential factors on language acquisition such as cognition and environment (Edmondson \& House 2000: 101). The environment influences socialization and how children act, whereas cognition is closely connected to learning experiences and perception. This implies the relevance of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors for early language learning such as biological, genetic, neurological and psychological determinants as well as social surrounding and stimuli received from the outside world.

In regards to the social life of children, they meet many people during their pre-school years, and learn to trust others outside the family. This pre-school phase is very important and exciting for children as they have to adapt to new relationships and to "extend [their] knowledge of the world beyond that of the family" (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 138-139). Parents and professionals involved in the new process play a critical role in the development of a comfortable learning situation and in the development of a child's early literacy skills, as a task of teachers is to help learners to understand the subject and therefore make learning easier (Shorrocks 1991: 271-272). In order to appropriately help children with their learning process, there is a "need to discover as precisely as possible what the child knows and can do, and then build on this, giving support along the way. This is what the most 'enabling' parents do intuitively and they are the first and perhaps most significant teachers of their children" (Shorrocks 1991: 271f).

Knowing how children grow and develop as well as what they can do at which age is part of planning a learning program, selecting materials and guiding children's learning. Being a good teacher depends on how much one knows about the developmental processes happening in childhood (Shorrocks 1991: 273). If the methods used by the teacher are adapted to the needs of the learner, a child can learn any language at any age (Shorrocks 1991: 269).

In sum, the most influencing factors of an early language learning setting are social, cognitive, linguistic and communication as well as physical development. In this paper each of these areas will be analyzed with regard to early language learning and teaching. Even though the individual development should be focused, it is important to consider the stages of psychological development. These describe that children at each age should have particular behavior and knowledge roughly in common. Through thoughtful comparison of an individual to common stages of development, useful information and expectations can be drawn for teachers and parents.

## 4. Early language learning

Children who attend pre-school classes are "more likely to graduate from elementary and high school, live healthier lives, have fewer social problems, earn more money than those who had not attended preschool, and have children who are likely to succeed" (Morrow 2005: 7). Based on this, many parents are eager to expose their children to as many different stimuli as possible from an early age. Some parents burden their children with their own wishes and goals. This leads to many children being exposed to ELL as their parents expect them to be prepared for a competitive environment in their later lives. English is becoming more and more important, and many people think that one cannot start to learn it early enough.

Additionally, parents expect output in English from their children very quickly. The problem is that there are only a few English lessons per week in school or pre-school. This level of input is not enough to meet the expectations for immense progress in the foreign language, as compared to the mother tongue which children hear and use every day. A playful teaching-attitude, as opposed to the very eager success-oriented view, reflects the importance of keeping fun above success at such a young age. It is essential to create an atmosphere that is enjoyable and comfortable for children. The necessity of never letting children feel wrong, and keeping in mind that children are different than adults in many aspects, is stressed.

Children learn in a very different way in comparison to adults as "adolescents are much faster learners than younger children and, given the motivation, become proficient in their second language much more quickly" (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 138). The most important difference and therefore one of the main reasons for being so eager to start learning languages very early is the benefit of good pronunciation which can be achieved through ELL, described in the following statement:

Children who undergo successive bilingualism before the age of twelve to fourteen usually acquire perfect accents in the second language to be learnt [...]. With very few exceptions, adults are unable to acquire perfect accents, even when their ability to speak the language is native-like in every other aspect (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 137)
In some research projects parents' support for their children learning English has already been investigated. In a project described by Blondin et al. (1998: 27) parents were asked to let their children listen to a tape every day with music from their language class. This
aimed at more involvement of parents in their children's learning processes, which should also lead to more co-operation with teachers (Blondin et al. 1998: 27). Parents are not always willing to co-operate fully in their child's education. At a later stage of education, some are unwilling to spend their spare-time working with their children for school and boycott homework, presentations or group-work which needs to be prepared at home. However, many German studies show, that in spite of their lack of commitment, parents consent to the usefulness of early foreign language learning (Blondin et al. 1998: 28). One of the main reasons is that the move to primary school will be easier for both, parents and child, as above all, ELL prepares children for their school-entrance. Several aims of ELL are discussed in the following section.

### 4.1. Aims of early language learning and teaching

A child's developmental stage at pre-school age influences general learning processes as well as early foreign language learning processes. Acquisition and development of a foreign language per se are the main aims in English classes for pre-school children. These aims can be reached, to a certain level with the help of diverse activities carried out in class, some of which are analyzed in the section '4.2. Methods of early language learning'. It is also important not to see the language aspect alone. Further aims for early language learning are that it should raise children's interests in learning in general, in diverse learning materials, and give them a curiosity for other cultures and new experiences. Additionally, ELL should enhance developing language and cognitive skills as well as social and emotional skills, while having fun.

The pre-school years, particularly for children aged three and four, are "extremely important for social, emotional, physical, and cognitive development" (Morrow 2005: 7). These skills are rather covertly appealed to by language learning, but they are developed in the course of any learning process as well. Working together in groups and sharing knowledge appeals to the social behavior of children. Children develop emotionally when learning to handle mistakes, dealing with insecurity, or feeling joy if their behavior was successful. On the physical level, children attending pre-school services in Austria generally develop when using pencils, connecting puzzles, playing language board games or when moving to some rhythm, for example to a song played in the foreign language. Their cognitive development takes place continuously and is supported every time they have to evaluate or analyze, or their memory is activated.

However, it is important not to see each category individually, but to keep in mind that they overlap and mutually influence each other. Typically, all levels of development work simultaneously. Children attending a quality pre-school may be supported in all those categories for their individual development and interest. The following sections deal with the role of language, social, emotional, cognitive and physical development in a foreign language learning process.

### 4.1.1. Language development

Language development is important for humans in order to communicate needs, to socialize and to express themselves. Children do not necessarily need a common language before they can talk to others, show various skills or express their feelings. Instead, they find creative ways of body language or gestures to communicate what they want or think. Sufficient linguistic competence in the first language which can be used for successful communication develops successively. At the same time, a second language offers another means of communication. When taking part in an early language class, children acquire a valuable tool to communicate with others using words, phrases and, as their language skills develop, eventually sentences. They also learn listening, pre-reading and writing skills, how to use non-verbal and verbal language for communication, how to express themselves using words and moreover, they learn English as an additional language. Their brains are challenged, they have fun singing and moving, while at the same time, they are being prepared for school education.

### 4.1.2. Social development

As already mentioned, pre-school time is a formative period for children in which they process newly gained knowledge and schemata in diverse areas of development. Social competence is such an area of development, which "is a broad construct, encompassing many related skills" (Brophy-Herb et al. 2007: 134). Children get to know the 'outside world', extending the knowledge they have gained within their families. They learn to mingle with other children and adults and how to behave in a respectful way toward others.

Social competence enables people to develop an affirmative feeling about themselves which might be beneficial for speaking activities, as it has been argued that children with higher self-confidence make more contributions in a classroom. Moreover, the
importance of social competence is stressed as it is seen to appeal to "factors of emotional and motivational development, as well as young children's health, cognitive functioning, and achievement" (Raver \& Zigler 1997: 364), which again conforms to the areas of development mentioned previously as most relevant in ELL processes.

Pre-school experiences contribute to children's learning of the values and behaviors accepted by society. One way for developing social skills in a pre-school language class is to pretend to be in an everyday-situation. By doing role-playing, such as arranging the tables and chairs as if the children were in a restaurant they can practice and follow social behavior for this specific situation. In such settings children learn how to behave and how to interact with others. Later on, this may facilitate classroom-situations and language learning activities which are often designed as group-work and cooperative working on solutions. Literacy materials can also be included in an early language learning situation, for example reading the menu, taking orders for food in a restaurant or reading a magazine while sitting in the waiting room in a doctor's waiting room (Morrow 2005: 7). Reading materials, however, may not be used successfully with pre-school children, as it cannot be assumed that every child can read well enough at the ages of three to six. In comparison, speaking activities in the foreign language may work out well if the children are provided with appropriate input and preparation.

Social competence also helps to develop positive attitudes towards others and allows a person "to fit in well within a network of positive relationships with family and peers" (Raver \& Zigler 1997: 364). Peers can be interpreted as fellow-learners at first, but teachers may also be regarded as 'peers' in this circumstance as young children often see their teachers as friends who care for them. Children respect grown-ups and sometimes see them as role-models, which stresses the potential of the influence of teachers on a child.

Educational institutions can positively contribute to the social development of children. The teacher's role within a pre-school setting is important because the expression of children's social competence may be enhanced if a teacher supports them when they try to interact (Brophy-Herb et al. 2007: 136). This argument is further developed by stating that a " $[t]$ eacher's warmth toward children is another characteristic of high quality early childhood educational environments predictive of preschoolers' positive social behaviors". Desirable social behavior is defined as showing non-aggressive, problem-
solving attitudes and avoiding conflicts, but supporting cooperation with other children. Children's social competence rises if teachers encourage positive communication, show appreciation of each other, and let children contribute to decisions. (Brophy-Herb et al. 2007: 144)

In summary, the arguments for the importance of developing social competence through language learning are to achieve a high level of cooperation among peers, to show a positive attitude towards oneself and to improve the atmosphere in a learning group. These benefits may facilitate group-activities frequently used in language learning, raise self-confidence and thus allow the learner to speak up while taking the risk of making mistakes. Consequently, appropriate behavior will generate a comfortable learning environment.

Social development is closely connected to the emotional development of children and often seen as one when called 'socio-emotional development'. In this paper however, I would like to distinguish between social aspects and emotional ones.

### 4.1.3. Emotional development

When moving from the behavior in groups and social requirements, which are important for an adequate learning situation, to the discussion of feelings and emotions, it needs to be said that children experience feelings very strongly, but they learn how to cope with them quite quickly. Emotions play a vital role in the learning process, as they can influence the readiness to receive input and contribute to further learning processes. Attitudes towards teachers and classroom situations may influence the interest of children in a language or other subjects.

Learning how to handle emotions is strongly dependent on the behavior of the teacher. Ladd, Birch and Buhs (1999: 1387) found in their study that a positive relationship of children to their teachers may "provide children with emotional and instrumental resources in the classroom." Also friendship with other children can support the young learner to deal with emotions such as joy, disappointment or aggression. Relationships with conflict, however, "may lead both children and teachers to form lasting emotional reactions (e.g., anger, resentment) or unfavorable attributions and stereotypes [...] that prevent them from engaging each other in a constructive manner" (Ladd, Birch \& Buhs 1999: 1396) which poses serious danger to the willingness to learn a language at an early
age, or in the later school career. It is specified that conflicts can influence a child's readiness to take part in classroom activities (Ladd, Birch \& Buhs 1999: 1396). A child that is unwilling to learn will not only refuse to absorb information provided by the teacher, in an early language class for example, but might also cause behavioral problems within the group and pass negative emotions on to other children in the group, which is a bad precondition for successful and joyful early language acquisition. One aim of early language teaching should therefore be to support children in developing positive attitudes and emotions connected to learning situations in general, and specifically towards acquiring another language.

Generally, raising the interest in learning languages and developing positive attitudes towards ELL can be enhanced by appealing to the children's emotional level. This is supported by Krumm's and Jenkins' 'Sprachenportraits' (2001), showing that children are very proud of every single language they speak. In these language portraits, children were supposed to draw themselves with the languages they know. In some cases they did not even speak the language they drew but only knew how to greet in for example, Italian or Spanish. Seemingly, they included as many languages as possible and tried to draw them as impressively as possible. By doing so they wanted to provoke the teacher to ask them about their knowledge in order to present their skills. This leads to the assumption that children generally show affirmative attitudes towards acquiring foreign languages and if teachers manage to further develop positive emotions in the learner, ELL can be a successful and favorable process.

### 4.1.4. Cognitive development

Cognitive development and language acquisition show a reciprocal dependence. Cognitive development takes place at the infant and toddler stage as a precondition for language acquisition (Rossmann 2000: 15). As previously described in detail, humans possess an innate genetic program which enables the language acquisition process. The main reason for this assumption is the enormous complexity of attainments babies show in their language acquisition processes (Rossmann 2000: 24). At the same time, language acquisition supports the development of cognitive achievements. By learning another language, the human brain expands its complexity and builds diverse neurologic connections. By analyzing elements and decoding rules of a language, the language learner moves from the current system level to the next highest level of information processing.

In doing so, the learner develops brain functions and moves from one level of knowledge to the next (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 34).

Overall, studies about early foreign language learning have shown that bilingual education results in higher cognitive and linguistic abilities. Besides higher academic skills and better achievements at school, greater mental flexibility and capacity of building concepts, greater originality and creativity, better achievements in arrangement- and substitution-tasks, higher scores in rearrangement of information and even in non-verbal, for example perceptual and sensomotoric tasks, were observed. Additionally, metalinguistic skills, for example recognizing syntactic ambiguities or analyzing semantic input, were reported to be better in bilingually educated people than in monolingual people (Buttaroni 2000: 71).

When language learning takes place at puberty, requirements are different from language learning in early childhood. For teenagers, systems in the brain have reached a high degree of stability, and cognitive development shows logical and abstract thinking potential. Early language learners, however, show characteristics of dynamic, unstable internal systems. Learning a foreign language at an early age brings massive dynamics into the linguistic, cognitive and neuronal systems of the child because the new language system is implanted in a highly active period of growth. Those dynamics can be beneficial to the young learner's development but it highly depends on the quality and quantity of the input provided. This has been observed in an EU-study carried out in Austrian kindergartens in 1999 by Zangl and Gappmayr (quoted in Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 29). The quantity of input is important because asking too much of the learner may result in overextension leading to resignation, while designing exercises too easy does not motivate the learner to complete a task, to show his or her skills or to do an exercise again the next time. The quality of input plays a role because learners need clear and welldesigned input in order to keep their interest. Furthermore, the quality of the chosen material influences the potential of learning outcomes. The more qualitative the learning material is designed, the better the outcome. If the teacher chooses a video with bad sound and image quality, it is exhausting and difficult to follow. Therefore, less children will probably pay attention as they may lose their interest. On top of that, those children who still paid attention, might learn less from that bad-quality movie than they could from a high-quality input, because they don't see and understand the content properly.

To conclude, the developmental stadium of the brain is a precondition for learning a second language. This is because the capacity to receive and process information needs to be given in order to learn. On the other hand, learning another language can promote cognitive development as the brain is stimulated with new input and in need of connecting new synapses. As claimed by the studies mentioned above, ELL can be beneficial to young children. Provided that teachers handle resources carefully, foreign language learning certainly has positive effects on children's cognitive development.

### 4.1.5. Physical development

Children's behavior and ability to coordinate their bodily movements can reveal a lot of information about their mental maturity. By diagnosing their abilities to control their body and manage coordination exercises, information about the capacity of the brain to process input can be determined. Hence, the readiness to learn another language can be displayed by the physical state of development of a child. At the same time, learning a foreign language can train the brain and thereby accelerate the development of physical attributes.

Language learning is mainly a matter of processes in the brain, but in pre-school settings physical development is supported as well, only in a less explicit and less visible manner. By pointing to pictures, learning to hold a pen, doing certain gymnastics exercises or reacting to the teacher's foreign language commands, children learn to coordinate their feet, toes, fingers, to keep balance, stand on one foot or clap their hands. All those exercises have an impact on the physical development which can be applied in a foreign language class.

Neurobiologic preconditions for early language learning can be tested in the state of development of a child (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 29). The state of development represents the requirements a child needs in order to process input and develop foreign language skills. This can be diagnosed by checking several motoric abilities like ascending stairs, arranging building blocks, the coordination of fingers and (re-)production of drawings, cognition of visual patterns, and playing habits. If a child shows those physical abilities, it has reached a state of development in which he or she has met the physical requirements to learn another language (Krumm \& Portmann-Tselikas 2000).

Although parallel processes can be recognized in all children, it must be assumed that individual children of the same age show notably large differences in their motoric and mental predispositions (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 29). Especially in the field of early language acquisition there is great intra- and inter-individual variation due to a non-linear process structure in children's brains (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 29). Consequently, diverse children need different kinds and amounts of support. Additionally, each child shows different interests and skills, which shows the need for careful selection of learning materials and methods. The next chapter deals with methods of ELL, providing suggestions for activities that may appeal to the described developmental areas.

### 4.2. Methods of early language learning and teaching

Children can learn an additional language in different ways and at different times. While learning another language, the child's knowledge improves. Therefore, the child may undergo diverse developmental stages of language proficiency when attending a preschool. During various stages of language development, children use their newly gained knowledge in different settings such as continued use of the language in a specific situation: singing a song, citing a cartoon character seen on TV, YouTube or any other gaming website for children. Furthermore, a child uses non-verbal communication, for example nodding, pointing, shaking one's head, touching, eye contact or a period of silence.

Although rapid changes in the methods of teaching foreign languages have occurred, the main concern of foreign language teaching has remained the same which is to enable the learners to use language for their own specific purpose in a variety of contexts. On the one hand, the changes emphasize the methods which come and go, and on the other hand a constant need to search for a variety of appropriate and effective ways to facilitate learning. Teachers and educators find themselves facing the constant challenge of understanding the nature of all authentic materials and their potential uses, along with their strengths and weaknesses (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 3).

According to Mackey (1950: 3-5, quoted in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 2-3) a teaching method can be defined by four criteria. First, the action of choosing the element of the language the teacher is going to use with the learners is referred to as selection. This selection is then adapted to the level of the learners, and followed by presenting the item in any desired form. Finally, the students are given the chance to 'form a habit', meaning to
repeat and use the item in order to internalize the new structure. These criteria for defining a teaching method are still valid today. Only the last item of 'habit forming' is sometimes replaced by internalization, repetition or acquisition. (Batz \& Bufe 1991: 3).

Referring to the matter of a careful choice of learning methods for young children, it is also emphasized that
providing language and literacy experiences in preschool does not mean moving reading and writing instruction [...] to preschool; rather it means integrating appropriate literacy activities throughout the traditional preschool curriculum in a thoughtful way (Morrow 2005: 9).
Researchers have been trying to determine what 'appropriate literacy activities' for younger children are. In everyday life, children learn by absorbing information from their environment without being pushed into a traditional school-learning-setting. Children seem to acquire their native language 'automatically'. Therefore, in order to achieve maximum success, there is a tendency to transfer the 'automatic' and 'natural' learning setting to the pre-school learning of languages as well.

