

University of Cape Town

Faculty of Education

**WHAT DO TEACHERS SAY AND DO WHEN TEACHING A
CONCEPT OF PRINT IN LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE
CLASSROOMS?**

A dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

by

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I hereby declare that this dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other university.

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ABSTRACT

The dissertation reports on a study of the classroom practice of four Grade One teachers who teach in multilingual classrooms. The report seeks to provide a descriptive analysis of what these teachers say and do as they teach their pupils a concept of print.

Increasing numbers of teachers in South African schools find themselves teaching linguistically diverse groups of pupils. While these teachers are most often unable to speak or understand the home languages of all of the pupils in their classes, they are faced with the task of teaching pupils to read in a language which may not be equally familiar to all of them.

The reading lessons of four teachers in four schools were observed over a period of six months as they taught Grade One pupils to read. Instruments in the form of observation schedules, questionnaires, miscue analysis schedules and a schedule of indicators were designed to collect information on both the teachers' practice and pupil outcomes. A Vygotskian theory of teaching and learning is used to interrogate the data.

The study shows that there are differences in the ways that these teachers demonstrate an understanding of print to their pupils as well as in the ways in which the teachers mediate a concept of print. The study further shows that the teachers' understanding of the task of teaching children to read and their understanding of teaching and learning has significant (pedagogical) implications for the ways in which they develop pupils' concept of print.

The study concludes that the teachers' demonstrations of the way in which print works have a greater impact on their pupils developing a concept of print than their own inability to speak and understand the home languages of all of the pupils in their classes.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Apartheid education, post-Apartheid education and the languages of teaching and learning

Apartheid legislation not only ensured that schooling was organised along racialised lines but that the languages of learning in schools were different for different racialised groups of pupils. In the Western Cape, 'white'; 'coloured' and 'Indian' pupils received schooling in the main in the languages spoken in their homes, while most 'black' pupils received schooling in their home language only until the end of the fourth year of school. Thereafter, schooling was conducted in one of South Africa's then-official languages, English and Afrikaans.

The election of a democratic government in South Africa in 1994 has brought with it many reforms and changes to legislation. For schools the most notable example of this has been the repealing of apartheid legislation which previously had ensured that state schools remained segregated along racialised lines. The Schools Act enacted in October 1996 (Govender, 1997, 79) has finally paved the way for the desegregation of schooling. New legislation has resulted in changes in the pupil composition of previously 'white' (House of Assembly) and 'coloured' (House of Representatives) schools. Ex-House of Assembly schools have begun accepting 'coloured' and 'black' children in increasing numbers, while ex-House of Representatives schools now accept 'black' children. This practise has brought into focus a range of questions which relate to teaching and learning in linguistically diverse classrooms.

However, the legacy of apartheid in South African schooling continues to influence the current realities faced by schools in the Western Cape. As 'black' parents seek to secure greater social and economic access for their children, increasing numbers of these parents send their children to 'white' and 'coloured' schools where the quality of schooling is widely believed to be superior to that in historically 'black' schools. The desegregation of living areas has also had an impact (albeit, very small) on the composition of the pupil body in these schools. The effect of this is that increasing numbers of pupils have to learn through a language that is not their own from their first year at school. In addition to the difficulties that these pupils often

experience in speaking and understanding the language of teaching and learning, their teachers are mostly unable to understand the languages that these pupils speak at home. This has resulted in a “growing concern that schools and teachers are insufficiently prepared to accommodate L1 [first language] speakers of African languages and that teachers are struggling to respond to linguistically diverse classes” (Reeves, 1997, 4).

1.2 The research question

In my work with teachers in ex-House of Assembly and ex-House of Representatives schools, increasing numbers of them ask for advice on appropriate teaching methodology for multilingual classrooms. While teacher educators seem to be able to offer some advice this is often based on the assumption that teachers are able to speak the home languages of their pupils as well as the language of teaching and learning. Important advice on the need to affirm pupils by using all of the pupils’ languages in the classroom is often provided. For example:

[T]he most important strategy for successful multilingual classrooms is a positive attitude towards the different languages in schools. Showing respect for and interest in languages sends the message that all languages are equally important and valuable. This then helps children to develop positive self-images

(PRAESA, 4).

While the value of this advice is not in dispute, it does not assist these teachers in creating and utilising the pedagogical moments in their linguistically diverse classrooms.

Reading instruction occupies a central position in the Grade One classroom. In the past teachers in ex-House of Assembly and ex-House of Representatives schools have provided reading instruction to pupils who speak and understand the language of teaching and learning and/or whose home languages teachers are able to speak and understand. Now teachers are faced with providing reading instruction in the language of teaching and learning even though not all pupils are able to access this language with equal ease from the beginning of Grade One. Yet pupils’ success at school depends heavily on their level of literacy in the language of teaching and learning - “declining DET [schools previously designated for ‘black’ pupils] pass rates at matriculation level over the past decade bear testimony, partly, to the poor performance

of candidates using English as a medium in their various subjects” (Young, 1995, 66).