No matter how good a decision the teacher makes on all those steps, other factors can affect the acquisition of language. Lack of self-confidence, anxiety in new situations, or fear of making mistakes may negatively influence the learning process. Krashen (1989) published his theory of the 'Input' and the 'Affective' filters dealing with these hindering factors. The filters in a human's brain cause input to only be internalized well when its significance is understood by the learner. Also, the amount of input is crucial for the acquisition of new language (Sposet 2008: 3). Regarding the affective filters, it is emphasized that the learner's inner motives, needs, attitudes and emotional states, have great influence on how well linguistic input is developed. Affective variables, on which language acquisition depends, are categorized in motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 10). Therefore, not only are the attitudes of teachers and parents crucial for the successful learning of English, but the attitudes and feelings of the learners themselves should not be overlooked. The resulting aim of language teaching should be to lower the affective filter of learners in order to achieve good results and effective language teaching as well as learning. This means that
[n]egative emotions can prevent the learner from making total use of his/her linguistic input from his/her environment. For example, if the student is anxious and/or unmotivated or lacks confidence in his/her ability to learn a second language, language acquisition will be limited (Sposet 2008: 3).

Another task for teachers and parents therefore is to motivate and encourage the children to participate actively and have fun with what they are doing. Teachers should also reflect on the relevance of the content which is to be acquired. However, explaining the significance of songs, videos, storybooks or games is less important for pre-school children than making them enjoy the program and motivating them to participate in the activities.

Krashen's model (1989) provides teachers and parents with possible explanations for the often occurring situation in which a method does not evoke the expected output. This is where the 'Input' and 'Affective filters' models are used to explain that maybe the child is not self-confident enough, or is afraid of saying something wrong. Children must be given enough time to settle into the new situation and feel comfortable before they can learn another language. Various methods, such as repetition of words and phrases, games, links to their daily routine and usage of longer sentences with relevant meaning, are crucial to successful communicative learning.

Described below are five selected English learning and teaching methods used with young children. When adapted to the children's needs and interests in- and outside of a classroom, all these methods can be used at home as well as in either mono- or bilingual kindergarten.

### 4.2.1 Games

Games are a major component of a child's life, either used for fun, entertainment or connected to learning any school subject, the first or a foreign language. Playing, even if it is just for fun, always contains some component of learning. In every game the player acquires skills, whether it is something new or fine-tuning of existing skills. Research has shown that play is an essential requirement for all children, and that children who are not provided with enough opportunity to express themselves through play may not develop as well as their peers.

An opposing view has developed, however, stating that playing is not just for fun (Oerter \& Montada 2008: 245). In spite of frightening situations and restricting rules that may reduce the fun-aspect of games, children keep playing. They undergo an intensive exchange process between person and environment, as well as cope with specific problems and typical topics of development and relationships. Therefore, it is argued that
the purpose of playing games is to secure and enhance human existence (Oerter \& Montada 2008: 246).

These processes between person and environment, coping with difficulties and developing skills, happen while playing any game. Certain games promote specific skills more than others and the development of particular skills depends on the respective game. This can be varied by level of difficulty or type of game, for example word-guessing, sentence completion, information-gap, quizzes or memory games. The learning process can be related to the necessity of following specific rules when playing a game.

Kicking a ball around in the park is play: adding rules about how and where you can kick the ball and giving your efforts an objective (like getting it between two goalposts) turn this play into a game. This is summed up very well in Gibbs' definition (1978: p.60) of a game as 'an activity carried out by cooperating or competing decision-makers, seeking to achieve, within a set of rules, their objectives' (Rixon 1981: 3).
Getting closer to pre-set objectives by making decisions and cooperating but also competing with others is a close-fitting description for the language learning process.

Competition can enhance the learner's motivation, but also frighten less confident children. It can only be used as motivation if the atmosphere in the group is nonthreatening. In some cases it is better to let children work together in groups rather than "have individual students struggling without much hope of being among the winners" (Rixon 1981: 37). Learners should feel safe and not be afraid of having a test. Teachers should also provide possibilities for cooperation within the group by mixing the children according to their language proficiency level. Within each group there should be children who are both less and more proficient speakers of the language. This enables them to help each other and add valuable information to the discussion, and none of the children will feel left alone or dispensable. Putting the groups in a competition with each other will motivate them to achieve good results (Rixon 1981: 35-37). When using games in class, teamwork can be beneficial because when putting learners into groups one will strive to be better than the other (Rixon 1981: 37). The decision of whether to have an individual competition or group-work is up to the teacher and should be decided by with the teacher's knowledge of what is suitable for the respective class (Rixon 1981: 37).

There is hardly any game in which language or communication does not play a role. Therefore, one can select from a broad range of either traditional or newly invented games which can be used in the classroom to facilitate language learning, with the
selection being made carefully with regard to the needs of the learners. "Age, language level, interests and educational background all affect what one can hope to achieve through the use of language games. Students' ages obviously affect the type of games they can be expected to accept" (Rixon 1981: 47). This method is especially recommended for young children, who play for several hours per day, either at home or in kindergarten, learning day by day about their lives and environment. Children acquire knowledge about how games work. They know that they have to stick to rules, be fair, cooperate or compete with others, and to struggle in order to achieve the goal of the game. Children are usually familiar with the concept of playing a game, which makes it much easier to introduce new games to the classroom-setting.

Rixon (1981: 3) tried to connect the purpose of usual games to the concept of language games by stating that
[w]hatever the game, the skills employed in it are developed and improved through the repeated use they get, and, most important, the players want to improve the skills necessary for a game they enjoy. Both these principles apply to language games too.

In this statement the connection between language learning and the usefulness of games is made clear. Also the factor of 'willingness' and 'wanting to improve' appear, which indicate some form of voluntary participation and self-motivation which is, referring back to Krashen, a fundamental requirement for learning a language successfully. The right choice of a game is important in order to achieve the expected outcome (Rixon 1981: 3). When adapting a game for language-teaching purpose, it is the teacher's responsibility to ensure that the emphasis for the skills needed in the game is clearly on the use of language. It is difficult to incorporate games into language learning with regard to timing, excitement level of children and assured learning outcome. When to include a game depends on the type and purpose of the game. If the purpose is to wake learners up and stimulate them, the teacher should let them play at the beginning of the day. If, however, the purpose is to get the learners into a state of concentration, playing a stimulating game would be counterproductive. In such a case, a quiz or guessing game would be recommended. This variation is necessary because children need time to calm down so they can concentrate after having played a game. Teachers should select games with caution and be aware of how to settle children afterwards. A good way to manage a balanced stimulation of the learners is to alternate physical and calming activities and to
train children to control their level of activity. An example would be playing 'petrifying'. In this game, learners have to run as quickly as they can. If touched by a previously selected child, they immediately have to stand still and wait for help from others. In this game quick movement and immediate calming are trained, however this is only physically. Mental stimulation and calming can be trained with the help of concentration exercises such as finding mistakes when comparing pictures or solving puzzles and finding clues in order to identify a 'treasure'. After all, it is the teacher's responsibility to choose the most suitable game for the respective group, to design and adjust the organization of the games "in order not only to cater for the students' present needs, abilities and expectations, but also to lead them gradually into more adventurous linguistic and conceptual fields." (Rixon 1981: 50-52). The choice of an appropriate game combined with good timing and pedagogic skills of the teacher will ensure that playing supports learning, enhances output and is beneficial to the children.

### 4.2.2. Music

Music and language have several characteristics in common such as "pitch, volume, prominence, stress, tone, rhythm, and pauses" (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 3). Therefore, "it is possible to speculate that songs could provide an effective source of language input for EFL learners." (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 3).

First, the entertainment factor is addressed as children love to sing, listen and follow a rhythm. Using music to introduce them to English can be beneficial for example with rhythm as an aid for memorization. Playing music loudly can help maintain children's attention when it may be fading. However, too much of this can be counterproductive resulting in inappropriate behavior. Variation of pitch is most likely the key component for maintaining children's attention.

Second, music in the classroom is also reported to be meaningful as "[m]usic often helps to reinforce pronunciation and intonation of a second language as well as vocabulary and expressions." (Sposet 2008: 24). Music is seen as a tool to introduce children to literacy and phonological knowledge. Children learn that words are made up of individual sounds by "chanting poems, singing songs, and clapping the sounds they hear in words they sing and chant" (Morrow 2005: 10). Another benefit is that children can listen to the music at home and repeat what they did with their teachers.

Regarding the reception of music and language input in learner's brains, Altenmüller (2005) discovered that specific aspects of music are processed in both brain hemispheres. Reportedly, brain activity can be maximized by using music and large parts of the auditory cortex in both hemispheres are also activated by music (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 15). Music activates the brain and so does language. Therefore, it can be concluded that music does indeed have an effect on our linguistic development. If lyrics are processed and combined with melody both hemispheres are activated and lyrics as well as rhythm can be connected to existing linguistic knowledge.

Because of its ability to impact people emotionally, mentally, socially, aesthetically, spiritually, music has been recognized as an important instrument in the treatment of psychological disorders, in the healing of sick people, the banishing of evil spirits and in religious ceremonies as well. Plato emphasized the importance of using music in education when he said, 'music is a more potent instrument than any other for education'. (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 1)
Saglam, Kayaoglu and Aydinli (2010) confidently argue for the use of music in language classes because of its popularity and its power to motivate students to pay attention. Music does not only appeal to one communicative language skill but can be used as a basis for listening, writing, reading, grammar, fluency or pronunciation exercises. Consequently, music can support language learning in general. The teacher is provided various possibilities for enhancing the individual skills of language learners with different aptitudes (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 3). This broad range of potential makes music seem a valuable instrument for foreign language learning. Here are seven further reasons for including music in the language class:

Songs are suitable pedagogic resources in the following ways: (1) They offer a non-traditional method and change the pace of instruction; (2) they are entertaining and serve as alternatives to the main course materials; (3) they increase students' motivation and interest; (4) they strengthen the learners' conversational skills through practicing pronunciation, exposure to vocabulary, and discussing social and cultural issues in the target language; (5) they allow for the teaching of grammatical structures in a meaningful context;
(6) they engage students in discussion of diverse cultural and historical issues;
(7) they help promote an awareness of multiculturalism. (Lacorte \& ThurstonGriswold 2001, quoted in Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 3)
Not only does music improve the skills related directly to language such as pronunciation, lexicon, pitch and grammar, but reportedly there is also significant influence on people's emotions. Referring back to Krashen's theory of affective factors, people's emotions have significant influence on their brain's aptitude to acquire language. Therefore, " $[t]$ he use of
music can directly be linked to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis" (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 9-10) and Sposet (2008: 3) goes as far as to say that the 'Affective Filter Hypothesis' is not only linked to the use of music in a classroom but it is strongly connected to or even "tied to the inclusion of music in the second language classroom" because music can be used to cause emotions and therefore music can evoke positive emotions in a child which enhances language learning. Those emotions can be set free by being confronted with music actively or even passively, for example by simply listening or singing along, alone or in groups. No matter how students are exposed to music, "the experience is pleasurable and can increase student confidence in the second language" (Sposet 2008: 3). By appealing to the learner's emotion, teachers can take away stress and negative feelings from the learner and therefore, lower the 'affective filter' which results in better aptitude to acquire a language.

It is [...] important to note that the comprehensibility of linguistic input depends also upon the learners' inner feelings and attitudes. Negative emotions may prevent the learner from making total use of the linguistic input from his/her environment. Music, the universal language of mankind, can create an environment to eliminate negative emotions and evoke the positive ones. [...] If music can help create an anxiety-free atmosphere, it might also help students gain confidence and even increase their motivation. The power of music enables learners to lower affective filters and develop a sense of community by softening the hard atmosphere and increasing self-confidence. (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 10).
As discussed in the method of using games in the classroom, the responsibility of the teacher to develop the material and make it accessible to the students is crucial. It needs to be specified, directed and planned to be of educational value in language teaching. Unless pedagogically adapted, music can be a negative aspect of a classroom and some might even conclude that it can decrease the motivation level in a classroom (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 6). Nevertheless, Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli (2010:2) criticize the minimal use of music in the classroom, as the benefits outweigh the dangers:

If music plays such a vital role and has such a deep reaching effect on people's mood, motivation, emotions, socialization, behavioral outcome and involvement, all of which are crucial components in education and in particular, in language learning, it is ironic that music is [sic] still waiting at the threshold of the classroom to be invited in.

Songs can only be used successfully in the language learning process if they raise the learner's interest, open possibilities for enjoyable activities, connect to already existing knowledge and are understandable for the target audience. The teacher should also
choose songs that "provide correct models of language use and a topic for communication." (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 7). Respectively, it is not enough to switch on the radio and let the students listen but, as with any other method for second language acquisition, there is a lot of planning and preparing behind the successful use of music in the classroom.

### 4.2.3. Books

Books play an important role throughout our lives. Experiences with storybook reading are crucial in early literacy development (Morrow 2005: 9). Books are important not only for children but also for adults who deal with books day by day, whether reading for joy or studying for work. Therefore, books seem to be essential in any classroom and obviously for pre-schoolers too. Even though pre-schoolers cannot read books by themselves, they can look at pictures, get familiar with books generally and adults can read aloud to children while showing accompanying pictures and drawings. Books give children a look into the made-up world of stories and as children are often interested in fiction, they can be motivated easily. If there is not enough interest shown for one book, the stories can be reworded, information can be left out or added, and the reader can vary in pitch and intonation in order to make them more appropriate for the children's level of understanding. Moreover, several adapted versions of books can be bought. These versions offer adapted content and design, according to the age-related skills of the target group. Without an early interest in reading, it will be difficult for the child in the future when he or she is faced with the challenge of learning to read in English.

Reading is beneficial for various skills. It can enhance several abilities in children's later literacy such as "oral language development, phonological/phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge, print knowledge, and invented spelling" (Morrow 2005: 8). Therefore, content guidelines for language and literacy in pre-school have been designed that include the issues of oral language on the one hand and literacy development on the other. First, the category of oral language contains skills such as gestures, verbal expressions, vocabulary, listening and phonemic awareness. Second, literacy development consists of book handling and letter name knowledge, alphabetic principles, knowledge of text structures, comprehension of stories and interest in books. These skills also contain general culturally determined knowledge that in most cases a book has a
front and a back cover, and in our western culture it is read from left to right, from the front to the back.

As a motivated learner acquires knowledge more easily and rapidly and books play a vital role in school later, it is important to raise an interest in books at an early age in order to increase the likelihood that the child will at some later stage return to the use of books with a positive attitude. This can be done by making reading a lively experience for them. Reading aloud to children is suggested as a suitable method for raising interest in books and therefore enhancing success in literacy (Morrow 2005: 11). Most important for the promotion of literacy and the probability to read are phonologic and linguistic awareness (Oerter \& Montada 2008: 230). Phonologic and linguistic awareness are constructed by the ability to categorize language in syllables and components similar in sounds, strategies of parents for solving problematic situations with their children, development of metacommunicative skills in role playing, early acquisition of metaknowledge about reading and writing, looking at storybooks and listening to stories. Dialogic reading, books suitable for children and intergenerational family literacy are useful to support emergent literacy skills (Jennings, Hooker \& Linebarger 2009: 230).

The popularity of books in Austria has been examined by a study about the media consumption behavior of children aged three to ten years, living in Upper Austria. Although the study covers children from the age of three to ten years, only children from six to ten years were interviewed. To represent the younger children, 300 parents were interviewed regarding the media behavior of their children (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 3). Parents state that they read aloud to their children almost daily. However, they do not consider this as enough time spent on books. Therefore, parents in Austria are aware of the importance of storytelling and reading books together. Nevertheless, they do not take enough time to use the potential of books for raising their children's interest in reading. Additionally, e-books are a disposable interactive reading experience, but only used occasionally, as print-books are still clearly preferred (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 8). Even if e-books are not yet as popular as other digital media with young children, their existence and increasing use among adults and teenagers show that the media has developed over the last number of years. Therefore, the use of digital media should also be considered in regard to ELL, particularly educational television.

### 4.2.4. Visual media

There was a time when digital media was believed to deteriorate people's minds. Nowadays, there are many useful educational productions which convey important knowledge, for both adults and children. Children teach themselves valuable information when using technological devices, and are highly interested in learning by technology (Walker \& White 2013: 111). It is helpful to use the media which children are more likely to use in order to help them understand the world and more complex topics. Difficult content can be displayed and explained much easier with the help of TV, tablets, streaming services, smartphone apps or computers, as digital media can function on several levels as a multidimensional channel with visual, aural, emotional and physical involvement.

The study about the media consumption behavior of three to ten year old children living in Upper Austria, introduced above, also showed results on the use of digital media in Austria. It revealed that despite the availability of diverse new technical devices, watching TV is still the most popular visual medium used by children. A third of the children watch TV for approximately one hour per day (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 7). Therefore, the use of streaming services, apps or computers is not used as much as a simple TV station. Nevertheless, a fifth of the children use computers daily. A quarter of the children play on their computer, phone, smartphone or tablet for approximately 45 minutes several times a week. A quarter of the three to five year old children play on technical devices several times a week (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 8). Therefore, the use of computers or tablets is already popular with very young, pre-school aged children. Moreover, a third of the children already own a phone or a smartphone (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 9). Children are introduced to the use of new media very early, which lets assume that, at an early age, they have a high proficiency level using digital media. Children can use technical devices autonomously for learning, playing or entertainment at a young age, though according to the study, parents are critical about the early possession of phones. They worry about the phone being a disturbing influence on their children's education, and that children speak ever less with each other (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 9). However, it is the parents who buy the devices for their children and introduce them to their use. Critical reflections and educating their children about the use of modern media may be advisable.

The following statistic (Fig. 1) shows parents' evaluation of how much time their children spend with media. The amount of time used for diverse media, such as television, watching DVD or YouTube videos, playing games on the computer, phone or videogames, using phones or smartphones, general computer use, surfing the internet, listening to music, reading books, listening to radio plays and listening to the radio, is estimated. Parents' estimation is divided into three options, which are 'too much time', an 'adequate amount of time' or 'not enough time'. Additionally, for all three options, trends of the years 2007, 2010, 2012 and 2014 are given for comparison. The results of the same study, in the respective years in which it has been conducted, are shown.