Arising from this situation is the need to gather information on how teachers’ practice has changed or not changed to respond to the learning needs of pupils in linguistically diverse classes. Hence, the focus of this study on a description of the current situation - what do teachers say and do when teaching a concept of print in linguistically diverse classrooms?

This study seeks to describe what it is that teachers are currently saying and doing in Grade One classrooms in which pupils are being taught to read in English even though this may not be their home language. I recognise the value of empirical descriptions of current situations for generating relevant and informed research into pedagogical practice in linguistically diverse classrooms.

1.3 A synopsis of this dissertation

The study is reported over six chapters. Chapter 2 examines the theoretical constructs used in this study and then draws from the literature to describe trends in research into teaching and learning in linguistically diverse classes. Chapter 3 details the research design. Chapters 4 and 5 describe and analyse the data. Chapter 6 identifies the limitations of this study and draws out some of the conclusions made possible from the design and data.

CHAPTER 2: TEACHING READING IN MULTILINGUAL CLASSROOMS

This chapter explicates Vygotsky's theory of teaching and learning which forms the theoretical basis for this study as well as informing its research design (2.1 - 2.3). It then surveys a selection of both international and South African research into teaching and learning in multilingual settings (2.4). Finally in 2.5, the task of teaching reading is examined and examples of teachers mediating a concept of print are provided.

2.1 Teaching and learning as socio-cultural activities

The title of Vygotsky's well known work, *Mind in Society* (1978), is descriptive of the epistemological understanding which underlies his work. For Vygotsky, knowledge is constructed both socially and historically and thus "the mind ... is comprehensible historically because it is historical. It is literally created or produced through the participation in and internalisation of social-cultural-historical forms of activity" (Newman and Holzman, 1993, 65). Teaching and learning then, are social activities which take place within particular cultural and historical contexts which shape not only the form of the activity, but also what counts as knowledge. Cole explains:

The individual and the social were conceived of as mutually constitutive elements of a single, interacting system; cognitive development was treated as a process of acquiring culture. The normal adult cognitive processes ... were treated as internalised transformations of socially prevalent patterns of interpersonal interaction

(Cole, 1985, 148).

Thus, the person taking on the role of teacher in a teaching-learning moment (either an adult or a more capable peer) (Vygotsky, 1978, 86) acts as the expert who assists the learner in his/her process of enculturation. For Vygotsky then, education - and more specifically, schooling - are socio-cultural activities.

Vygotsky makes a distinction between “elementary” and “higher” mental functions. Elementary functions are those mental functions which are “totally and directly determined by stimulation from the environment” (ibid., 39). On the other hand, four criteria may be used to define higher mental functions viz. “their social origins, the use of sign mediation, voluntary [self-] rather than environmental regulation, and the emergence of conscious realisation of mental processes” (Clay, 1990, 219). Thus, higher mental functions are specific to human beings (Vygotsky, 1978, 90). It is in the process of the enculturation of the individual into the practices and knowledge of society that these higher mental functions are developed (Moll, 1990, 1). Or, as Vygotsky explains, “learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organised, specifically human, psychological functions” (Vygotsky, 1978, 90).

2.2 The zone of proximal development

The construct which is central to Vygotsky’s theory of learning and development and which brings together other important tenets of his theory, is the notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This theoretical construct informs both the collection of data for this study as well as its analysis.

Vygotsky argues for two developmental levels which he refers to as “actual” and “potential” levels (Vygotsky, 1978, 85 - 86). The actual level of development refers to those functions which children can perform independently (voluntary regulation or self-regulation). In other words, these functions are fully matured and thus, Vygotsky refers to them as the “fruits” or “end products” of development (ibid., 86).

The potential level of development is evidenced by the ZPD since the zone

defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. The functions could be termed the “buds” or “flowers” of development...the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively

(Vygotsky, 1978, 86 - 87).

Thus, the potential developmental level refers to those functions for which an individual still requires the support and assistance of a more capable other (teacher). If then, the actual level of development refers to completed learning, the potential level of development must refer to what development is possible given the utilization of moments where teachers identify learners' need for assistance. Vygotsky further details the relationship between the ZPD and the actual and potential levels of development when he writes:

[T]he zone of proximal development permits us to delineate the child's immediate future and his [sic] dynamic developmental state, allowing not only for what already has been achieved developmentally but also for what is in the course of maturing

(Vygotsky, 1978, 87).

Thus, in Vygotskian terms, learning cannot be equated with development. Neither can learning wait upon development because where a function has matured, learning is already complete. In other words, learning happens in advance of development (ibid., 89). This leads Vygotsky to define *effective* teaching in the following way:

[T]he only good kind of instruction is that which marches ahead of development and leads it; it must be aimed not so much at the ripe as at the ripening functions

(Vygotsky, 1962, 104).

From a pedagogical perspective then, it is a teacher's function to both create and utilise the ZPDs of pupils so that learning might occur in order that, in turn, development might result. Or, as Tharp and Gallimore explain:

[T]eaching consists of assisting performance through the ZPD. Teaching can be said to occur when assistance is offered at points in the ZPD at which performance requires assistance

(Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 31).

2.3 Mediation in the zone of proximal development

Mediation or performance assistance (other regulation) within the ZPD is aimed at the achievement of self-regulation. It is within the ZPD that higher mental functions exist on a

social plane - they are socially regulated (Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 184). Once these functions have been learned they move to a psychological plane. They become self-regulating. Another way of describing this is that immature functions exist at an intermental level, whilst those functions which are mature exist at an intramental level (ibid., 184). Vygotsky refers to the internal reconstruction of an external operation as “internalisation” (Vygotsky, 1978, 56).

The process of movement towards self-regulation is illustrated by Vygotsky in the following example:

Language arises initially as a means of communication between the child and the people in his [sic] environment. Only, subsequently, upon conversion to internal speech, does it come to organise the child’s thought, that is, become an internal mental function

(Vygotsky, 1978, 89).

It is the regulating speech and actions of others that enable the learner to move gradually from an assisted performance to an independent one (Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 184). Thus mediation or performance assistance (other regulation) within the ZPD is necessary until internalisation has occurred and it is at this internalisation of functions that teaching is aimed.

Tharp and Gallimore (1988; Gallimore and Tharp, 1990) have further developed the notion of mediation (performance assistance) by identifying six means of assistance. These means of assistance are considered to be distinguishable from one another by “the different dynamic effects that each creates when applied” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 69) *and* they are, at the same time, “necessarily intertwined, occurring in combination and sometimes simultaneously” (ibid., 47). The performance assistance mechanisms identified are as follows:

- “Modelling” in which the teacher (adult or more capable peer) offers task appropriate behaviour for imitation (Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 178 - 179).
- “Contingency management” or a punishment-reward system designed to reinforce desirable behaviour (ibid., 179 - 180).
- “Feeding back” on performance in which the learner’s performance is evaluated in terms of a pre-determined standard and this information is then conveyed to the learner (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 55).

- “Instructing” which refers to pointing the learner towards the next act necessary towards the completion of a task as well as to the assigning of tasks (ibid., 56 - 57).
- “Questioning” which includes the posing of “assessment” and “assistance” questions. The former are defined as questions used by teachers to define the actual level of development of pupils in relation to a specific body of knowledge or to particular cognitive processes. Assistance questions are referred to as “inquiries in order to produce a mental operation that the pupil cannot or would not produce alone” (Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 182).
- “Cognitive structuring” which refers to the manner in which teachers provide a structure for thinking and action (ibid., 178 - 183). Cognitive structuring as a means of assistance “organises the raw stuff of experience with other like instances” (ibid., 183). An example of the provision of a structure for cognitive activity (thinking) is when the teacher explicates a strategy for deciding on the meaning of unfamiliar words when reading. Structures of explanation “serve to organise perception in new ways” (Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 182 - 183).

Gallimore and Tharp support Vygotsky’s theory that within schooled societies much thinking - and therefore, much mediation - is linguistically based (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 45). Language (a social and cultural tool itself) is then, the primary - but not sole - means of mediating in the ZPD. Clay (1992) provides evidence of the importance of language as a mediational tool in her understanding of the role of modelling:

[T]he language learner will be limited to acquiring the language of the model from whom he [sic] is learning. Literacy learning will proceed better in a second language if the teacher provides a good language model
(Clay, 1992, 39).

Since Vygotsky’s focus is on learning and development theory rather than on pedagogy, he concerns himself only with individual children in his writing on the ZPD. What is therefore needed in terms of pedagogical theory, is an understanding of how the notion of the ZPD can be of use in a classroom situation where individualised teaching-learning is not the norm. In

The Zone of Proximal Development as Basis for Instruction, Hedegaard (1990, 349) describes part of a teaching experiment the aim of which was to implement the concept of the ZPD in classroom teaching in order to test its value as a tool for evaluating children's school development. She uses a concept of developmental stages which grow out of a particular socio-cultural context to emphasise the point that planning for instruction which meets individual children's learning - and thus, also developmental - needs is in no way contradicted by planning to meet the needs of a group or whole class. Hedegaard explains:

To work with the zone of proximal development in classroom teaching implies that the teacher is aware of the developmental stages of the children and is able to plan for qualitative changes in the teaching toward a certain goal. Although each child is unique, children obviously share common traits with other children...Instruction can build upon these common features ...