As presented below in 'Fig. 1', parents estimate their children to spend too much time watching TV and not enough time reading books or listening to radio plays. The neglected use of books is counterproductive to early language development as described in the previous section and should be better supported by parents. Compared to the trends of previous years, an increase in figures is noticeable for each medium. Only for the choice of spending 'not enough time' on watching TV, have figures remained stable. This allows the conclusion that children show an overall increased use of diverse media over the years.


Fig. 1 Einschätzung des Zeitaufwands (Education Group GmbH 2016b: Chart 14)

Although parents state that their children spend too much time on TV programs, their use can have several positive impacts on the learner. First, pre-school TV-programs can help make literacy and language development easier (Jennings, Hooker \& Linebarger 2009: 229). TV is a very popular medium of entertainment, which is shown by the fact introduced above, that Austrian children aged three to ten years spend about an hour per day watching television (Education Group GmbH 2016a: 7). This strong interest in watching TV could easily be used for indirect teaching of the language. Diverse linguistic input is possible and a child needs "exposure to the widest possible range of accents, voices, genres and functions of language, and television is indeed ideally equipped to do this job" (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 171).

Television can be a source of rich linguistic input, which is shown by a survey carried out in the USA (Jennings, Hooker \& Linebarger 2009: 231). Two longitudinal studies have shown a relation between watching educational media and children's receptive vocabulary. The test persons are reported to have gained awareness of recognizing wordinitial sounds and a significant general development in their awareness of sounds and blending which are significant factors for later literacy and reading development. One main reason for the improvement of literacy and language skills is that children neither differentiate nor keep apart information gained from various sources. For a child, it does not matter whether he or she has learned from a TV program, a song or a book. This lack of differentiation increases their general knowledge and allows it to grow faster. Additionally, it is beneficial to teaching, as the information children gained at home from watching TV can be connected to a story told at kindergarten. As children connect the information they will be more motivated and show interest. This may also raise their learning outcome.

It is criticized, however, that TV only works as a single-channel, meaning that it only appeals to the receptive skills of the person watching the program (Bufe 1991: 389). Speaking skills are not addressed, which can be changed if the teacher or parents design follow-up work for the programs watched, or it even helps if there is another child watching the same program, so that children can exchange their thoughts. Thus, it is important not to use TV as a means for keeping children busy when there is no time for parents to play with them, but what children see on TV needs to be discussed.

Media may raise children's motivation to learn, it can help them to gather and construct meaning by learning to interpret symbols and it can enhance their expressive language vocabularies (Jennings, Hooker \& Linebarger 2009: 230-231). As a result, the media can contribute to positive learner motivation and therefore, to successful language learning. The debate continues though, Walker and White (2013: 111) point out that there is not yet enough empirical proof available in order to correctly judge the use of TV.

Mass exposure of children to digital technologies is simply too recent to be certain about the effects on learning and development. [...] We would not argue that teachers should not use technology with young learners, but teachers should certainly be aware that the debate exists and, whilst children often enjoy using technology, parents and headteachers may have legitimate concerns.
Researchers and critics have not yet come to a consensus on whether TV and the modern media are an advantageous or unfavorable means of learning. Walker and White (2013: 111) sum the widely debated situation up by stating that the use of technology for learning "changes the structure/working of the brain" but it is not sure to which amount it is beneficial or destructive to the learner. However, what is surely acknowledged is the fact that "there is no clear evidence that technology itself affects brain structure or function, although it is known that the brain is plastic (i.e. that it can be changed) and that experience/learning can enhance brain development" (Walker \& White 2013: 111).

### 4.2.5. TPR - Total Physical Response

The Total Physical Response Theory is a theory which has been developed by James Asher, and is an alternative learning technique which "involves having students listen to a command in a foreign language and immediately respond with the appropriate physical action" (Asher 1969: 254). Students are required to act physically, instead of sitting still and listening to the teacher's explanations about a certain topic. The teacher is supposed to teach by giving commands in the foreign language which is to be acquired, and the students should learn this respective language by listening to the commands and responding physically. At the very beginning, students are not supposed to speak at all. They are expected to produce spoken language at a later stage, but only if they want to (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 327). So, the TPR method has two main components: movement of the learner and commanding language of the teacher.

Movement is the main component of the TPR method. Students move most of the learning time, as they are required to do specific tasks commanded by their teacher, as for example to stand up, sit down, walk around, jump on the chair, touch the table, take a book from a window and carry it to the door and come back (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 334). Intense physical involvement is beneficial as the learning process is supported by the student's movements and the performance of the command is a form of internalizing the spoken language. Absorbing the given linguistic input with its objects and features is said to be supported by performing the requested action. Moreover, the movement is not restricted to physical activity but can be used as a means of checking or showing understanding (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 113). The direct physical involvement of the learner causes enhanced learning efficiency (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 334). This argument has been supported by empirical research in terms of the speed of learning but also for a low rate of forgetting compared to other methods.

Regarding the commanding language used in the TPR method, Asher (1977b) points to the connection of physical activation as an aid for learning and the initial concentration on the listening skills. Reportedly, these two characteristics are connected to infant language learning. There are three main arguments for this connection, as cited below.

1. Die Entwicklung des Hörverstehens eilt der produktiven Beherrschung beim Kind voraus.
2. Verstehen der gesprochenen Sprache wird vom Kind in bestimmten Handlungskontexten mit den Erwachsenen verlangt. 3. Die Entwicklung des Hörverständnisses mag eine „Bereitschaft" ('readiness') für das Sprechen herbeiführen. Hören und Hörverständnis (in Verbindung mit daraus resultierenden Handlungen) stellt also nach Asher für Kinder ein wesentliches Moment in der Entwicklung des Erstspracherwerbs dar, das auch als hilfreich in einer - insofern natürlichen - Entwicklung des Fremdsprachenerwerbs sein sollte (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 335).
This clear reference to children's aptitude of acquiring a first- or second language shows that the TPR-method has been mainly developed for the beginning phase of foreign language teaching and learning and that it is considered well suited to young children as they can be easily motivated to act.

With reference to Krashen's Natural Approach, it is argued that a positive feeling is crucial for learning, as the reduction of anxiety enhances self-confidence of the learner. This can be reached if teachers do not put the learners under pressure, but to allow them to contribute when they are ready (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 107-108). A stress-free learning
atmosphere is achieved by putting the listening skill above speaking or productive skills (Batz \& Bufe 1991: 15). Children don't have to speak while they get to know the language. At a later stage, when they are familiar with the method and sound of the language, they are given the choice to produce output. However, children are never forced to speak. This is recommended as a child in the 'one-word-stadium' understands more than he or she can produce, and also the utterances understood by the child are significantly longer than what the child can utter itself (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 330). This leads to the assumption that a child can be involved in linguistic actions by adults uttering commands, questions and requests without the necessity of being able to produce the utterances itself. This causes higher motivation and less tension in the learning process, again leading to better overall results and a positive impact on language learning success.

The suggestion to learn a foreign language by listening and acting is reasoned by Asher with similarities to the learning of the mother tongue. Asher argues that children absorb language very much by completing commands and hearing short but clear utterances about what the adults want. A big part of the input with the TPR method is short and clear commands. By dealing with them, but also by making mistakes in completing them, children learn the situational conditions for the correct usage of such utterances (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 330). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 107) "this is exactly how an infant acquires its native language. A baby spends many months listening to the people around it long before it ever says a word." The focus of the TPR method is set on understanding rather than producing. Therefore, it is argued to be an effective method to teach English especially to very young children.

Further reports for the successful usage of the TPR method foster the belief of the efficiency of this language learning method. Interestingly, although the focus is set on the development of auditory skills, children who have been exposed to the TPR method showed better results in other skills at a later stage of learning as well. Reportedly, children were found to display better reading skills than children who have not worked with the TPR method before (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 338). Moreover, positive impact on the development of pronunciation was found as well. Generally, the results of several empirical studies show that the delay of the speech act in the TPR method leads to the development of other skills (Wienold 1985 in Batz \& Bufe 1991: 339).

Asher (1969: 261) argues that the method is only successful if the amount of exposure to the language input is high enough. It is argued that in usual school situations, the amount of contact with the foreign language is not enough to expect the results described above. Given the limited amount of time spent with the target language in Austrian pre-schools, high expectations of parents cannot be met. Consequently, children will not be able to achieve a high amount of language proficiency if the language input is as low as in usual public kindergartens in Austria.

## 5. The influence of the L1 on the learning of a L2

When children learn another language early, especially at a time at which their L1 is not fully developed, critics say that the mother tongue interferes with the foreign language. Studies have been carried out and researchers found that the L1 definitely has an influence on the L2. However, they do not agree on whether this influence is beneficial to the learner or whether it hinders SLA. Enough research has been done in order to claim that the L1 probably influences L2 learning in both, a negative and a positive way (Song \& Andrews 2009: 22). The 'Competition Model', behaviorist theories, 'Contrastive Analysis' and 'Interlanguage' are diverse concepts dealing with the influence of the L1 on the L2. All of these will be discussed in this section.

The 'Competition Model' of linguistic performance focuses on meaning which is conveyed through conversations and encoded by different features of a language. These encoding features "act as 'cues' to interpreting the meaning of what is said" (Cameron 2001: 14). Children learn to rely on those 'cues' which carry important data when acquiring their mother tongue. But when they learn a foreign language at a later stage, researchers claim that due to the different types of hints in diverse languages, the learner might have troubles with encoding the meaning correctly in the L2 (Cameron 2001: 15).

According to behaviorists, patterns of the L1 hinder the acquisition of new patterns of the L2 (Song \& Andrews 2009: 23). While learners would actually need to establish habits for the L2 which are unrelated to the L1, this is not possible because the L1 interferes with the L2. Therefore, errors are made by the learners in foreign language acquisition processes. The L1 causing mistakes in the use of the L2 is called 'interference' of the first language. Another concept of interference, but with a more positive meaning, is transfer. It describes the L1 supporting appropriate use of the L2. It is defined "as the use of
knowledge or skills from one context in a different linguistic context" (Foley \& Flynn 2013: 98). However, transfer does not only bring advantages. Using skills from other languages could result in so-called 'avoidance', also called errors of omission. This means that the L2-learner uses some structures more or less often than the average native speaker would (Ortega 2009: 53). So the L2 learner does not use language patterns like natives do, but transfers language patterns of his or her L1 to the L2, which may sound unnatural. Also, it can "result in subtle effects beyond form-form or form-function misidentifications and can occur at all levels of language, from information structure, to pragmatics, to thinking-for-speaking." (Ortega 2009: 53). Not only linguistic characteristics influence transfer, but also the proficiency level of the speaker (Ortega 2009: 53).

The term 'interlanguage' was coined by Selinker (1972), meaning that there is an independent scheme for the language between L1 and L2. So 'interlanguage' is a separate system apart from L1 and L2, only comprising of the developing language in the learner's brain (Song \& Andrews 2009: 27). It is stated that learners compare their interlanguage with their L2 and their L1, which would mean that all three language systems function independently. These findings lead to the conclusion that learning another language is not completely possible without the interference of the L1 (Song \& Andrews 2009: 28). The concept of interlanguage indicates a shift from a negative view of the L1-influence to a more positive notion. While behaviorists saw the L1 as detrimental to L2 acquisition, the cognitive approach describes the L1 as a resource from which the learners can draw. (Ellis 1994: 343, cited in Song \& Andrews 2009: 28).

One main aspect of interlanguage is fossilization, which happens when speakers of the L2 do not yet speak or write according to the norm of the L2, but stay constantly at this level. There is some kind of halt in the language development causing specific characteristics of the interlanguage to stay, despite intensive teaching or a very long stay in an area with the target-language as an official language. It is supposed that social and affective factors play an important role in fossilization (Edmondson \& House 2000: 233). In the 1950s, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was constructed which deals with the interdependence of L1 and L2. The Contrastive Analysis describes differences between the respective languages as obstructive, while similarities are seen as beneficial to L2 learning. Therefore "L2s with more differences from the L1 are predicted to take longer
to learn." (Foley \& Flynn 2013: 98). Researchers used the Contrastive Analysis to predict future mistakes of learners, according to the differences of their mother tongue and their target language (Song \& Andrews 2009: 24). Thus, interference should be diminished in advance. However, this was not possible because mistakes could not have been predicted. A prediction was impossible, because errors are irrational. They can occur due to diverse problems, such as language difficulties, and a lack of contrasts between L1 and L2 (Edmondson \& House 2000: 224). Errors occur more often when characteristics of the target language are similar to the L1 but not identical, than if L1 and L2 are totally different. Also, there are errors which are not explainable by the concept of interference, as they deviate from structures of the L2 and the L1 at the same time. The Contrastive Analysis cannot explain, why learners of the same target language, who share their L1, do not make the same mistakes (Edmondson \& House 2000: 225). Furthermore, predictions of errors were often wrong, and indeed not made by learners (Song \& Andrews 2009: 24). Therefore, the Contrastive Hypothesis was weakened by saying that at least some errors in foreign language learning can be explained as a consequence of transfer from the L1 (Edmondson \& House 2000: 225-226).

It is widely debated whether to use the L1 in a foreign language learning classroom. Some say, children will only learn the FL well if they speak and hear it throughout the whole lesson. Critics, however, say that use of the L1 is necessary, in order to explain difficult tasks. Additionally, comparing the L2 to the L1 may facilitate the understanding of certain structures which are already well known in the mother tongue and can be applied to the L2. A contrastive approach uses the differences between the L1 and the L2 for teaching the foreign language, while a natural linguistic input means that the L1 is not part of teaching the L2. In order to find out which method is better, an experiment was made with two foreign language learning groups. One group was taught by contrastive and natural methods at the same time, while the other was taught by a natural approach only. The results showed, that the group with the combined teaching methods performed much better than the group that was only exposed to natural input (Song \& Andrews 2009: 29). Therefore, it was supposed that using Contrastive Analysis would be beneficial for second language learning and teaching.

To summarize, "[a]lthough uncertainties still remain about the precise significance of language transfer there seems to be little doubt that language transfer, both negative and positive, occurs in the process of L2 learning" (Song \& Andrews 2009: 29-30). Moreover,
transfer is not only due to the L1 but depends on the language proficiency of the speaker. Even though some experts want the L1 to be completely banned from FL classrooms, the use of the common L1 among learners of a second language helps to fulfil tasks and reach aims, as well as to exchange experiences and talk about the learning process. For learners of a L2, their first language is a crucial means to communicate with their peers, especially if their level of proficiency is not high enough to exchange thoughts clearly in the foreign language.

## 6. The critical age hypothesis

Researchers have long been discussing whether there is something like a 'critical age' for acquiring a language. This discussion refers to an age-limit, after which people would not be able to learn a language as well as they could before. The critical age hypothesis proposes an "irreversible deterioration of language learning ability" in progress of time (Herschensohn 2007: 2). This leads to weaker language learning skills when growing older, resulting in a lower foreign language proficiency level. Therefore, it is argued that adults cannot achieve the same foreign language skills as younger learners.

The majority of researchers speak for the existence of some kind of a 'critical period'. Researchers found that the left hemisphere of the human brain is responsible for language development and everything that has to do with languages generally. This division of tasks in the brain begins in early childhood. Therefore, researchers think that the development of the brain interferes with the process of language acquisition. This means, to be more precise, that our brain undergoes phases. One of those phases offers the best opportunity to acquire language. This results in an age limit after which adults have disadvantages concerning language learning (Herschensohn 2007: 1). In regards to the question of whether a critical age exists, there are differences between children and adults, but on the other hand there is "abundant evidence that adults can learn foreign languages to a sophisticated degree of fluency." (Herschensohn 2007: 1). This again shows that there seem to be differences between children and adults, or even children and teenagers, but there is no agreement on how serious they are, when 'difference' starts, what it means and what consequences 'difference' has.

Claims about critical periods include strong, weak or denying versions. The first view insists on a specific sharp age limit, while the second shares the view that a critical age
exists, but does not define a specific age at which the deterioration of learning abilities would start. The third view doubts the existence of a critical period at all. Researchers have not yet agreed on whether there really is a critical period, nor have they decided on an age at which this critical period should start or end. What seems to be sure is that "[a]ge matters in language learning but it is not quite clear how." (Dörnyei 2009: 249). Therefore, the fact that age matters is clear, but what remains open to discussion are exact definitions of the age factor such as starting points of the critical period or the scope of influence on language learning. As there are so many opposed positions, all the material allows for several interpretations (Dörnyei 2009: 263). Research about the Critical Period Hypothesis and recent findings on age-related studies let conclude that "native ultimate attainment is available to a number of adults who started learning the target language after puberty, therefore, the strong version of the CPH cannot be maintained any longer" (Nikolov \& Mihaljevic Djigunovic 2006: 239).

Concerning pronunciation, it is stated that "no study has as yet provided convincing evidence for the claim that L2 speech will automatically be accent-free if it is learned before the age of about 6 years and that it will definitely be foreign-accented if learned after puberty" (Piske, MacKay \& Flege 2001: 197). Furthermore, children do not learn quicker but slower and with even more effort than adults (Marinova-Todd, Marshall \& Snow 2000: 27). This means that the definite existence of a critical age for foreign language learning is denied. Additionally, more research needs to be done on brain functions in order to allow conclusions on the interrelation of brain functions and language behavior. Thirdly, it is argued that adult learners can generally achieve a nativelike level of proficiency. The only reason most adult learners do not achieve a higher level is their lack of "motivation, commitment of time or energy, and support from the environments" (Marinova-Todd, Marshall \& Snow 2000: 27).

The debate about the critical age hypothesis is omnipresent in linguistics and at the same time of great importance in this paper. After all, the need to learn a foreign language very early comes from the belief in a deterioration of learning abilities at a later stage. If one could learn a language at a later stage as well, why should people be worried about starting early. The importance of ELL is stressed by parents, teachers and the government, who officially introduced compulsory English lessons in public kindergarten. The main reason stated for the support of ELL is the belief in the existence of a critical age period. Even though the vast majority of people in Austria support the claim of a critical period
for language learning, research has not yet found a clear description for the influence of age in FLL.