(Hedegaard, 1990, 367).

This understanding is congruent with Vygotsky's belief in the socio-historical-cultural origin of mind and knowledge. It also assumes an acceptance of the Vygotskian principle that while learning is in advance of development, so should instruction be, if it is to assist learning.

In their study, Tharp and Gallimore (1988, 42 - 43) note that in the majority of schools and classrooms, creation and utilisation of the ZPD as a pedagogical principal and strategy is noticeably absent. The only method of altering this status quo, argue Tharp and Gallimore, is by ensuring that teachers learn good pedagogy:

They must learn the professional skills of assisting performance and learn to apply them at a level far beyond that required in private life . Also, they must master the subject matter they are to teach

(Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 43).

2.4 Teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms

From the literature surveyed for this study, it appears that South Africa is far from unique in terms of the multilingual nature of many of its classrooms. However, the general trend appears to be that in spite of the multilingual composition of classrooms, teaching usually takes place in one or two languages. Thus, monolingual or bilingual - rather than multilingual - education

are the two models which dominate in multilingual classrooms. This is not to deny the attempts made to affirm pupils' home language/s by using them in materials displayed on classroom walls and for social interaction, as well as by acquiring story and information books in these languages (Freeman and Freeman, 1993, 554 - 558; Perez, 1979, 162). However, the important point is that *teaching* is offered in only one or two of the languages in the classroom in South Africa. It is to this phenomenon that the term 'bilingual education' refers.

There appears to be little research into teacher-pupil interaction during the teaching-learning moment in multilingual classrooms. Moll explains:

In general, the dominant issues in bilingual education are related to English language learning and assimilation of students into the mainstream, with scant attention paid to academic development or broader social and instructional dynamics. Typical questions include how to determine language dominance; how long the first language should be used in instruction; when to mainstream or transfer students to English-only instruction; and, of course, what sorts of language tests to use to evaluate the effectiveness of one programme versus another

(Moll, 1992, 20).

2.4.1 Surveying international research

In Western countries there appear to be three chief models of bilingual education provision - "immersion", "transitional" and "two-way" programmes - none of which has proven to be the most effective across the full range of socio-economic-political school settings (Fitzgerald, 1993, 640).

The first model of bilingual education is often referred to as an 'immersion' model since all teaching and classroom activities are conducted in a language of instruction which is different to the home language of at least some of the pupils in the class. ('Home language' is used to refer to the language that children learn and speak in the context of family life - their primary or first language. The singular form of the noun is used in order to increase the readability of the text and not to deny the reality that many children use more than one language at home and are thus, bilingual before they enter school. Although children may be bilingual, there may still

be a mismatch between the languages they speak and understand, and the language of instruction at school.) Sometimes, within the immersion model, additional language support programmes are provided for speakers of languages other than the language of instruction. These 'pull out' support programmes are also conducted exclusively in the language of instruction which is the target language (ibid., 640). It is somewhat ironic that immersion programmes are always described as a type of bilingual education provision given that in these programmes *only* the language of instruction is used by the teacher thus effectively making them *monolingual* programmes.

Met (1987) argues that total immersion programmes are the most effective way of developing second (additional) language proficiency because of the level of exposure pupils get to the target language. Canada has yielded particularly successful results from its immersion programmes (Hakuta, 1986, 227 - 228) to the extent that many in the United States have proposed the increased implementation of immersion programmes for language-minority pupils (ibid., 228 - 229). What appears to be of critical importance to the success of immersion programmes is the teachers' competence in both the pupils' home language and the language of instruction.

Although not a study into bilingual education, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement's (IEA) study into the average levels of reading literacy across thirty-five countries produced an interesting finding which challenges the assumption that instruction in a language other than pupils' home language is a recipe for poor school achievement. In the IEA study, Singapore pupils achieved high levels of literacy despite the fact that both the language of the tests administered and the language of instruction was English which was not the home language of seventy percent of the pupils (Elley, 1992, xi and 17 - 40). A more detailed exploration of this achievement may yield some important lessons for South Africa.

The second model of bilingual education provision consists of 'transitional' programmes in which the home languages of pupils "are used as necessary to introduce content material and to begin to develop the literacy competencies that will presumably help children learn to read

and write in English” (Spener, 1991, 439). In other words, pupils’ home languages are utilised merely until they are able to learn and be taught exclusively in the school’s official language of instruction (the target language). In the United States, transitional bilingual programmes are federally funded and thus implemented on a large scale (*ibid.*, 439). In South Africa, a transitional model of bilingual education was evidenced in the language policy of the ex-Department of Education and Training and the ‘independent homelands’ education departments. (Research conducted into the effects of this policy will be discussed in 2.4.2 below.)