On the whole, there seems to be no clarity and accordance yet. Studies suggest to make children familiar with language as soon as possible but research does not determine a point of time that the skills for language acquisition deteriorate (Herschensohn 2007: 23). Serious doubt in the existence of a unified critical period has been evoked. Several adults who acquired a language perfectly well at an advanced age, or the diversity of L2 learning success of children, are seen as valid counter-evidence to a critical age period.

## 7. The study

The following comparative case study is aimed at examining the beliefs of parents and teachers of pre-school children in Austria towards ELL. It consists of two parts. First, questionnaires were distributed to parents of pre-schoolers. Second, interviews were carried out with two teachers. Data for both, the questionnaires and the interviews, was collected in one public kindergarten and in one private bilingual playschool in Austria. Therefore, the following research question has emerged:
'What is the motivation and expectation of pre-schoolers' parents and teachers of one selected bilingual- and one monolingual playschool in Austria for wanting young children to learn English and how do they want their children to learn English?'

In the following chapter, the research process will be described and research subject groups, methods and aims of the studies will be introduced.

### 7.1. Assumptions

The following assumptions were formulated according to the aims of finding out about the attitude of parents and teachers in Austria. The applicability of the assumptions was tested by the help of empirical research. Whether they were supported or not applicable is described later in chapter ' 8 . Findings'. The assumptions are:

1. Selected parents in Austria want their children to learn English early.
2. Selected parents in Austria want their children to learn English in a professional way rather than at home.
3. Parents expect ELL to provide a long-lasting advantage in diverse aspects of their child's life.
4. The most popular method for teaching English to young children is singing.
5. Teachers want children to start language learning as early as possible
6. Teachers find their motivation for teaching English to young learners in the emerging benefits in not only linguistic but diverse skills for the children
7. Teachers believe in the critical age hypothesis

### 7.2. Description of research design and methodology

The following study was set with the same methods in two institutions, which were one kindergarten in Upper Austria designed as a bilingual playschool (BP), and one monolingual kindergarten in Lower Austria (MP). In the BP, English was spoken all day long. The MP offered English lessons, by a native speaker, once a week. Both institutions educated children aged 2,5 to 6 years. The institutions were selected because of several practical factors "such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, or easy accessibility" which qualify them as a convenience sample (Dörnyei 2003: 72). The BP was chosen because it is a specific form of a kindergarten which does not exist very often. Moreover, contact was established quickly and the manager agreed to let me gain an insight into the work of this institution. The MP was chosen because of proximity to my hometown, and also I was allowed to carry out my research there. Therefore, the material chosen for this research must be considered as a convenience sample which is not representative for the country of Austria.

Two teachers were interviewed. One was the manager of the BP and one was an English native speaker who teaches English in the MP. The aim was to find their personal motivation and attitudes towards ELL and to finally compare them. Additionally, questionnaires were distributed to the parents in order to reveal their beliefs and motivation for letting their children learn English at such a young age. These results were also intended to be compared between the MP and the BP.

### 7.2.1. Questionnaire

The research object 'beliefs and attitudes of parents towards ELL' was investigated in form of a quantitative study as "it employs categories, viewpoints and models that have been precisely defined by the researcher in advance" (Dörnyei 2003: 14). The research design was a questionnaire, written in the official language of Austria, which is German. The questionnaire was divided into three parts to be answered by the parents. The first part asked for general information about their child, the second part consisted of questions about the children's experiences and parents' attitudes towards ELL and the third part asked for information about the parents. The data was dealt with anonymously. The complete questionnaire is included in the appendix.

A questionnaire can consist of two types of items, which are closed-response or openresponse items. It is usual to use both types of items which are interrelating and not to be seen as isolated (Brown 2009: 201). The questionnaire designed for this study included both items, too. There were mainly closed-response-items offering single or multiple choice that let the respondents choose one or more answers from a pre-determined list (Brown 2009: 201). Therefore, the results were objective. Still there was some information that could not be limited to a selection of answers but where the participants needed to express themselves in their own words. They could do so in questions like 'Why do you want....' or 'other' in order to have the possibility to express personal opinion and not the impression of being guided into one direction, without having a choice.

The questionnaire was distributed personally by the pedagogues in both institutions to parents who were willing to participate in the study. The parents were not preselected by the teachers and the respondents were of different age, gender, family background, social class, with or without migration background and living in diverse parts of Lower and Upper Austria, which cover rural and urban areas.

At first, the distribution of the questionnaire seemed to be unproblematic, but then not all of the parents who agreed to complete it actually returned it. The number of participants diminished from 42 to 31 in total. It was therefore not as easy as assumed to get the intended number of participants. Nevertheless, those who did complete the questionnaire seemed to take a great effort to do so. This leads to the assumption that even if there were fewer participants than intended, the answers still offered interesting information.

### 7.2.2. Interview

The research object 'beliefs and attitudes of teachers towards early language learning' was investigated in form of a qualitative study. Interviews were made with two anonymous respondents, who were pre-school teachers. The interviews were conducted by the author and took place in the respective playschool institutions where the teachers worked. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and evaluated with the 'qualitative content analysis' model by Mayring (2010). This model aims at quantifying qualitative data and therefore making it measurable by including quantitative steps of analysis and a theory-guided analysis. This was useful for this research, as the attitudes of the two teachers interviewed were intended to be compared in the end. Therefore, making answers measurable was necessary.

The interviews were semi-structured so the interviewer had a guideline prepared in advance but could vary formulation and sequence of the questions. The interview was 'open', so the respondents could answer freely. A characteristic of a semi-guided interview is that "the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei 2007: 136). Therefore, the teachers were not interrupted when they talked about interesting topics and elaborated on diverse issues.

A qualitative interview can be led as an expert interview for which the respondents act as experts in a field and explain their knowledge, or as interviews in which the respondents are asked for personal views and attitudes (Mayring 2010: 33). The interviews done for this research combined both types, as the respondents acted as experts in teaching but were at the same time asked for personal opinion on ELL. The transcription codes of the interviews are attached at the end of the paper. Details about the analysis follow later in this chapter.

The guiding questions have been designed in the official language of Austria, which is German, and are included in the appendix. The 18 interview questions were formulated beforehand and supplementary questions were also designed for several topic areas. The questions covered personal information about the teacher, attitudes toward ELL, motivation for being a teacher, aims of ELL, methods for teaching a FL, expectations from ELL, and the influence of multilinguality on ELL. Also, the last question was formulated according to Dörnyei (2007: 138) and provided the possibility to add anything that the respondent wanted to say. The interviews were semi-structured as they were guided by the questions but there was no fixed sequence in which the questions had to be asked and also the formulation of the questions could vary.

The interviews were conducted in each teachers' respective institution, the MP in Lower Austria and the BP in Upper Austria.

### 7.3. Information about the respondents

The respondents are now described more closely, before the actual research is evaluated and interpreted. The children attending the playschools, their parents and teachers are introduced in this section.

### 7.3.1. Children

The children were not directly involved in the empirical research, but played a vital role as they were actually the centrepiece of what this whole research was about. Children examined in this research were from three to six years in age. In the BP in Upper Austria, there were 19 children of 23 , or respectively their parents, participating in the study. In the MP in Lower Austria, there were twelve out of 19 participating. Thus, the number of participants decreased from 42 to 31 in total.

More information about the children was requested in the first part of the questionnaire distributed to the parents. Out of 31 , no child was between 0 and 2 years old, seven were aged 3 or 4 and the majority was 5 or older. To be precise, there were 24 children who would be going to school the next year. These facts are illustrated in two pie charts shown below, divided into children's age in the BP and in the MP.


Fig. 2 Children's age MP


Fig. 3 Children's age BP

As figures 1 and 2 show, all children in the BP were between five and six years old, so this group was an age-homogenous group, whereas in the MP in Lower Austria, children were of mixed age, from three to six years. Despite the differences in age, the results of the study were comparable, as general attitudes of parents towards ELL were examined, which were not necessarily dependent on the actual age of the child. Also, the teachers' beliefs could be compared because they neither depended on the age of the children taught the foreign language. However, teaching methods usually are adapted to the age of the learner. Therefore, difficulties in comparability of the teachers' favourite methods used for ELL were expected, due to the difference in age of the children.

### 7.3.2. Parents

There were a total of 31 parents that agreed to participate in the research. 19 of them were parents of children attending the BP and twelve of the MP.

More detailed information about the parents was requested in the third part of the questionnaire. First, they were asked about their age. The majority of parents, of MP and BP combined, were aged between 26 and 35 years. The second biggest group was aged 36 to 45 years. In the following graph, the numbers are displayed by the BP and MP.


Fig. 4 Parents' age MP


Fig. 5 Parents' age BP

As can be seen from those representations, the parents of children in the MP were significantly younger than those in the BP, although the majority of both institutions were aged between 26 and 35 .

The next item was to reveal whether parents were male or female. In total, out of 31 parents, 24 mothers and 8 fathers filled in the questionnaire. From all parents of children attending the MP, 11 mothers and 1 father filled in the questionnaire, which amounted to 93 \% female and 7 \% male respondents. In regards to the BP, the number of male participants was higher with four out of 19 being fathers and 15 mothers, resulting in 21 \% male and 79 \% female participants.


Fig. 6 Parents' sex MP


Fig. 7 Parents' sex BP

Additionally, there was an interest in finding out about the parents' background in language. In Lower Austria, one parent of the MP indicated that someone within his or her family spoke English as their mother tongue, whereas in the BP in Upper Austria there were three. The mother tongue of the parents are displayed below in 'table 1'. In Lower Austria the parents' L1 was mainly German, one spoke Croatian and one Romanian, and in Upper Austria there was one person with Czech as their mother tongue, one Slovak, one Spanish and 16 German.

Table 1 Parents' L1 MP and BP

|  | Parents' L1 MP |  | Parents' L1 BP |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| L1 | full numbers | per cent | full numbers | per cent |
| German | 10 | $84 \%$ | 16 | $85 \%$ |
| Croatian | 1 | $8 \%$ | 0 | $0 \%$ |
| Romanian | 1 | $8 \%$ | 0 | $0 \%$ |
| Czech | 0 | $0 \%$ | 1 | $5 \%$ |
| Slovak | 0 | $0 \%$ | 1 | $5 \%$ |
| Spanish | 0 | $0 \%$ | 1 | $5 \%$ |
| Total Numbers | 12 in total | $100 \%$ | 19 in total | $100 \%$ |

In regards to the English knowledge of the parents, there were six options to choose, which were 'no knowledge of English', 'basic', 'sufficient', 'good', 'fluent' or 'perfect'. In Lower Austria one quarter valued their English knowledge as basic, 42 \% as sufficient and a third said their English was good. In Upper Austria, 5 \% estimated their English to be on a basic level, about a fifth said to have sufficient knowledge, 37 \% said they were good, 32 \% fluent and 5 \% perfect. The graph below shows that the number of parents who chose the option 'good' is almost equal. However, all other levels of proficiency differed in their rating. While significantly more parents of the MP said to have 'basic' knowledge than parents of the BP, it could be seen that no parents of the MP chose the option 'fluent' which was the second highest rated option for the BP. Generally, parents of the BP rated their English skills significantly higher than parents of the MP.


Fig. 8 Parents' English proficiency

The next item asked for a ranking of the importance of English for the parents in their in their job and private life. The results are displayed in the following two graphs, where 1 means 'very important' and 5 'not important'.


Fig. 9 Importance of $E$ in job

As can be seen in this bar chart, the importance of English in the parents' jobs shows an opposite ranking from those of the MP to those of the BP. For the majority of parents of the MP, English was not important in the job at all, whereas for parents of the BP it was not important for the minority. Most parents of the BP saw English as very important in their job.


Fig. 10 Importance of $E$ in private life
The importance of English in private life showed a rather similar structure for the parents of both institutions. The biggest difference was between the ranking of two and three, which equalled 'important' or 'so-so'. Nearly as many parents regarded English as important in their private life in both institutions. All parents of the BP needed English in their private life, whereas one of the parents of the MP said that he or she would not need it at all.

The last point of interest was the educational status of the parents. Options were given to choose, such as 'Pflichtschule', 'AHS/BHS Matura', 'Fachhochschule', ‘Lehre', ‘Fachschule’, 'Akademie/Kolleg', 'Universität' and 'Other'. The succeeding graphs 'Fig. 11' and 'Fig. 12' display the answers of the parents.


Fig. 11 Education of parents MP

Fig. 12 Education of parents BP

As can be seen from the graphs, most parents of the BP studied at University, whereas most parents of the MP graduated at AHS/BHS or absolved a vocational training ('Lehre'). Generally, the parents of the BP are higher educated than the parents of the MP.

### 7.3.3. Teachers

Two teachers participated in a semi-guided interview in order to give information on their personal attitude towards ELL. Hence, the teachers and institutions which they worked at will be introduced shortly.

## Monolingual Playschool

The MP is a public kindergarten in a rural area of Lower Austria. Three teachers lead three age-heterogenous groups, each with one assistant in addition. There are approximately 25 children per group who are of mixed sex and age from three to six years. Additionally, there is the toddler-group with 12 children aged 2,5 years. English lessons are held once a week for half an hour with each group, except the toddler-group, individually.

The teacher interviewed is a native speaker of English as she was born in South Africa. She has no specific further education in pre-primary education or language teaching pedagogy but she is still studying for the Bachelor degree in general language studies in South Africa. This teacher is a mother of two children, who grew up bilingually. She works as an additional teacher in this kindergarten and is only there once a week when she teaches English to the children.

## Bilingual Playschool

The BP is a private kindergarten in the urban area of Upper Austria. Eleven teachers lead five groups in total, with two teachers per group. There are five groups, divided into three homogenous age groups called 'Beginners', 'Middle-Group’ and 'Advanced' and two mixed age groups from 2,5 to six years.

The teacher interviewed is the manager of the BP, Sunhild Huber-Schönfelder. She is an English teacher, kindergarten- and Montessori-pedagogue and has developed her own concept for the playschool she is leading, which was put together out of several different pedagogic theories.

## 8. Findings

In this chapter, the general findings of my research are described. The methods used for the evaluation are qualitative content analysis (Mayring 2010) for the interviews and descriptive statistics for the questionnaire.

### 8.1. Interview: Teachers' attitudes

Interviews about the motivation for being an English teacher for young children were conducted with one teacher in each institution, the MP and BP. The two teachers were asked about their attitudes toward ELL, their teaching methods and their experience with teaching English to children. Both teachers agreed to let me observe their lessons and record an interview with them which could be used for my research.

Teacher A has not studied pedagogics or related subjects and is a native speaker of English. She works in the monolingual kindergarten in Lower Austria as an English teacher. Teacher A was chosen by word-of-mouth-recommendation.

Teacher B has studied pedagogics and is the head of the BP in Upper Austria. She manages the playschool and also works as a teacher there. Teacher B was found online when I Googled 'bilingual playschool in Austria'.

The spoken interview material contained statements of two teachers, each with a different educational background working in two different institutions, about their personal attitudes towards ELL, motivation for teaching English to children, their teaching styles and methods and their personal experience. This was meaningful for this research, as the purpose was to find out personal motivation and attitudes of parents and teachers for young children to learn English in kindergarten. Teachers differed in many respects, but still their statements were comparable, as individual attitudes always vary. When asking about personal opinion, results would even be different if the respondents showed more similarities. Furthermore, the choice of contrasting institutions, and consequently teachers showing distinct background and characteristics, was taken on purpose in order to see the differences between the two institutions.

The teachers were encouraged to reflect the present learning situation in kindergarten and report on their previous, present and future work. According to the 'content analysis' model of Mayring (2010) the analysis should allow the author to draw conclusions from
the material about emotional and cognitive background of the respondents, and their performances as teachers. Therefore, the following research questions have emerged:

QU1: Which aim did the two teachers follow by teaching English to young children?
QU2: What was their personal motivation to teach English to children?
QU3: What was their personal attitude towards ELL?
QU4: Which influence of the L1 could the two teachers detect when children learned a foreign language?

QU5: Which method was, according to the two teachers, the most successful?
The most appropriate analysis technique for the purpose of this study was a content structuring analysis. This allowed the author to excerpt and summarize specific topics out of the material (Mayring 2010: 101). In order to do so, several steps needed to be taken. First, categories which were used to examine the material were defined. Second, the interview transcripts were searched for material according to those categories. Finally, the excerpted material was summarized.

In this study the categories have been defined by grouping the interview questions into topics that were of interest and complied with the research aim. Consequently, the following categories have been defined deductively from grouping the interview questions.

Table 2 Categories for content analysis

| Categories |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| C1 | impacts of multilingualism on child's language learning <br> behavior |
| C2 | motivation for being a teacher |
| C3 | personal attitude towards ELL |
| C4 | aim of ELL |
| C5 | influence of learners' age |
| C6 | permanence of advantages |
| C7 | methods for teaching |

Next, keyterms of categories were defined more closely. Additionally, codification rules were formulated which should allow to evaluate when material that was found in the text
fitted the categories. Anytime, the speakers talked about topics which could be assigned to the above defined categories, this material was relevant to the analysis and counted as an evaluation unit (Mayring 2010: 92). The smallest interpretable parts that could be assigned to a category were minimal information carrying elements which could theoretically be only one word or even a sigh or laughter. The largest interpretable part was defined as anything that could be assigned to one category (Mayring 2010: 105).

Definitions of keyterms and rules for codification of the respective category are displayed within the following 'table 3', after which the material was thoroughly searched for information for each category.

Table 3 Categories with definitions of keyterms and codification rules

| Cate | ories | Definition of keyterms | Codification rules |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C1 | influence of multilingualism on FLL | Multilingualism: <br> Is described as the proficiency in more than one mother tongue. <br> FLL: <br> "This refers to the learning of a language, usually in a classroom setting, in a context where the target language is not widely used in the community" (Lightbown \& Spada 2013: 217-218). | content needs to refer to either the L1 or a FL |
| C2 | motivation for being a teacher | Motivation: <br> Motivation is described as "human intentions, goals plans and commitments" (Ortega 2009: 168). | all aspects need to be related to the definition of personal motivation |
| C3 | personal attitude towards ELL | Attitude: <br> An attitude is "the set of beliefs which that person holds in relation to the language and culture in question." (Cook \& Singleton 2014: 92). <br> ELL: <br> Early Language Learning is designed for very young learners. "Young learners are only just beginning their schooling" (Brumfit 1991: V) and those learners are also addressed in this paper, who just begin their education in primary school. | all aspects have to correspond with a subjective, personal view |


| C4 | aim of ELL | Aim: <br> An aim is a goal one strives for, a result <br> one wants to reach. | all aspects must be <br> related to a future <br> expectation of the <br> outcome, to an aim |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C5 | influence of <br> learners age | Age: <br> Describes how old a human is, ranging <br> from zero up to 100 years | all aspects need to deal <br> with the age of learners |
| C6 | duration of <br> advantages | Advantages: <br> Advantages are outcomes that are <br> beneficial. | all aspects have to be <br> related to the time span <br> that advantages could <br> last according to the <br> teachers |
| C7 | methods for <br> teaching | Methods: <br> Can be described as ways of learning <br> and teaching. | all aspects have to do <br> with diverse teaching <br> methods or didactics <br> for foreign language <br> teaching or learning |

### 8.1.1. Interview A: monolingual playschool

The table showing relevant text passages found in interview A according to the categories is included in the appendix. In the following tables, the material was tied to the respective categories defined above, which were influence of multilingualism on a child's language learning behavior, motivation for being a teacher, personal attitude towards ELL, the aim of ELL, influence of learner's age, permanence of advantages and methods for teaching. At the same time, the material was summarized in two steps for each category. First, by generalizing and omitting material that was not directly relevant to the aim of the study and second, by a reduction to the most relevant content which is given below the tables as a final summary.

## C1 Influence of multilingualism

Table 4 Influence of multilingualism interview MP

| No | Page | Paraphrase | Generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.2 | sogar zweisprachige Kinder die <br> nehmen das auch schnell an | zweisprachige Kinder lernen schnell <br> eine weitere Sprache |
| 2 | p.2 | es gibt Unterschiede genauso wie <br> bei einsprachigen Kindern | individuelle Unterschiede |


| 3 | p.2 | Die kämpfen auch mit Deutsch und <br> dass es Mundart gibt, also das ist <br> auch wirklich nicht einfach, das <br> hört sich auch nicht so ähnlich an. <br> Es ist so wie ich finde es sind zwei <br> Sprachen. | Deutsch und Mundart sind zwei <br> Sprachen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | p.6 | eine Frau hat schon gesagt und das <br> verstehe ich auch, ihr Kind kämpft <br> schon mit Deutsch jetzt kommt <br> noch Englisch dazu ich weiß nicht, <br> es kommt auf das Kind an, manche <br> haben ein Talent für Sprachen und <br> manche nicht. | Probleme mit L2 und daher L3 nicht gut <br> individuelle Unterschiede |
| 5 | p.6 | einheimische Kinder brauchen <br> auch Unterstützung, aber das heißt <br> nicht jetzt, weil manche Deutsch <br> lernen müssen, dass die anderen <br> kein Englisch lernen sollen | individuelle Lernvoraussetzungen <br> nicht die gleichen Voraussetzungen für <br> alle |

The influence of multilingualism could be summarized for Teacher A as follows:
Multilingual children should be treated individually, just like monolinguals. Some learn quickly and some have problems. If children of another L1 than German have troubles with the German language, they should not learn another FL. However, children who don't have any troubles with another L2 can learn English.

## C2 Motivation for being a teacher

Table 5 Motivation for being a teacher interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.1 | es ist die einzige Arbeit die ich <br> machen kann hier ohne <br> Ausbildung weil ich Englisch <br> spreche | Job nur wegen native speaker |
| 2 | p.1 | Uhrzeit von 8 bis 11 passt auch, <br> weil meine Kinder dann kurz <br> danach von der Schule abgeholt <br> werden müssen | Uhrzeit ist angenehm |
| 3 | p.1 | interessant war es für mich auch <br> zu sehen, wie Kinder Sprachen <br> lernen | interessant, wie Kinder Sprachen lernen |
| 4 | p. 1 | weil ich das (Anmk: Linguistik) <br> auch studiert habe | Bezug zum Studium und eigenen <br> Interessen |

Teacher A's motivation for becoming a FL teacher in kindergarten was rather extrinsic. It was influenced by missing options and convenient working times. Also, the teacher stated interest in ELL.

## C3 Personal attitude towards ELL

Table 6 Personal attitude interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.6 | ich finde es passt, verkehrt kann <br> es nicht wirklich sein | nicht falsch |
| 2 | p.6 | Kindergartentag ist glaub ich <br> mittlerweile ganz schön hart weil <br> die auch viel zu tun haben, da ist <br> viel Programm. | KDG ist aufgrund von vielem Programm <br> hart für die Kinder |
| 3 | p.6 | da ist es ein Wahnsinn, die haben <br> wirklich immer Studentinnen <br> dort und die Kinder müssen <br> immer verschiedenen Leuten <br> zuhören also auf verschiedene <br> Leute hören und ja aber ich finde <br> es nicht schlecht. | Kinder sind sozialer Reizüberflutung <br> ausgesetzt, trotzdem ist eine zusätzliche <br> Sprache im KDG nicht schlecht |
| 4 | p.6 | es ist nicht schlecht aber <br> zwingend notwendig ist das auch <br> nicht, die lernen es sowieso in der <br> Schule denke ich | nicht unbedingt notwendig im KDG |

The material about teacher A's personal attitude towards ELL could be reduced to the teacher not seeing ELL as a must. Children have to accomplish several tasks in kindergarten and have to deal with several social stimuli which is hard. Despite this, having additional English lessons is not bad. To summarize, ELL is not absolutely necessary but basically good.

## C4 Aim of ELL

Table 7 Aim of ELL interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.5 | sie sollen schon Spaß haben | Spaß |
| 2 | p.5 | hauptsache die Sprache ist nicht <br> fremd | mit der Sprache vertraut sein |


| 3 | p. 5 | dass die Kinder den Eltern auch zuhause sagen wie die Sachen heißen, das ist nicht mein Ziel das ist irgendwie ein Pluspunkt aber Ziel ist einfach, dass die Sprache nicht fremd ist | Kinder verwenden Englisch um Objekte auf Englisch zu beschreiben |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | p. 5 | sie sollen auch finde ich kein Englisch sprechen können danach weil das ist keine Schule | kein Ziel, Englisch sprechen zu können |
| 5 | p. 6 | ich würde erwarten dass die Kinder in der Schule besser sind | bessere Leistungen in der Schule |
| 6 | p. 6 | Englisch wird auf der ganzen Welt gesprochen und die Kinder sollen die Sprache kennenlernen | Weltsprache |
| 7 | p. 6 | wenn die Kinder das wirklich sprechen sollen dann müssen sie viel mehr dann und das reicht nicht jeden Tag eine halbe Stunde, dann müssen sie viel mehr und öfter. | Zeit im KDG nicht ausreichend für flüssiges Sprechen |
| 8 | p. 6 | das würde ich schon sagen, dass es Vorteile gibt | Vorteile vorhanden |
| 9 | p. 7 | spätestens in der Schule werden sie sehen, dass es doch was bringt und die werden sich auch vielleicht daran erinnern | Vorteile in der Schule |
| 10 | p. 7 | die werden sich sicher fühlen in der Schule dann | Gefühl der Sicherheit, Selbstvertrauen |
| 11 | p. 7 | man merkt schon, dass sie sich irgendwas zusammensetzen damit sie sich dann erinnern können also überhaupt wie man denkt, wie das Gehirn benutzt wird, das ist schon von Vorteil | logisches Denken wird gefördert |
| 12 | p. 7 | das eigenständige Erkennen, was ist schon da, was kann ich mit neuem verknüpfen | eigenständiges  <br> Verknüpfen Erkennen und |

The teacher mentioned several aims of ELL. Children should have fun, become familiar with the language but not necessarily speak it fluently. Some children used the language at home to show what they can say. This showed self-confidence. Additionally, children were expected to achieve better results at school and improve their logical reasoning skills.

## C5 Influence of learners' age

Table 8 Influence of learners' age interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.4 | also in der Kleinkindergruppe ist es <br> auch neu für mich, dass ich mit ihnen <br> was mache und das mit den zwei <br> Gruppen hätte nicht funktioniert. | Methoden sind altersabhängig |
| 2 | p.4 | sie würden nicht verstehen worum <br> es geht mit den Punkten und sie sind <br> jetzt unter drei | Kleinkinder unter 3 Jahren verstehen <br> System nicht |

The age of the children influences ELL according to teacher A. Methods must be chosen according to the age of the learners as toddlers cannot understand complex systems.

## C6 Persistence of advantages

Table 9 Persistence of advantages interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.7 | das könnte länger anhalten, weil <br> wenn man es schon dort benutzt <br> kann man es wo anders benutzen <br> und so geht es hindurch die ganze <br> Zeit, dann baut es sich vielleicht <br> später weiter auf | Vorteile des frühen Spracherwerbs <br> dauern lange an und sind auch in <br> anderen Bereichen sichtbar |

According to teacher A, the advantages of ELL are long-lasting and also influence other skills than language learning.

## C7 Methods for teaching FL

Table 10 Teaching methods interview MP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.3 | ich habe so einen Stempel das ist der <br> good stamp, wenn die zuhören dann <br> kriegen die den Stempel und sie <br> strengen sich wirklich an | Belohnungssystem fördert Mitarbeit |
| 2 | p.3 | wenn man solche Spiele spielt und <br> die in zwei Gruppen sitzen, die <br> wollen gewinnen und dann strengen <br> sie sich an | Spiele in zwei Gruppen sind abhängig <br> von Kampfgeist und Mitarbeit |


| 3 | p. 4 | die gleichen Sachen also die gleichen Spiele aber mit anderen Wörtern immer weil es eben länger dauert bis alle verstehen was gemeint ist | gleiche Spiele mit anderen Wörtern |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | p. 4 | das bringt auch nicht viel wenn die Kinder jetzt viele verschiedene Lieder lernen sollen und sie können es aber nicht ordentlich | besser wenige Lieder, dafür gut beherrscht |
| 5 | p. 4 | seit ein paar Wochen haben wir ein anderes Lied weil da sind auch Wörter drin die man braucht, mit den Bewegungen halt und das up down das braucht man ja sowieso und mit den Wörtern kann man dann sit down stand up oder solche Sachen machen, es baut sich immer auf | Lieder mit Bewegung verknüpft |
| 6 | p. 4 | ich für mich persönlich denke, dass singen am besten ist | Singen ist am Besten |
| 7 | p. 4 | und da sind auch die Bewegungen mit drin beim Lied | Bewegungen im Lied |
| 8 | p. 4 | weil ich glaube wenn es eine Melodie hat das ist wie ein Ohrwurm | Melodie wie Ohrwurm |
| 9 | p. 4 | da kommt man auch auf die Wörter drauf durch den Rhythmus der Lieder | Rhythmus hilft beim Vokabellernen |
| 10 | p. 4 | die Kinder für die ist die Bewegung auch wichtig | Bewegung wichtig |
| 11 | p. 4 | die bleiben hartnäckig im Spiel, das ist wieder der Wettbewerb da strengen sie sich richtig an | Wettbewerb motiviert Kinder |
| 12 | p. 5 | also es hängt auch mit dem Interesse vom Kind zusammen also ich kann nur ich kann es machen und ob die es annehmen oder nicht das kann ich nicht beeinflussen | abhängig von Interesse des Kindes, kein Einfluss der Lehrperson auf Annahme der Sprache |
| 13 | p. 5 | die Spiele sollen nicht zu lange dauern | kurze Spiele |
| 14 | p. 5 | sie brauchen viel Abwechslung | Abwechslung |
| 15 | p. 5 | Belohnung ist ganz wichtig und diese competition Sachen sind auch sehr gut für die Motivation | Belohnungssystem und Wettbewerb gut für Motivation |

Teacher A stated about teaching methods, that rewards and competition are motivating. The best method would be songs combined with movement, as rhythm helps to memorize vocabulary. She stated that it was better to teach less content, but what was taught should be trained more intensively. However, how much a child takes in depends on the individual interests and skills of a child and can hardly be influenced by the teacher.

### 8.1.2. Interview $B$ : bilingual playschool

The table showing relevant text passages found in interview B according to the categories is included in the appendix. In the following tables, the material was again tied to the respective categories and summarized in two steps for each category. Statements were reduced to the most relevant content which is given below the tables as a final summary.

## C1 Influence of multilingualism

Table 11 Influence of multilingualism interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | p. 1 | Es gibt Kinder, die schon von Geburt an zweisprachig erzogen werden und hier lernen sie halt eine dritte Sprache und es gibt überhaupt kein Problem | kein Problem von multilingualen Kindern beim Erlernen einer weiteren FL |
| 2 | p. 2 | Je nach Intelligenz des Kindes lernt es innerhalb kürzester Zeit Deutsch oder Englisch je nachdem zu welcher Sprache es mehr persönlich tendiert | Intelligenz und individuelles Interesse bestimmen, wie schnell und was ein Kind lernt |
| 3 | p. 8 | Die haben einen wesentlich besseren deutschen Ausdruck wie gleichaltrige nur deutschsprachige Kinder weil wir eine sehr gute Artikulation haben und der Ausdruck ist dadurch dass wir Englisch reden viel besser im Deutschen, das sie ja dann im Alter von fünf-sechs zu differenzieren anfangen. | multilinguale <br> besseren <br> monolinguale Kinder <br> Ausdruck haben <br> als <br>    |

According to teacher B , there is no problem in learning multiple languages at the same time. Learning success depends on individual interest and intelligence.

## C2 Motivation for being a teacher

Table 12 Motivation for being a teacher interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.1 | Ich bin auf die Welt gekommen um <br> diese Spielschule zu übernehmen von <br> meiner Mutter und es ist schon in <br> frühen Kindesjahren zu meiner <br> Leidenschaft geworden | leidenschaftliche Nachfolgerin der |
| Mutter |  |  |  |

Teacher B's motivation to do this job is intrinsic as she called herself a passionate successor of her mother, who built up this playschool.

## C3 Personal attitude towards ELL

Table 13 Personal attitude interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.1 | Man kann nie früh genug eine Sprache <br> lernen | nie früh genug |
| 2 | p.1 | Bis zu fünf Sprachen können Kinder <br> gleichzeitig lernen und es ist Humbug <br> wenn Psychologen sagen sie sollen <br> zuerst einmal Deutsch sprechen <br> können und dann eine Fremdsprache | fünf Sprachen gleichzeitig sind kein <br> Problem, ein vorheriges fundiertes <br> Kenntnis der Muttersprache ist <br> nicht notwendig |

In teacher B's personal view, ELL can never happen early enough. Also, previous exact knowledge of the mother tongue is not necessary for successful foreign language learning.

## C4 Aim of ELL

Table 14 Aim of ELL interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.2 | sie sprechen diese Sprache und <br> übersetzen den Großeltern die das <br> nicht lesen können nicht sprechen <br> können alles | Kinder übersetzen Englisch in die L1 <br> der Großeltern |
| 2 | p.4 | ich kann, ich hilf mir es selbst zu tun | Eigenständigkeit |
| 3 | p.4 | die Kinder das Selbstvertrauen <br> kriegen | Selbstvertrauen |


| 4 | p.4 | Ich kann es selbst, ich bin wer, ich bin <br> was, das ist etwas das wir den <br> Kindern im Leben einfach mitgeben <br> weil da gehen sie in die Welt hinaus <br> und kommen in die Schule | Selbstvertrauen für die Welt und <br> Schule |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 5 | p.4 | Was sie mitnehmen fürs Leben das ist <br> ihnen überlassen den Kindern | tatsächlicher Lernerfolg abhängig <br> vom Kind |
| 6 | p.4 | Wir bereiten sie nicht auf die Schule <br> vor, natürlich auch ist eh klar, aber <br> auch auf das weitere Leben, dass sie <br> bestehen können | Vorbereitung auf Schule und Leben |
| 7 | p.4 | Unser Ziel ist es, die Kinder in zwei <br> Sprachen auf das weitere Leben <br> spielerisch in allen Bereichen aufs <br> Leben vorzubereiten | spielerische bilinguale Vorbereitung <br> auf das Leben |
| 8 | p.5 | können diese Sprache vor allem die <br> Aussprache | Beherrschung der Sprache und <br> Aussprache |

Concerning the aims of ELL, teacher B wants to raise autonomous behavior and selfconfidence of the children. This may be beneficial when children attend school later. Moreover, increased self-confidence prepares children for later life in general. A further aim is for the children to reach a higher level of proficiency in the language and pronunciation. However, it depends on the child how much language input is internalized, but some children reportedly used their knowledge to communicate in English with their families.

## C5 Influence of learners' age

Table 15 Influence of learners' age interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.1 | je früher man damit beginnt umso <br> besser ist es | je früher desto besser |
| 2 | p.2 | je später umso schlimmer und <br> schwieriger ist es weil die Kinder zum <br> Konstruieren anfangen, zu denken. Je <br> jünger sie sind so machen sie es <br> intuitiv im Unterbewusstsein und <br> umso leichter können sie es lernen | je später desto schwieriger weil <br> Intuition durch zu viel Denken <br> abgelöst wird |


| 3 | p.2 | ein Kind das in frühen Kindesjahren <br> also als Baby das hört das wird <br> einfach im Gehirn irgendwo wie in <br> einem Computer abgespeichert und <br> wenn man den Ordner dann wieder <br> findet später dann ist der sehr schnell <br> wieder abrufbar | hören der Sprache als Baby hat <br> langfristige Wirkung |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | p.8 | Drum stehen auch die Kleinen dort, <br> lernen das jetzt, die stehen mal nur <br> dort weil sie mal nur schauen wollen <br> wie das geht, aber wir könnten 50 <br> solche Lieder singen auch mit denn <br> die können das auch die Kleinen | jüngere Lerner möchten erst <br> beobachten aber nehmen die Inhalte <br> wahr |

Teacher B was convinced that the earlier a child starts learning a FL, the better it is because of intuitive characteristics of their subconscious. This will later get replaced by rational thinking which hinders language acquisition.