A longitudinal study of bilingual education was conducted by David Ramirez in the United States from 1983 to 1991. This study looked at the impact of English instruction on first-language Spanish speakers in fifty-one schools in different states (De Klerk, 1995a, 57). Of particular interest is the fact that Ramirez studied the impact of English instruction across three different types of bilingual programmes *viz.* English immersion, Spanish instruction for forty minutes per day for two or three years (an early-exit transitional programme) and Spanish instruction for forty percent of the school day until the end of the sixth year of school (a late-exit transitional programme). De Klerk describes the findings:

The study showed that, across the board, children in the straight-for-English schools performed weakest and the late-exit schools scored highest when all groups were tested in English. It demonstrated that straight-for-English and early transition-to-English models are only viable up to Standard 1 [the third year of school]

(De Klerk, 1995a, 57).

The third model consists of ‘two-way’ programmes which develop pupils’ competence in their home language and an additional language (*ibid.*, 57). These programmes are based on the theory of additive bilingualism which proposes that the only method of ensuring that pupils become truly bilingual is to continue to develop pupils’ home language and to introduce another language alongside this one.

Programmes which operate within an additive bilingual model are detailed far less often in research literature. However, where the implementation of these programmes has been documented (Hakuta, 1986; Berchuck, 1974; Tway, 1982; De Klerk, 1995a) they appear to

share a common result: use of the pupils' home language as well as their second language as the languages of instruction result in 'balanced' bilingualism (well developed skills both in home language and the target or additional language) for the pupils in these programmes (De Klerk, 1995a, 53). De Klerk also claims other successes for two-way bilingual programmes:

[T]hese programmes seem to be successful because they all incorporate elements of multiculturalism in their curricula as well as in their daily activities; *they are staffed by well-trained teachers involved in on-going professional development*; and there is home-school collaboration with strong emphasis on parent involvement in their children's education

(De Klerk, 1995a, 58, my emphasis).

Although there are apparent differences between bilingual programmes, they share a common assumption about language learning which impacts on the way in which pupils learn to read (and write) in their second language. Bilingual programmes assume that listening, speaking, reading and writing are separate functions of language which are acquired sequentially.

Fitzgerald explains:

[Bilingual programmes] tend to be based on a view that minimizes the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading, and writing; and they often focus on *spoken* proficiency in English. Instruction is often based on the assumption that progress in reading and writing is directly dependent on progress in speaking and listening. The "listening-speaking first" approach has been based on early research on the mechanics of language and language learning, and on earlier views of reading and writing as symbol-to-speech translation

(Fitzgerald, 1993, 640, original emphasis).

This approach to instruction in bilingual programmes is mirrored in the research concerns of studies which analyse the effectiveness of particular bilingual programmes. The recommendations of these studies are most often based on the same assumptions which shape the programmes themselves. The extract below is from the recommendations of Verhoeven's longitudinal study (1990) in which he compared the way in which children learn to read in their home language, to the way in which children learn to read in a second language. The extract illustrates the match between the assumptions of bilingual programmes and the research into them:

Children should be helped to build up oral skills in a second language before reading instruction is started. The better oral skills are developed, the greater

the chance for a child to make correct inferences from literacy instruction. Furthermore, reading texts should be matched to the oral skills of children (Verhoeven, 1990, 110).

While the above research is not without significance, what is noticeably absent - yet critically important - is a detailed analysis of what it is that teachers *say and do* in classrooms where bilingual projects have been successful in terms of both the language and conceptual development of pupils. Without this information it is doubtful whether any of the projects are replicable. Indeed, without this information, it is difficult to make an informed decision about whether a project is worth replicating.

There exists a substantial - and increasing - body of research into the creation and use of the ZPD in classroom instruction. However, little of this research has been conducted in multilingual classrooms and even fewer research studies have explored teaching and learning from a Vygotskian perspective in multilingual primary school classrooms. Perhaps the two best known exceptions to this are the studies conducted by Tharp and Gallimore (1988), and Wells and Chang-Wells (1992).

In *Rousing Minds to Life*, Tharp and Gallimore (1988, 9 and 113 - 129) describe the Kamehameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP) of which they were part for ten years. KEEP was established in order to research and develop a programme which would improve the cognitive and educational development of ethnic minority children. A demonstration school was established in Honolulu which was attended by Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian children. A further sixty classrooms from Hawaiian public schools as well as schools on a Navajo reservation in Arizona and in Los Angeles were included in the programme. By drawing on Vygotskian theory, Tharp and Gallimore develop the notion of “the school as an institution for assisting performance” (ibid., 9) and thus, they focus a great deal of attention on teacher assistance of pupil performance (ibid., 120). In order to explicate performance assistance within the ZPD, Tharp and Gallimore quote extensively from the transcripts of classroom lessons observed as part of the research focus of KEEP.

The two extracts below provide a sample of the examples of performance assistance (what

teachers say and do) gathered as part of KEEP. In the first extract, the teacher was using a Language Experience Approach for the teaching of literacy. In this approach, pupils and teacher engage in a joint experience (or activity) which serves as the basis for the generation of text by the pupils which they then learn to read. The activity engaged in by this group of six pupils and their teacher in a Honolulu school, is the making of peanut butter and jam (jelly) sandwiches. The teacher in this extract uses modelling as the means of assisting pupil talk in English and pupils' ability to predict the next step in the sandwich making process:

Mikleka: Rub it on the bread.

Teacher: Rub it on the bread. Or I could say, "I would spread it on the bread. I am spreading it on the bread."

A moment later:

Teacher: And then what'll I'll do with it?

Jude: Put it on top the bread.

Mileka: Rub it.

Teacher: Okay, you said rub it. Now what's the other word we were using for...

[Jude, Mileka and Lynn simultaneously]:

Jude: Spread it on top the bread.

Mileka: Spread out.

Lynn: Spread it out

(Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 145).

Thus, the teacher models appropriate use of language ("I am spreading it on the bread") as well as predictive behaviour ("And then what'll I'll do with it?").

In a second example of mediation in the ZPD from KEEP, the teacher is assisting the pupils to develop a conceptual understanding of the term 'hero'. The pupils have read a story about John Glenn and this is followed by a discussion of the story which develops into one about naming examples of heroes in order to define 'hero'. Prior to this extract the pupils have decided that

John Glenn, Superman, He-Man and Apache Chief are all heroes.

- Teacher: What could Superman do that would make him a hero?
- Jimmie: Bullets! *[In Navajo: He dodges the bullets!]*
- Teacher: Oh, he doesn't dodge any bullets.
- Nick: Helps people.
- Teacher: Who helps people?
- Nick: Superman.
- Jimmie: He-man.
- Teacher: Superman?
- Nick: And He-Man.
- Teacher: What about the chief you were talking about?
- Nick: *[Explains in Navajo that he saw "Apache Chief" on television]*
- Teacher: What does he do?
- Jimmie: *[Explains in Navajo by citing an incident]*
- Nick: He helps people.
- Teacher: Yeah.
- Nick: *[Says softly in Navajo that Superman helps people too]*
- Teacher: I think that it's good because ... if somebody helps people, then I would think he's a hero.
- Nick: A hero.
- Jimmie: Apache Chief!
- Teacher: Yes. He used to help people

(Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 68).

In this extract, the teacher makes use of 'assistance' questions ("What could Superman do that would make him a hero?"; "Who helps people?") and 'feedback' ("Oh, he doesn't dodge any bullets."; "I think that is good because...if somebody helps people, then I would think he's a hero") in order to assist the pupils' to create a definition for the term, 'hero'. From the teacher's interaction in the extract, it would also appear that he/she is able to speak and understand both the language of learning and the pupils' home language, Navajo. Thus, the

teacher uses performance assistance mechanisms together with her understanding of the languages in his/her classroom in order to develop the cognitive structure of hero (ibid., 69).

Wells and Chang-Wells (1992) conducted a longitudinal, collaborative action research project between 1985 and 1989 in order to

gain a better understanding of the way in which...children [from ethnolinguistic minority backgrounds] experienced the opportunities and demands of the curriculum, as presented to them in classrooms in which English was the sole medium of instruction, and how their different experiences were related to their progress and achievement

(Wells and Chang-Wells, 1992, 7).

Their research took place in four schools in Toronto with a total of eighteen children being drawn from three different grades in each school. The children who participated in this project for three years were speakers of Chinese, Greek, Portuguese and English. Data was gathered from tape recorded classroom observations, tests, and interviews with the children, their parents and teachers. The project produced comparisons between the pupils in the four schools selected as well as case studies of individual children from each of the language groups (ibid., 6 - 10). *Constructing Knowledge Together* is a collection of papers which express the authors' theoretical understandings of the ways in which schools might become 'centres of inquiry' (ibid., 24). Throughout the text, examples of the way in which collaborative talk can be used in linguistically diverse classrooms as a means of performance assistance in the ZPD are provided. These examples are drawn from the research project described above.