## C6 Persistence of advantages

Table 16 Persistence of advantages interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.2 | es geht nie verloren | Vorteile bleiben für immer |

According to teacher B, advantages developing out of ELL are ever-lasting.

## C7 Methods for teaching FL

Table 17 Teaching methods interview BP

| Nr. | page | paraphrase | generalisation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | p.4 | dass die Kinder einfach learning by <br> doing haben | 'learning by doing' |
| 2 | p.4 | das ist Spaß gleich mal in der Früh <br> Bewegung zu haben, singen zu dürfen | Spaß an der Bewegung und dem <br> Singen |
| 3 | p.4 | musikalisch Grammatik zu lernen | musikalisches Erlernen der <br> Grammatik |
| 4 | p.4 | Vokabeln spielerisch zu erarbeiten | spielerisches Erlernen der Vokabeln |
| 5 | p.7 | Waldausgänge weil wir keinen Garten <br> haben, wir gehen gezielt hinaus | gezielte Waldausgänge |
| 6 | p.8 | singen, bewegen und neues auffassen | singen mit Bewegung |


| 7 | p.8 | mit drei Sinnen arbeiten das ist schon <br> sehr viel für Kinder | Arbeiten mit vielen Sinnen strengt <br> Kinder an |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 8 | p.8 | aber es ist alles im Spiel | spielerisch |

The best methods for teacher B were singing combined with movement, fun, musical learning of grammar and playful learning of vocabulary. However, she stated that working with diverse senses and skills at the same time exhausts children. Therefore, a playful learning setting and fun are important.

Finally, in order to provide a clear overview of the teachers' attitudes, the answers for each research question introduced at the beginning of this chapter are compared briefly.

QU1: Which aim did the two teachers follow by teaching English to young children?
Teacher A wanted children to get in touch with the language slowly. She did not strive for a fluent speaking of the language, but rather for a playful atmosphere. On the contrary, teacher B mentioned the aim of reaching a higher proficiency in the language and pronunciation in particular.

Both teachers spoke about a rise in self-confidence of the children, and an expectation of better performance at school. Additionally, both teachers reported on children who used their language skills to translate for their parents or grandparents, or to communicate with their families.

QU2: What was their personal motivation to teach English to children?
Personal motivation of both teachers differ, as teacher A was extrinsically motivated, while teacher B's motivation was intrinsic. While teacher B spoke about her passion as a manager of the playschool, teacher A mentioned only convenience factors.

## QU3: What was their personal attitude towards ELL?

The teachers' personal attitudes showed the greatest divergence. On the one hand, teacher A showed a mild attitude towards the necessity of ELL. She did not regard ELL as obligatory in order to achieve good results later, but as a basically good idea. On the other hand, teacher B spoke in clear favour of ELL by stating that a child can never learn a language early enough.

QU4: Which influence of the L1 could the two teachers detect when children learned a foreign language?

Opinions of both teachers differed again in this question. While teacher A reported on worries about FLL when children have troubles with their mother tongue, teacher B negated the need of previous perfect knowledge of the mother tongue.

## QU5: Which method was, according to the two teachers, the most successful?

Both teachers spoke in favor of music combined with movement, in order to memorize vocabulary. While teacher A reported on the success of competition games and the motivating influence of rewards, teacher B stressed the importance of a playful learning environment.

Although there was no research question formulated on the topic of individuality of the learners, it should be pointed out that both teachers stated that learning success depends on the individual interests and skills or intelligence of a child.

Next, the results of the questionnaires are evaluated and described. After that, an interpretation of the research results of both interviews and questionnaires follows.

### 8.2. Questionnaire: Parents' beliefs

Questionnaires, which were distributed to the parents in both institutions, asked the parents about motivation for letting their child learn English, beliefs in the critical age hypothesis, persistence of advantages of ELL, methods, frequency of English input, expected advantages regarding the child's future in general as well as advantages expected for detailed language skills such as vocabulary, pronunciation or grammar. In this chapter, an evaluation of the questionnaires is given, and graphs and charts illustrate the findings.

The number of all participants amounted to 31. In the BP in Upper Austria 19 out of 23 and in the MP in Lower Austria 12 out of 19 parents filled in and returned the questionnaire.

In both pre-schools, all parents wanted their child to learn English because they thought children learned 'the earlier the better', it was helpful for their future and they had to learn English anyway at a later stage, so it would be easier for them later.

As shown in the graphs below, 16 out of 19 parents of the children attending the BP thought that their child would acquire knowledge in English which could not be achieved when they started learning English later. In the MP, seven parents believed in the existence of a Critical Age Period and five parents didn't.


Fig. 13 Critical age MP


Fig. 14 Critical age BP

Moreover, parents were asked at which age they thought one should start learning English the latest in order to achieve excellent results later. The majority of parents in both schools stated that the best age to start learning English was between three and six. In the BP in Upper Austria, 53 \% chose the option '3-6 years’ whereas in the MP in Lower Austria this figure was even higher with $67 \%$. The age of one to three years as the best time for learning a foreign language was chosen by a third of the parents in Upper Austria and a quarter of the parents in Lower Austria. Three parents in Upper Austria stated that they thought the critical period happened between six and nine years, which in Lower Austria only one person said. Nobody chose an older age which meant that none of the parents thought the best age for ELL would be above nine years.

Concerning the influence of ELL, parents of the children attending the BP generally thought that ELL would be influential on the child's life. About a third of all parents believed in a long-term influence even until adulthood. Only three out of 19 thought that the influence would last until secondary school, just as many thought until primary school and one person said that there was no influence at all. Compared to those findings, parents of children attending the MP in Lower Austria stated basically the same. Overall, those findings showed a similar trend in both playschools. Only one parent of each institution stated not to believe in any influence of ELL on a child's life. The difference in numbers
between MP and BP for short-term advantages were negligible. However, the figures for the belief in advantages that would last until adulthood seemed striking. In both playschools, the belief in long-term benefits was significantly higher than that of shortterm advantages.


Fig. 15 Belief in duration of influence on child's life
In the next question about ELL methods, multiple selection was possible. Parents were asked to name the methods through which their children learned English in addition to kindergarten.

As a general impression, children attending the BP were more exposed to English input than children of the MP. While in Upper Austria, 62 crosses were made in this question, in Lower Austria there were only 25.

Most of the children attending the MP were learning English through music as parents ticked this method nine times. Second came speaking English at home and using storybooks with three ticks each. The least popular methods were TV or radio and playing games. Reading out or telling stories, using pedagogic learning materials or attending further pre-school courses were not mentioned at all.

For the children attending the BP music was also popular with 9 ticks, but TV and Radio were leading methods with 13 nominations. Reading to children or telling stories, using storybooks and speaking English at home were just as popular as the use of music. Playing games or cards had five ticks and one child had a nanny, one had English speaking friends and one child attended an additional pre-school English course or used special English learning materials.


Fig. 16 Preferred ELL methods by parents
The next figure shows how parents practiced English at home with their children. Here, multiple selection was possible.

The parents asked in Upper Austria preferred singing songs and question-answer scenarios. The second most popular method was translating single words, followed by translating sentences and speaking English in a specific context such as in the bathroom, while cooking, or at the zoo. Some parents added the use of movies for children, for example TV spots for children, Youtube, or specific homepages. Also, some read to their children or simply chatted at home.

Parents asked in Lower Austria preferred translating single words with 92 \%. About half of the parents liked singing songs with their children. Least popular were questionanswer scenarios or translating sentences. None of the parents selected speaking English in a specific context.


Fig. 17 Methods for practicing $E$ at home

Another question was how often the children were confronted with the English language apart from playschool. The answers 'every day', 'once a week', 'once a month', 'not at all' and 'other' were possible.

The majority of parents in Upper Austria stated that their children were facing the English language once a day in addition to kindergarten. In Lower Austria, most parents said their child was not confronted with English outside of kindergarten at all. While in the BP all children were said to face English outside of kindergarten regularly, children attending the MP were to a significant extent not confronted with English at all. Therefore, these claims showed significant differences for the two 'extremes' which were 'not at all' and 'every day'. Even more striking seemed, as shown in figure 15, that the bars for the choices of 'every day' and 'never' are inverse for the BP and MP. Noteworthy is, that the children attending the BP were in contact with English every day for several hours already when attending kindergarten, while children of the MP only practiced English for half an hour once a week. Consequently, the majority of children attending the BP were already facing English every day and additionally learned, heard or spoke English somewhere outside of kindergarten every day. On the contrary, the children attending the MP faced unsteady contact with English in the playschool, and outside of kindergarten there was no contact either. Therefore, it could be assumed that the children of the BP would have a significant higher level of proficiency in English than the children of the MP. Moreover, the interest of parents for making their children familiar with the English language was apparently higher for the BP.


Fig. 18 Frequency of contact with $E$ outside of kindergarten

The next graph shows the visualisation of the answers for the reasons why children should learn English. In this question, multiple answers were possible.

In Upper Austria, 16 parents out of 19 thought that ELL would have a positive impact on learning further languages. 13 parents said it was important for general further education. 12 adults believed their child should learn English because languages were important. About half of the parents hoped for benefits in their children's future career and as many said that ELL was good for having fun or because languages were interesting. Four parents hoped for their children to be more competitive because of ELL and nearly as many said it would influence the acquisition of the mother tongue in a positive way.

For all parents asked in Lower Austria, a reason for wanting their children to learn English was that languages were important. Nine parents hoped it would have a positive impact on learning further languages, five parents said it was important for future education, nearly as many said for having fun and because languages were interesting. Two parents thought about their children's future career and one said it was good for the child to learn English at a young age in order to be more competitive.

In comparison, the trends for both playschools were similar. Differences could be seen in parents of the BP focusing more on the children's future career and education while parents of the MP rather spoke for the general importance of English. All other differences in numbers were negligible.


Fig. 19 Reasons for ELL given by parents

The last topic included in the evaluation addressed the expectation of advantages from ELL. This was divided into two parts. The first question allowed multiple selection and covered the advantages parents expected generally, such as more success at school, future career or higher intelligence. The second question went into more detail asking for how many advantages parents expected in diverse skills such as reading, pronunciation or grammar, for example. In this more detailed question, parents had to rate a scale of five options from 'no advantages at all' up to 'a great many' for each skill. First, the answers to the question 'If you expect advantages because of ELL: which ones?' are illustrated below in 'Fig. 20'.

In Upper Austria, most parents expected advantages in general language development, followed closely by easier acquisition of other languages some time later in life. Third most popular was intellectual or mental development followed by better general education and profiting from advantages in a later profession. Half of the parents expected better achievements at school especially in English as a subject. Nearly as many parents hoped for their children to profit from general advantages in adulthood. Only four out of 19 parents thought for their children to improve their social skills through ELL, three expected higher intelligence, two hoped for better achievements at school in other languages and only one stated to expect an improvement of the child's achievements at school in diverse subjects. One parent chose the option 'other' and added the advantage of having less pressure in secondary school because of previous knowledge. In total, 84 ticks were made in this question, which meant that on average, each parent expected advantages in 4,5 areas.

In Lower Austria, most parents hoped for better achievements at school in English, followed by general advantages in adulthood, better general education and easier acquisition of other languages at a later stage. About half of the parents hoped for better intellectual development and advantages in the child's later job. Three out of 12 expected better achievements at school in other languages and in diverse subjects at the same time. Only two parents expected higher intelligence, one believed in the better development of social skills and one parent used the 'other'-option to add better conversational skills on holiday or abroad. In sum, 58 ticks were made which added to an average expectation of advantages in 4,8 areas. Therefore, parents of the MP expected more advantages from ELL than parents of the BP.


Fig. 20 Expected advantages from ELL by parents
This figure shows that the expectation of advantages differed between both playschools only for the most popular choice. The expectation of better performance at school in English was given double as much in the MP. Parents of the BP rather focused on advantages in general development. For all other options, a similarity of choices in both institutions could be reported. Results showed the same least popular options for MP and BP, which were performance at school in diverse subjects and other languages, improvement of social skills, and higher intelligence.

The answers for the second and more detailed question are illustrated below in 'Fig. 21' and 'Fig. 22'. This question asked for a rating of the intensity of advantages in diverse skills.

First, the results of the parents of children attending the MP in Lower Austria are given. They expected the most advantages in the pronunciation of their children. None of the 12 parents selected 'no' or 'little' advantages in this area. The skills which were least expected to show benefits were spelling and reading. Generally, parents expected most advantages for listening, usage of words, and interaction in the English language.


Fig. 21 Expected skills by parents of MP
Second, the graph for parents of the children attending the BP in Upper Austria is shown. The most striking skill was pronunciation too, for which 17 out of 19 parents ticked the expectation of 'a great many' advantages. Two out of 19 chose 'many' advantages and none of the parents expected less. Second most popular were enlargement of vocabulary, correct usage of words and sentences, and listening. Parents expected the least advantages in spelling, for which eight parents expected no advantages at all and only one 'a great many'.


Fig. 22 Expected skills by parents of BP

In sum, all parents showed high expectations from ELL. The least benefit was expected in the skill of 'spelling' and the most in 'pronunciation' for parents of both institutions. While about $90 \%$ of the BP hoped for an improvement in pronunciation, only $50 \%$ of the MP indicated expected benefits. Parents of the MP hoped for more development in social skills than parents of the BP.

### 8.3. Summary of findings

In this chapter, an overview of all findings of the research is given. The results of the questionnaire and the interviews are combined and interpreted. Also, the assumptions which were developed at the beginning of this chapter are evaluated in light of the research result and other studies.

### 8.3.1. Interpretation of the research result

On the whole, the majority of parents shared the same expectations and reasons for ELL, although there were some differences to be seen between educational status, and rural and urban areas. Generally, all parents responded positively and supported the initiative of ELL but especially in the urban area of Linz, the waiting list for the BP was extremely long with waiting times of more than two years. This shows that a large number of parents wanted to send their children to learning groups with a main focus on ELL such as the BP, with specialized personnel and intense teaching, combined with high costs. In the rural area, the parents didn't show as much excitement for ELL. This could be the case because in rural areas there was less choice of institutions and so the parents didn't think about this possibility as much. Moreover, it could be recognized that the parents sending their children to the BP, were better educated than the parents of the children in the public kindergarten. It could be concluded that people of higher education may see more importance in early intensive education and want their children to achieve a higher position in later life. Accordingly, the motivation and expectation of a positive influence of intensive ELL was apparently higher with the BP-parents, than with those in the monolingual kindergarten.

The teachers interviewed were different in terms of their education and motivation for being English teachers of very young children. Therefore, it could be assumed that the better educated and intrinsically motivated teacher of the BP had a better proficiency level for teaching young children. Her professional knowledge overall was solid and
greater than that of the native-speaker teaching in the MP. Hence, their statements differed in terms of the degree of certainty of what was said. The teacher of the BP showed much more confidence in her opinion than the teacher of the MP. Within their statements there were differences as well as accordance. Both teachers said that after all effort put into teaching, it depends on the children how much they will learn. Also, both teachers reported on children using English to communicate with their families and using their knowledge at home. It could be concluded, that children generally are proud of their knowledge and want to show what they can, regardless of the intensity and frequency of English language input. Views differed, however, in terms of the influence of other foreign languages. Teacher B, the manager of the BP, was convinced that a child could learn multiple languages at a time without any problems. She even said that children should learn as much as possible at a very young age. The more they learn, the better. Teacher A, on the other hand, showed uncertainty of this matter, as she uttered sympathy with a mother who did not want her child to learn English, as the child's mother tongue was other than German. The child therefore would have learned two second languages at a time, which would not be absolutely necessary. Teacher A said that ELL was basically good, but if children didn't learn a language very early, that was fine as well.

### 8.3.2. Interpretation of assumptions

In this section, the seven assumptions introduced earlier in this chapter are interpreted with the results of the given research.

1. Selected parents in Austria want their children to learn English early.

The research results supported this assumption. All parents who participated in the research wanted their children to learn English early. Parents also agreed on the reasons for supporting ELL. The three most frequently chosen arguments in the questionnaire for both institutions were that children would profit from ELL in their future education, that languages are important and that it has positive influence on learning other languages.
2. Selected parents in Austria want their children to learn English in a professional way rather than at home.

This assumption was partly applicable. It could be seen from the answers in the questionnaire about preferred learning methods, that parents of the BP preferred a professional setting to learning at home. The options to read books, speak English at
home, use modern media or tell stories were chosen a lot, but also sending children to an English-playgroup in addition to kindergarten, using special English learning materials or even an English-speaking nanny were common methods for those parents. This differed a lot from the parents of the MP. None of them chose the option of specialized English learning materials, an English-speaking nanny or another pre-school English course. This difference was not surprising, as the BP is a professional English-teaching institution which is different from a public kindergarten. Parents need to sign up their children very early and show strong motivation for their children to go to the bilingual playschool in order to enjoy special education. It could be assumed that the parents deliberately sending their children to a professional language-focussing institution had a stronger wish for professional language learning than parents of a public kindergarten.
3. Parents expect ELL to provide a long-lasting advantage in diverse aspects of their child's life.

One item of the questionnaire asked for how long early English learning will influence a person's life. Results were similar in both institutions, therefore they were not evaluated separately, but jointly.

Twenty out of 31 parents chose the benefits to be of long duration up until adulthood. Only two people indicated that they didn't think it would have an influence at all, neither for a short time nor in the long-run. Five parents said that they think early English learning would only have a short-term-influence on a child's life until primary school and four parents thought it would last until secondary school. This result showed that this hypothesis could be partly supported because only the narrow majority of $65 \%$ expected a long-lasting advantage.
4. The most popular method for teaching English to young children is singing.