One such example is quoted below. Prior to this extract the class has begun to investigate the Yukon as a result of reading about this geographical area in a poem. The pupils are engaged in a variety of different group projects related in some way to the poem (ibid., 53). João and Eric have decided to build a model of the Yukon (ibid., 54) but they have not begun to construct it yet. In the extract, the teacher uses questioning (assistance questions) in order to assist the pupils in addressing "the problem of articulating a statement of inquiry" (ibid., 65):

- Teacher: What questions are you answering particularly?
- J: Um - ... Like "Where did they get the name from?" so we wanted - we wanted to do the model.
- Teacher: So you - you've changed your topic a little bit. So you're making a model of Yukon, showing a town?
- J: Yeh.
- Teacher: And some of the things you've learned about what it's like to live in the Yukon, is that it?
[During the next few turns Eric is trying to secure the teacher's attention by calling her name. He has been left out of the preceding discussion.]
- J: But the mountain is small for the size of the town like the mountain...
- Teacher: Which town is this? Is it a particular town? D'you know the name of it?
- J: It's the Yukon.
- Teacher: That's the name - that's the name of the big territory. Can you find the name of a town?
- E: We don't know.
[Teacher hands book to João and talks to Sandra briefly while João and Eric consult the book.]
- Teacher: OK *[turning back to boys]* This is a map that shows very few towns. There's one.
- J: I know, Whitehorse.
- E: Whitehorse.
- Teacher: Whitehorse, that's a famous town in the Yukon. Uh-huh. Whitehorse

(Wells and Chang-Wells, 1992, 63 - 64).

The teacher's questions serve to define more clearly what the boys' model will represent. However, at the same time they model the type of questions the boys need to be asking themselves ("What questions are you answering particularly?") both within this project and within the context of future projects. What the teacher says serves to mark the distinction between the "action-goal" (or making the model - "What questions are you answering particularly?") and the "topic-goal" (or that which is directing their inquiry - "So you're making a model of the Yukon showing a town?") (ibid., 65). Once the teacher has assisted the boys with framing the goals of their project, he/she then assists the boys in revising their original plan ("Which town is this? Is it a particular town? D'you know the name of it?").

Vygotsky identifies the learning of a second (or additional) language as an example of the acquisition of scientific concepts which promote the development of higher mental functions:

If the development of the native language begins with free, spontaneous use of speech and is culminated in the conscious realisation of linguistic forms and their mastery, then development of a foreign language begins with conscious realisation of language and arbitrary command of it and culminates in spontaneous, free speech

(Vygotsky in John-Steiner, 1985, 350).

However, he also recognised that pupils learning an additional language bring to this learning a conceptual understanding of language as a system of meaning which has developed from their use and knowledge of their first language. In order to gain control of the additional language, pupils apply their understanding of language to the 'new' language (John-Steiner, 1985, 350 - 351). The examples quoted from Tharp and Gallimore (1988) and Wells and Chang-Wells (1992) provide useful illustrations of teachers' mediating in the ZPD in the full confidence that given effective and authentic models of the classroom use of English, pupils for whom English is an additional language *will* apply their knowledge of language systems and acquire the language necessary for gaining control of their own learning. Each teacher creates and makes use of the ZPD in such a way as to assist the pupils' learning - rather than to interfere with it by focussing on the mechanics of language production.

Teaching in linguistically diverse (multilingual) classrooms presents particular challenges for teachers as they attempt to assist pupil performance. The literature suggests that while they

may be able to draw on the same body of pedagogical knowledge as their colleagues who teach monolingual classes, they are required to draw on a broader range of pedagogical practices.

2.4.2 Surveying South African research

Research into bilingual primary education in South Africa - apart from one or two key pieces of research - has been particularly thin when considered alongside a fairly long tradition of Afrikaans/English bilingual schooling. A 1938 survey by the national Bureau of Educational and Social Research into bilingualism in home and school collected data from eighteen thousand pupils across South Africa (De Klerk, 1995a, 58). Results showed that

bilingual schools of all models facilitated learning of the second language. It was also found that these schools encouraged communication and cultural exchange between Afrikaans- and English-speaking children. There was no evidence of adverse effects of two languages on the children's intelligence
(De Klerk, 1995a, 58).

This last point is worth noting given that all American research prior to 1960 was based on the assumption that bilingual children were inferior (in terms of intelligence) to monolingual children.