This assumption is true for this study. As evaluated above, both teachers stated singing as their favourite method. With regard to parents of the BP, the majority also stated singing as a preferred method. Parents of the MP preferred translating words, followed by singing songs together.
5. Teachers want children to start language learning as early as possible

Teacher A, working in the MP, regarded ELL as good but not compulsory in order to achieve good results at a later stage, whereas teacher B was absolutely convinced of the
importance of learning a foreign language as early as possible. On the whole, teachers wanted children to start language learning as early as possible, but little variation could be seen in how strong this attitude was.
6. Teachers find their motivation for teaching English to young learners in the emerging benefits in not only linguistic but diverse skills for the children

This assumption could not be supported with the given research results. Teachers definitely saw the aim of ELL in various emerging benefits, however, this was not their motivation for being a teacher. Teacher A found her motivation in the convenience of working times. Additionally, she called her work in kindergarten an interesting job for earning her living. Teacher B grew up with the bilingual playschool and has seen herself determined to do this job since her childhood. Moreover, she described herself as a successful business woman, following the profession of her mother who set up the concept of the bilingual playschool.
7. Teachers believe in the critical age hypothesis

Teaches believed in the critical age hypothesis, but again, the opinion of the teachers asked in this research varied as one shared this opinion stronger than the other. While teacher B was convinced that the earlier foreign language learning takes place the better, teacher A said that it wouldn't matter if children started learning a foreign language at primary school instead of kindergarten.

To summarize, two assumptions out of seven found full support, four were partly confined and one had to be dismissed. Assumptions 1 and 4, dealing with whether parents in Austria wanted their children to learn English and the claim that the most popular teaching method was singing, count as confirmed for this study.

Assumption 6, stating that teachers find their motivation in the benefits a child can enjoy from early language learning, was not supported. The results were different from what I expected beforehand. One teacher admitted having chosen this job only because of lacking perspectives. The other teacher was intrinsically motivated, but still did not find her motivation in offering benefits for the children, but in offering options to the children from which they could learn, if they wanted. Also, she focused on the present learning situation rather than the future of the children. However, focussing on the future of their offspring is what parents absolutely do according to this research.

Assumptions 2, 3, 5 and 7 were not that easy to apply as results were quite marginal or open for interpretation. Those assumptions claimed that parents want their children to be taught English professionally rather than learning the language at home, parents expect a long-lasting advantage of ELL, teachers want children to start learning a language as early as possible and teachers believe in the critical age hypothesis. The vast majority of parents supported the idea of teaching English to children before school and the belief in a critical age hypothesis could be found, even if views varied a little. However, I was surprised by the eagerness of some parents to strive for a future career of their children, even if they were aged three or four years only. Possibly this view came out too strong, as the questionnaire directly asked for this attitude of parents. Nevertheless, motivation of parents for their child to be successful in future cannot be negated. Apart from the deviating result for teachers' motivation described above, the research results met the expectations I had beforehand on the whole.

### 8.3.3. Comparison with theory

By comparing the study to the theory, the following observations should be pointed out. Parents expect much from ELL, which is shown in the theory as well as in the study. This could be seen in the evaluation of the question in which areas parents see advantages of ELL. In sum, 12 categories were provided to choose and multiple selection was possible. The 31 parents made 142 crosses in this question in sum. This means, that all parents together hoped for much positive influence of ELL. This is in accordance with existing theory, stating that parents generally regard ELL as useful (Blondin et al. 1998: 28). Parents indicated to have the highest expectations in improved pronunciation skills resulting from pre-school English classes. Again, theory states the same by describing great benefits of pronunciation due to ELL (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 137). Studies about ELL have shown diverse further advantages such as higher cognitive, linguistic, academic, mental and creative skills (Buttaroni 2000: 71). Also, children are said to benefit from better performance at school, advantages in social life and increased income (Morrow 2005: 7).

Children are very proud of every single language they speak (Krumm \& Jenkins 2001: 42). Similarly, teachers in this study reported on children who used their English language skills to show what they know at home, or to translate for their parents or grandparents. Sharing knowledge appeals to the social behaviour of children (Morrow 2005: 7).

Therefore, the situations teachers reported in the interviews showed development of children that was beneficial to their social life and attitudes towards themselves. This in turn is important for integration into a social network and positive relationships. Moreover, children who are self-confident participate more in a learning situation (Raver \& Zigler 1997: 364).

Theory regards the same learning methods suitable for children as parents and teachers do. The weighting of importance is a little different though. Parents favoured professional English classes and teachers argued in support of music. The importance of music is emphasized in existing theory as well, when researchers say that no other method is more effective in ELL than music (Saglam, Kayaoglu \& Aydinli 2010: 1). Moreover, music is stated to be beneficial to pronunciation, intonation, vocabulary and expressions of the language learners (Sposet 2008: 24). The biggest difference in popularity of methods concerned books. Experts regard books as versatile and vital for children when stating that storybook reading is central in early literacy development (Morrow 2005: 9). As opposed to that, my research showed that parents didn't regard books as important at this very young age. Probably this attitude changes when children attend primary school and learn to read properly.

The most complex topic seems to be the critical age debate. Experts do not agree on whether there is a critical age at all. Much research has been done but none can identify a clear point at which FLL skills deteriorate. Serious doubts have been expressed on the presence of a critical age (Herschensohn 2007: 3). Nevertheless, all parents indicated that they believed in something like a critical age and the majority stated it would be around the age of three to six years. This is what some experts say, however, many researchers state the critical point to be around the age of puberty which none of the participants in this study indicated, except for the teacher of the BP (Rossmann 2000: 20). Probably discussions about the critical age hypothesis will still last for some time.

The argument that parents fear a mixing of languages and code-switching could not be seen in the study, while it is present in the existing theory. Assuredly, positive and negative influence of the L1 is given in FLL (Song \& Andrews 2009: 29-30). The description of transfer as a positive influence for reasoning from the L1 shows some affirmative attitude (Foley \& Flynn 2013: 98). Instead of worrying about influence of the L1, it could be taken as a source to work on and to recognize learning progress and
development. Therefore, influence of the L1 can be used as a resource for further observations.

Teacher A reported on children having much to do in kindergarten and being exposed to much input, which would be exhausting for them. Theory reports the same by stating that children have to deal with new concepts in preschool. They have to adapt to those situations and develop schemata in their brains which are highly complex processes (Shorrocks 1991: 273).

Referring to the article mentioned in the introduction, those statements can now also be revealed in a different light. The author, Jens Radü (2005), claimed that parents want their children to become 'polyglot all-rounders'. In the present case, it was not as extreme as he formulated, but nevertheless, the majority of parents supported their children at a young age already in order to achieve a maximum of advantages in their later lives.

Some parents may be worried to put too much strain on their children (Radü 2005). This could also be recognized in the empirical research carried out. One teacher reported that some parents did not want their children to learn English because they were already growing up bilingually and they did not want their children to feel overstrained. HardingEsch and Riley (2003: 157) on the other hand, state that there is no need to worry. She says that
the parents [...] do not need to worry about their offspring being overloaded by learning a third, fourth or fifth language in or out of school. It has been noted that bilinguals have a positive, confident attitude towards the learning of other languages.

It is also claimed that parents should do quite the contrary but worrying. It makes children happy, if they mastered learning another language. This makes them "feel that there is no reason why they should not succeed in learning [another language]. Learning languages makes you good - at learning languages." (Harding-Esch \& Riley 2003: 157).

Referring back to the research question about the motivation and expectation of parents and teachers to expose young children to ELL, the following should be pointed out. Parents and teachers showed similar expectations in this study. Parents hoped for multiple advantages, mainly for future career and education of their children. Teachers expressed their motivation to entertain children while teaching them valuable skills of a foreign language. Both of the teachers interviewed stated, that despite all their effort, they
could not influence what children are ready to take in. Regarding teaching methods, there was major concordance among parents, teachers and existing theory.

On the whole, attitudes of laypeople were partly concordant with opinions of experts. This leads to the assumption that parents have got a good feeling for what is right and what is wrong for children. Generally, parents want to provide good education for their offspring and so do teachers. However, parents are only partly informed about research on education and children development. Teachers are usually educated in the field of pedagogics and should therefore know what to expect from children. However ${ }_{2}$ state policies of Austria allow for people uneducated in the fields of pedagogy to work as teachers. This may be questionable, because pedagogic education is crucial for teachers in order to perform well, and to keep mentally healthy. Uneducated teachers may see their lack of education as exhausting, as they are often overwhelmed by the tasks they have to fulfil. Burnout is a huge topic in the fields of pedagogy, which can be prevented if teachers feel confident with what they are doing, and if they are well prepared for their job. If the teacher is well educated, children will benefit from better learning progress as teachers usually act professionally and know how to handle pedagogic difficulties.

## 9. Conclusion

Whether so much linguistic knowledge is reasonable for young children can neither be answered with yes nor no. However, it can be affirmed that there are definitely positive aspects and outcomes out of ELL. The brain develops because ELL influences the connection of synapses (Hohenberger 2000: 54). It improves in complexity which is beneficial for cognitive performance (Peltzer-Karpf 2000: 34). This leads to the conclusion, that due to an enhanced cognitive performance, there is not only a development in linguistic skills, but also in general learning potential. The teachers who participated in the study reported on the use of diverse teaching methods which should appeal to multiple skills in children, too. Therefore, children were challenged to develop their cognitive, social and even physical skills in a playing manner. Additionally, teachers stressed the importance of children having fun.

Although influence of the L1 on learning another language is not denied, researchers don't agree on the scope of influence, or whether it is positive or negative. Errors that occur in the learning process of a L2 cannot clearly be assigned to the learners' L1. This was shown
in several studies, when learners of the same L1 didn't make the same mistakes. Moreover, there are errors that deviate from structures of both the L1 and the L2 (Edmondson \& House 2000: 225). For ELL in kindergarten my research revealed that it does not matter which mother tongue a child speaks, they all learn English in the same way, which is playfully. The L1 does not play a role in kindergarten language teaching in the playschools examined in Austria because there are no single words translated or activities intended by which German language knowledge is presupposed. The learning progress is mainly supported by guessing games, pictures showing objects and songs, which children can sing along after a very short time. Therefore, the question whether it is more reasonable to teach the L1 until children know it perfectly well, before introducing them to another language, must be negated in the end.

Parents' wish for a successful future of their children was strongly present in the data collected. In the evaluation of the questionnaire, their wish for a successful career of their children was stressed much more than having a joyful childhood. This may reveal a possible bias in the design of the questionnaire, as the choice and formulation of questions may have led to these overstatements. Moreover, limitations of the results are seen in the choice of research participants. Comparing two random teachers does not provide a valid result for Austria. The results describe the attitudes of a convenience sample rather than of pre-school teachers in Austria generally.

Further research on the influence of the L1 on SLA, and on influential factors such as age, environment or motivation of the learners should be of interest to linguistic research. In the fields of pedagogy, policies that allow people to work as teachers without pedagogic education are questionable. These may not only limit success of the learners because of poorly designed lessons, but also of the teachers themselves, who may feel unable to cope with difficulties and are in need for help.

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## List of Figures

Fig. 1 Einschätzung des Zeitaufwands ..... 27
Fig. 2 Children's age MP ..... 42
Fig. 3 Children's age BP ..... 42
Fig. 4 Parents' age MP ..... 43
Fig. 5 Parents' age BP ..... 43
Fig. 6 Parents' sex MP ..... 43
Fig. 7 Parents' sex BP ..... 43
Fig. 8 Parents' English proficiency ..... 45
Fig. 9 Importance of $E$ in job ..... 45
Fig. 10 Importance of $E$ in private life ..... 46
Fig. 11 Education of parents MP ..... 46
Fig. 12 Education of parents BP ..... 46
Fig. 13 Critical age MP ..... 63
Fig. 14 Critical age BP. ..... 63
Fig. 15 Belief in duration of influence on child's life ..... 64
Fig. 16 Preferred ELL methods by parents ..... 65
Fig. 17 Methods for practicing E at home ..... 65
Fig. 18 Frequency of contact with E outside of kindergarten ..... 66
Fig. 19 Reasons for ELL given by parents ..... 67
Fig. 20 Expected advantages from ELL by parents ..... 69
Fig. 21 Expected skills by parents of MP ..... 70
Fig. 22 Expected skills by parents of BP ..... 70
List of Tables
Table 1 Parents' L1 MP and BP ..... 44
Table 2 Categories for content analysis ..... 49
Table 3 Categories with definitions of keyterms and codification rules ..... 50
Table 4 Influence of multilingualism interview MP ..... 51
Table 5 Motivation for being a teacher interview MP ..... 52
Table 6 Personal attitude interview MP ..... 53
Table 7 Aim of ELL interview MP ..... 53
Table 8 Influence of learners' age interview MP ..... 55
Table 9 Persistence of advantages interview MP ..... 55
Table 10 Teaching methods interview MP ..... 55
Table 11 Influence of multilingualism interview BP ..... 57
Table 12 Motivation for being a teacher interview BP ..... 58
Table 13 Personal attitude interview BP ..... 58
Table 14 Aim of ELL interview BP ..... 58
Table 15 Influence of learners' age interview BP ..... 59
Table 16 Persistence of advantages interview BP ..... 60
Table 17 Teaching methods interview BP ..... 61

## Appendix A: German Abstract

Die vorliegende Diplomarbeit "Teaching and learning of pre-school English in Austria: beliefs and attitudes of parents and teachers" soll primär die Einstellungen von Eltern und LehrerInnen zum Englischerwerb im Kindergartenalter in Österreich unter dem Aspekt der Wichtigkeit und Sinnhaftigkeit des sehr frühen Fremdsprachenerwerbs untersuchen. Der erste Teil der Diplomarbeit bietet eine Darlegung der bereits vorhandenen Literatur über frühes Fremdsprachenlernen. Hierbei wird im speziellen die geistige Kapazität von Kindern beschrieben, welche als Grundlage für den Fremdsprachenerwerb dient. Des Weiteren sollen die Ziele des frühen Englischlernens erläutert werden, als auch die populärsten Methoden. Anschließend erfolgt eine Überleitung dazu, wie die bereits vorhandene Muttersprache das Fremdsprachenlernen beeinflusst. Eine ebenso wichtige Rolle spielt die Frage, ob es eine kritische Altersgrenze gibt, ab welcher der Fremdsprachenerwerb schwieriger wird oder ab welcher man sogar die Fremdsprache nicht mehr auf einem „Native-Speaker-Level" erwerben kann.

Im zweiten Teil der Diplomarbeit folgt die Analyse und Interpretation der empirischen Forschung. Diese fokussiert die Einstellungen und Werte, welche die Eltern und LehrerInnen der untersuchten Kindergartenkinder in Österreich vertreten. Diese vertretenen Werte sollen anschließend mit der bereits im ersten Teil der Diplomarbeit dargelegten Literatur abgeglichen werden, um festzustellen, ob die Wünsche der Eltern und die Vorhaben der LehrerInnen erfüllbar beziehungsweise realistisch sind.

## Appendix B: Questionnaire

## Kinder Iernen Englisch

Vielen Dank, dass Sie an dieser Befragung für meine Diplomarbeit teilnehmen. Ihre Angaben werden natürlich streng vertraulich und anonym behandelt. Bitte versuchen Sie, alle Fragen gewissenhaft zu beantworten. Es wird etwa 10 Minuten dauern. Vielen Dank für Ihre Mithilfe!

Laura Ehrenweber
Informationen über Ihr Kind:

1. Alter: $\square 0-1 \quad \square$ 2-3 $\quad \square 4-5 \quad \square 5-6$
2. Geschlecht: $\square$ Weiblich $\square$ Männlich
3. Muttersprache(n): $\qquad$
4. andere Sprachkenntnisse: $\qquad$

Kreuzen Sie bitte an:

1. Wollen Sie selbst, dass Ihr Kind vor der Schule Englisch lernt?JaNein

1a. Warum (nicht)? $\qquad$
2. Mein Kind erreicht durch frühes Englischlernen Sprachkenntnisse, welche nicht aufzuholen sind, wenn es später Englisch lernt.JaNein
3. Wie lange, denken Sie, wird frühes Englischlernen das Leben beeinflussen?
$\square$ Gar nicht
$\square$ Kurzfristig: bis zur Volksschule
$\square$ Mittelfristig: bis zur Hauptschule/Gymnasium
$\square$ Langfristig: bis in das Erwachsenenalter
4. Ich glaube, das beste Alter in dem man spätestens anfangen sollte Englisch zu lernen, um später ausgezeichnete Ergebnisse zu erzielen liegt bei etwa...
$\square$ 1-3 Jahren
$\square$ 3-6 Jahren
$\square$ 6-9 Jahren
$\square$ 9-12 Jahren
$\square$ 12-15 Jahren
$\square$ Älter: $\qquad$
5. Mein Kind lernt derzeit durch folgende Methoden Englisch: (Mehrfachnennungen möglich)
$\square$ Englisch-Spielgruppe (zusätzlich zum Kindergarten)BilderbücherMusikTV / Radioich lese Geschichten vor/erzähle Geschichtenspezielle Englisch-Lernmaterialien zuhauseKindermädchenSpiele/Karten
$\square$ EnglischsprechenVorschul-Englischkurs
$\square$ Sonstiges: $\qquad$
6. Wenn Sie zuhause mit Ihrem Kind Englisch verwenden: Was machen Sie am häufigsten? (Mehrfachnennungen möglich)
$\square$ einzelne Wörter übersetzen
$\square$ Sätze übersetzen
$\square$ Fragen stellen \& Antworten entlocken
$\square$ Englisch nur in einem bestimmten Zusammenhang verwenden z.B. während dem Kochen, im Bad, Spielen eines bestimmten Spiels, über Tiere sprechen, im Zoo,...
$\square$ Lieder zusammen singen
$\square$ Sonstiges: $\qquad$
7. Wie oft ist Ihr Kind außerhalb des Kindergartens mit Englisch konfrontiert? $\square$ Jeden Tag $\square$ 1xinder Woche $\quad \square$ 1xim Monat $\quad \square$ gar nicht $\square$ Sonstiges: $\qquad$
8. Warum möchten Sie, dass Ihr Kind Englisch lernt? (Mehrfachnennungen möglich)
$\square$ um Spaß zu haben
$\square$ zukünftige Karriere
$\square$ zukünftige Ausbildung
$\square$ weil Sprachen interessant sind
$\square$ weil Sprachen wichtig sind
$\square$ um wettbewerbsfähiger zu sein
$\square$ weil es einen positiven Einfluss auf das Lernen von weiteren Sprachen hat
$\square$ weil es einen positiven Einfluss auf die Entwicklung der Muttersprache hat
$\square$ Sonstiges: $\qquad$
9. Welche Vorteile erwarten Sie für Ihr Kind durch das frühe Englischlernen? (Mehrfachnennungen möglich)
$\square$ bessere Leistungen in der Schule in Englisch
$\square$ bessere Leistungen in der Schule in verschiedenen Fächern
$\square$ bessere Leistungen in der Schule in anderen Sprachen
$\square$ bessere Allgemeinbildung
$\square$ Vorteile in der allgemeinen Sprachentwicklung
$\square$ einfacheres Lernen von anderen Sprachen (später)
$\square$ Verbesserung der Sozialen Fähigkeiten
$\square$ Intellektuelle/Geistige Entwicklung
$\square$ höhere Intelligenz
$\square$ Vorteile im späteren Beruf
$\square$ allgemeine Vorteile als Erwachsene(r)
$\square$ Sonstiges:
10. In welchen Fähigkeitsbereichen erwarten Sie sich einen positiven Einfluss durch das frühe Englischlernen?

|  | gar nicht | wenig | ausreichend | viel | sehr viel |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Rechtschreibung |  |  |  |  |  |
| Aussprache |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vokabeln/Wortschatz |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lesen |  |  |  |  |  |
| Grammatik |  |  |  |  |  |
| Hören (Inhalte erfassen, verstehen,...) |  |  |  |  |  |
| richtige Verwendung der Zeiten |  |  |  |  |  |
| richtige Verwendung von Wörtern |  |  |  |  |  |
| richtige Verwendung von Sätzen |  |  |  |  |  |
| soziale Fähigkeiten (Interaktion durch <br> Englische Sprache) |  |  |  |  |  |

Informationen über Sie selbst (als Elternteil):

1. Alter: $\qquad$ 18-2526-3536-45 $\square$ $>45$
2. Geschlecht: $\square$ Weiblich $\square$ Männlich
3. Geburtsort: $\qquad$ 4. Wohnort: $\qquad$
4. Muttersprache(n): $\qquad$
5. Fremdsprache(n): $\qquad$
6. Beruf: $\qquad$
7. Ausbildung:

| $\square$ | Pflichtschule | $\square$ berufsbildende Schule (Fachschule) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\square$ AHS/BHS (Matura) | $\square$ Akademie/Kolleg |  |
| $\square$ Fachhochschule | $\square$ Universität |  |
| $\square$ | Lehre | $\square$ sonstiges:. |

6. Spricht jemand in Ihrer Familie Englisch als Muttersprache/Familiensprache?:
$\square \mathrm{Ja}$
Nein
7. Wie würden Sie Ihre Englischkenntnisse einschätzen?KeineGrundkenntnisse$\square$ ausreichend $\square$ gutfließendperfekt
8. Bitte bewerten Sie die folgenden Fragen. ( $1=$ sehr wichtig, $5=$ nicht wichtig)

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 11a. Wie wichtig ist Englisch für Sie in Ihrem Beruf? |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11b. Wie wichtig ist Englisch für Sie in Ihrem Privatleben? (zB Urlaub, <br> Freunde, Medien,....) |  |  |  |  |  |

## Appendix C: Interview Questions

1. Wie ist dieser KDG aufgebaut? Nach Altersgruppen/Sprachniveau/NativeSpeakers/etc?
2. Welche Muttersprachen haben die Kinder hier? Gibt es Kinder, die nicht Deutsch oder Englisch als Muttersprache haben?

Ergänzung: Wenn es Kinder mit anderer L1 gibt, wie ergeht es ihnen mit dem Programm?
3. Welche Kinder profitieren hier am meisten von der intensiven Konfrontation mit der englischen Sprache? Welche profitieren am wenigsten?
4. Wie lange sind Sie schon Englischlehrerin?

Ergänzungsfrage: Wann begannen Sie, Kindergartenkinder zu unterrichten?
5. Welche Motivation hatten Sie, diesen Beruf zu ergreifen?
6. Was sehen Sie als die größte Herausforderung in diesem Beruf?
7. Was denken Sie persönlich über Frühes Englischlernen?
8. Welches Ziel sehen Sie darin, oder setzen Sie sich selbst, Kindergartenkindern Englisch zu unterrichten?
Ergänzungsfrage: Ist für Sie hierbei ein Unterschied zwischen 2-4 und 4-6 jährigen
Vorschulkindern gegeben? Gibt es für 2-4 jährige ein anderes Ziel als für 4-6 jährige?
9. Was erwarten Sie von frühem Englischlernen?

Ergänzungsfrage: Welche Vorteile kann man vom frühen Englischlernen erwarten?
Ergänzungsfrage: Sind diese Vorteile kurz- oder langfristig zu erwarten?
10. Wenn skeptische Eltern Sie fragen, warum sie ihr Kind so früh Englisch lernen lassen sollten, was sagen Sie?
11. Wie definieren Sie Sprachlernerfolg für Ihre SchülerInnen? (Worin sehen Sie Sprachlernerfolg...)
12. Wie legen Sie die Kriterien für Erfolg fest? (Wie messen Sie Erfolg?)
13. Welche Methode finden Sie, ist die beste um Kindergartenkindern Englisch beizubringen?
Ergänzung: Gibt es eine Methode die Sie bevorzugen? Warum?
Ergänzung: Gibt es eine Methode die Kindergartenkinder bevorzugen? Warum?
14. Gibt es eine Unterrichtsmethode, die Ihrer (Unterrichts)erfahrung nach mit jungen Kindern gar nicht funktioniert?
15. Können Sie sich an eine bestimmte Situation, Geschichte oder ein Ereignis erinnern, worin Sie deutlich den Erfolg oder Misserfolg Ihres Unterrichts bemerkt haben?
16. Wenn Sie eine/n neue/n Englischlehrerkollegen/in in ihrem Kindergarten bekommen, welche Tipps und Hinweise geben Sie ihm oder ihr?
17. Was bedeutet „Bildung" und „Erziehung" für Sie?
18. Gibt es noch etwas, das Sie hinzufügen möchten? (cf. Dörnyei 2007:138)

## Appendix D: Interview Transcription Codes

| S1 | Sprecher 1, Interviewer |
| :--- | :--- |
| S2 | Sprecher 2, Interviewte Person |
| $?$ | Steigende Intonation |
| . | Fallende Intonation |
| GROSSBUCHSTABEN | Betonung |
| (.) | Kurze Pause |
| (2), (3), (4),... | Längere Pause (Anzahl der Sekunden in <br> Klammern) |
| : | Verlängerung der Silben |
| zB: fü- fü- für für die Kinder | Wiederholung |
| zB: einma- | Wortfragment |
| @, @@, @@@, @@@@,.... | Lachen, Anzahl der „@" gibt Länge des Lachens an |
| <@> text </@> | Lachend gesprochen |
| <laut> text </laut> <br> <leise> text </leise> <br> <flüsternd> text </flüsternd> <br> <schnell> text </schnell> <br> <langsam> text </langsam> <br> <imitierend> text </imitierend> | Sprechweisen, welche bedeutsam anders sind, als <br> die normale Sprechweise |
| Hh | Aus- oder Einatmen, relativ kurz |
| Hhh | Aus- oder Einatmen, relativ lang |
| Person1: <br> [Nachname1] <br> Person2: <br> [Nachname2] <br> Firmen: [org1], [org2],... <br> [Vorname2] | Anonymisierung von Personen/Namen |

## Appendix E: Text passages interview MP

| Nr. | Paraphrase | Codification | page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | es ist die einzige Arbeit die ich machen kann hier ohne Ausbildung weil ich Englisch spreche | motivation | p. 1 |
| 2 | Uhrzeit von 8 bis 11 passt auch, weil meine Kinder dann kurz danach von der Schule abgeholt werden müssen | motivation | p. 1 |
| 3 | interessant war es für mich auch zu sehen, wie Kinder Sprachen lernen | motivation | p. 1 |
| 4 | weil ich das (Anmk: Linguistik) auch studiert habe | motivation | p. 1 |
| 5 | sogar zweisprachige Kinder die nehmen das auch schnell an | multilingualism | p. 2 |
| 6 | es gibt Unterschiede genauso wie bei einsprachigen Kindern | multilingualism | p. 2 |
| 7 | die kämpfen auch mit Deutsch und dass es Mundart gibt, also das ist auch wirklich nicht einfach, das hört sich auch nicht so ähnlich an. Es ist so wie ich finde es sind zwei Sprachen. | multilingualism | p. 2 |
| 8 | ich habe so einen Stempel das ist der good stamp, wenn die zuhören dann kriegen die den Stempel und sie strengen sich wirklich an | methods | p. 3 |
| 9 | wenn man solche Spiele spielt und die in zwei Gruppen sitzen, die wollen gewinnen und dann strengen sie sich an | methods | p. 3 |
| 10 | also in der Kleinkindergruppe ist es auch neu für mich, dass ich mit ihnen was mache und das mit den zwei Gruppen hätte nicht funktioniert. | influence of learners age | p. 4 |
| 11 | sie würden nicht verstehen worum es geht mit den Punkten und sie sind jetzt unter drei | influence of learners age | p. 4 |
| 12 | die gleichen Sachen also die gleichen Spiele aber mit anderen Wörtern immer weil es eben länger dauert bis alle verstehen was gemeint ist | methods | p. 4 |
| 13 | das bringt auch nicht viel wenn die Kinder jetzt viele verschiedene Lieder lernen sollen und sie können es aber nicht ordentlich | methods | p. 4 |
| 14 | seit ein paar Wochen haben wir ein anderes Lied weil da sind auch Wörter drin die man braucht, mit den Bewegungen halt und das up down das braucht man ja sowieso und mit den Wörtern kann man dann sit down stand up oder solche Sachen machen, es baut sich immer auf | methods | p. 4 |
| 15 | ich für mich persönlich denke, dass singen am besten ist | methods | p. 4 |


| 16 | und da sind auch die Bewegungen mit drin beim Lied | methods | p. 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 17 | weil ich glaube wenn es eine Melodie hat das ist wie ein <br> Ohrwurm | methods | p. 4 |
| 18 | da kommt man auch auf die Wörter drauf durch den <br> Rhythmus der Lieder | methods | p. 4 |
| 19 | die Kinder für die ist die Bewegung auch wichtig | methods | p. 4 |
| 20 | die bleiben hartnäckig im Spiel, das ist wieder der <br> Wettbewerb da strengen sie sich richtig an | methods | p. 4 |
| 21 | also es hängt auch mit dem Interesse vom Kind zusammen <br> also ich kann nur ich kann es machen und ob die es <br> annehmen oder nicht das kann ich nicht beeinflussen | methods | p. 5 |
| 22 | die Spiele sollen nicht zu lange dauern | methods | p. 5 |
| 23 | sie brauchen viel Abwechslung | methods | p. 5 |
| 24 | Belohnung ist ganz wichtig und diese competition Sachen <br> sind auch sehr gut für die Motivation | methos | p. 5 |
| 25 | sie sollen schon Spaß haben | p. 5 |  |
| 26 | hauptsache die Sprache ist nicht fremd | p. 5 |  |
| 27 | dass die Kinder den Eltern auch zuhause sagen wie die <br> Sachen heißen, das ist nicht mein Ziel das ist irgendwie ein <br> Pluspunkt aber Ziel ist einfach, dass die Sprache nicht <br> fremd ist | aim | p. 5 |
| 28 | sie sollen auch finde ich kein Englisch sprechen können <br> danach weil das ist keine Schule | aim | p. 5 |
| 29 | ich finde es passt, verkehrt kann es nicht wirklich sein | personal <br> attitude | p. 6 |
| 35 | wenn die Kinder das wirklich sprechen sollen dann <br> müssen sie viel mehr dann und das reicht nicht jeden Tag <br> eine halbe Stunde, dann müssen sie viel mehr und öfter. | aim |  |
| 30 | Kindergartentag ist glaub ich mittlerweile ganz schön hart <br> weil die auch viel zu tun haben, da ist viel Programm. | personal <br> attitude | p. 6 |
| 31 | da ist es ein Wahnsinn, die haben wirklich immer <br> Studentinnen dort und die Kinder müssen immer <br> verschiedenen Leuten zuhören also auf verschiedene <br> Leute hören und ja aber ich finde es nicht schlecht. | personal <br> attitude | p. |


| 36 | eine Frau hat schon gesagt und das verstehe ich auch, ihr <br> Kind kämpft schon mit Deutsch jetzt kommt noch Englisch <br> dazu ich weiß nicht, es kommt auf das Kind an, manche <br> haben ein Talent für Sprachen und manche nicht. | multilingualism | p. 6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 37 | einheimische Kinder brauchen auch Unterstützung aber <br> das heißt nicht jetzt weil manche Deutsch lernen müssen, <br> dass die anderen kein Englisch lernen sollen | multilingualism | p.6 |
| 38 | das würde ich schon sagen, dass es Vorteile gibt | aim | p.6 |
| 39 | spätestens in der Schule werden sie sehen, dass es doch <br> was bringt und die werden sich auch vielleicht daran <br> erinnern | aim | p.7 |
| 40 | die werden sich sicher fühlen in der Schule dann | aim | p. 7 |
| 41 | man merkt schon, dass sie sich irgendwas <br> zusammensetzen damit sie sich dann erinnern können <br> also überhaupt wie man denkt, wie das Gehirn benutzt <br> wird, das ist schon von Vorteil (logisches Denken) | aim | p. 7 |
| 42 | das eigenständige Erkennen, was ist schon da, was kann <br> ich mit neuem verknüpfen | aim | p. 7 |
| 43 | das könnte länger anhalten, weil wenn man es schon dort <br> benutzt kann man es wo anders benutzen und so geht es <br> hindurch die ganze Zeit, dann baut es sich vielleicht später <br> weiter auf | duration |  |

## Appendix F: Text passages interview BP

| Nr. | Paraphrase | Codification | page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Ich bin auf die Welt gekommen um diese Spielschule zu übernehmen von meiner Mutter und es ist schon in frühen Kindesjahren zu meiner Leidenschaft geworden | motivation | p. 1 |
| 2 | Man kann nie früh genug eine Sprache lernen | personal attitude | p. 1 |
| 3 | die schon von Geburt an zweisprachig erzogen werden und hier lernen sie halt eine dritte Sprache und es gibt überhaupt kein Problem | multilingualism | p. 1 |
| 4 | je früher man damit beginnt umso besser ist es | age | p. 1 |
| 5 | Bis zu fünf Sprachen können Kinder gleichzeitig lernen und es ist Humbug wenn Psychologen sagen sie sollen zuerst einmal Deutsch sprechen können und dann eine Fremdsprache | personal attitude | p. 1 |
| 6 | je später umso schlimmer und schwieriger ist es weil die Kinder zum Konstruieren anfangen, zu denken. Je jünger sie sind so machen sie es intuitiv im Unterbewusstsein und umso leichter können sie es lernen | age | p. 2 |
| 7 | es geht nie verloren | persistence | p. 2 |
| 8 | ein Kind das in frühen Kindesjahren also als Baby das hört das wird einfach im Gehirn irgendwo wie in einem Computer abgespeichert und wenn man den Ordner dann wieder findet später dann ist der sehr schnell wieder abrufbar | age | p. 2 |
| 9 | Je nach Intelligenz des Kindes lernt es innerhalb kürzester Zeit Deutsch oder Englisch je nachdem zu welcher Sprache es mehr persönlich tendiert | multilingualism | p. 2 |
| 10 | sie sprechen diese Sprache und übersetzen den Großeltern die das nicht lesen können nicht sprechen können alles | aim | p. 2 |
| 11 | dass die Kinder einfach learning by doing haben | method | p. 4 |
| 12 | ich kann, ich hilf mir es selbst zu tun | aim | p. 4 |
| 13 | die Kinder das Selbstvertrauen kriegen | aim | p. 4 |
| 14 | Ich kann es selbst, ich bin wer, ich bin was, das ist etwas das wir den Kindern im Leben einfach mitgeben weil da gehen sie in die Welt hinaus und kommen in die Schule | aim | p. 4 |
| 15 | Was sie mitnehmen fürs Leben das ist ihnen überlassen den Kindern | aim | p. 4 |


| 16 | Wir bereiten sie nicht auf die Schule vor, natürlich auch ist <br> eh klar, aber auch auf das weitere Leben, dass sie bestehen <br> können | aim | p. 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 17 | das ist Spaß gleich mal in der Früh Bewegung zu haben, <br> singen zu dürfen | method | p.4 |
| 18 | musikalisch Grammatik zu lernen | method | p. 4 |
| 19 | Vokabeln spielerisch zu erarbeiten | method | p. 4 |
| 20 | Unser Ziel ist es, die Kinder in zwei Sprachen auf das <br> weitere Leben spielerisch in allen Bereichen aufs Leben <br> vorzubereiten | aim | p. 4 |
| 21 | können diese Sprache vor allem die Aussprache | aim | p. 5 |
| 22 | Waldausgänge weil wir keinen Garten haben, wir gehen <br> gezielt hinaus | method | p. 7 |
| 23 | singen, bewegen und neues auffassen | method | p. 8 |
| 24 | mit drei Sinnen arbeiten das ist schon sehr viel für Kinder | method | p. 8 |
| 25 | Drum stehen auch die Kleinen dort, lernen das jetzt, die <br> stehen mal nur dort weil sie mal nur schauen wollen wie <br> das geht, aber wir könntne 50 solche Lieder singen auch <br> mit denne die können das auch die Kleinen | p. 8 |  |
| 26 | Die haben einen wesentlich besseren deutschen Ausdruck <br> wie gleichaltrige nur deutschsprachige Kinder weil wir <br> eine sehr gute Artikulation haben und der Ausdruck ist <br> dadurch dass wir Englisch reden viel besser im Deutschen, <br> das sie ja dann im Alter von fünf-sechs zu differenzieren <br> anfangen. | multilingualism | p. 8 |
| 27 | aber es ist alles im Spiel | method |  |

## Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Ich erkläre an Eides statt, dass ich die vorliegende Diplomarbeit selbstständig und ohne fremde Hilfe verfasst, andere als die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel nicht benutzt und die den Quellen wörtlich oder inhaltlich entnommenen Stellen als solche kenntlich gemacht habe.

Ort, Datum
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