The most extensive and recent piece of South African research into bilingual education is the Institute for the Study of English in Africa's (ISEA) Threshold Project conducted between 1985 and 1988. The issue which this project addressed was the "nature of the language and learning difficulties that Standard Three children experience when they change from the mother tongue to English as a medium of instruction" (Macdonald, 1990, 1). In this model of bilingual education 'black' primary school children are provided with instruction in English (as a second language) for four years before the change to English as language of instruction is made at the beginning of their fifth school year (ibid., 93). The research into this learning-teaching situation yielded the result that 'black' children in state primary schools scored thirty to forty percent lower than what children in non-racial schools evidenced as being capable of (ibid., 40). In comparing the results, Macdonald interprets that

the latter group of children, with a high level of English proficiency, have intellectual energy - or cognitive capacity - free to attend to the formal learning

demands of their tasks, which include concept and skills development. The black children in the state systems, on the other hand would keep finding that language learning constraints interfere with concept learning. Their attention would inevitably be drawn to the form of what they are learning, rather than the underlying concept and skills

(Macdonald, 1990, 40).

This finding completely supports the notion proposed by Cummins of two aspects of language proficiency viz. Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) which refer to language which is context embedded, and Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) which refers to language that is removed from context and utilised in more school-type tasks (Young, 1995, 67; Hakuta, 1986, 217; Macdonald, 1990, 51 - 53). This notion is critical in understanding the task which faces teachers in linguistically diverse classes if they are to develop pupils' conceptual thinking.

Given the lack of research into multilingual education in South Africa, it is intended that my study will contribute to explicating teacher-pupil interaction in linguistically diverse classrooms in South Africa, and in so doing, contribute to an identification of the factors which make up effective pedagogy in these educational settings.

As my study limits itself to teacher-pupil interaction in reading lessons where a concept of print is isolated for examination, it is necessary that I reveal the theoretical tradition from which I draw inspiration and develop an argument for using the notion of 'concept of print' as a legitimate point to study what teachers say and do in linguistically diverse classrooms.

2.5 A perspective on the teaching of reading

The emphasis that Vygotsky places on language may be linked to his notion of "spontaneous" and "scientific" concepts. Like all knowledge, Vygotsky understands conceptual knowledge to be socially, culturally and historically bound. However, spontaneous concepts are rooted in context and learnt primarily through speech (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 107). A spontaneous concept "is purely denotative in the sense of being defined in terms of perceptual or functional or contextual properties of its referent" (Panofsky et al, 1990, 251). Thus, the language used

to explicate everyday concepts remains inextricably linked to that which it represents and “attention is always centred on the object to which the concept refers, never on the thought itself” (Vygotsky, 1962, 92).

Scientific concepts are less context embedded since they “typically begin without any direct encounter with real objects but through instruction, most usually in school settings through collaboration between teacher and children about the concepts” (Newman and Holzman, 1993, 64). It is from the development of this form of conceptual understanding, that individuals develop their higher mental functions and, argues Vygotsky, it is the unique business of schools to develop these functions in children:

Schooling detaches the word from its designatum and attaches it to a generalisation. This shift is of profound importance because only if the word is freed of its sensory impedimenta can it be manipulated voluntarily and with conscious awareness

(Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 194, original emphasis).

Vygotsky’s analysis of conceptual learning includes the important aspect that it relies on tasks which are not embedded in an everyday context. This is not to imply that there is no relationship between scientific and spontaneous concepts but rather that over time - and dependent upon instruction - scientific concepts acquire concrete meanings and spontaneous concepts are subjected to children’s conscious strategies so that eventually, both types of concept are able to be utilised in similar ways (Panofsky et al, 1990, 252).

Arguably, the most important scientific concept mediated to children in school settings, is the concept of print. Developing a concept of print is central to becoming literate (being able to use reading and writing for a variety of purposes) and, since print mediates many of the other scientific concepts which pupils encounter at school, to success at learning. Thus, developing a concept of print ensures that pupils are able to “join the school society of learners who use their literacy as currency, as the medium of communication, as tools of thought and the means of deep symbolic play” (Meek et al, 1983, 1).

Literacy teaching therefore needs to focus on mediating a concept of print to pupils in the most effective and efficient way possible. The question which this raises is “what counts (socially,

culturally and historically) as a concept of print?”. This is a critical question since a teacher’s theory of reading and of writing will influence pupils’ developing conceptual understanding in so far as a teacher’s understanding limits or enhances his/her ability to provide performance assistance in the ZPD.

What teachers need to understand is that when good readers read, they make sense of text (Goodman, 1996; Smith, 1978) and that meaning is created by an engagement between what the reader brings to the text in terms of prior knowledge and the author’s intended meaning. This understanding draws on a psycholinguistic theory of reading which defines reading as a process in which “readers apply their knowledge about language and their knowledge about the world to text, in order to make meaning” (Flanagan, 1995, 13). From a psycholinguistic perspective then, the reading process is a holistic one employing the use of a number of skills simultaneously in order to make meaning from print (ibid., 12). This implies that the teaching of reading has to enable pupils to focus on making meaning. Smith (1978) explains:

To understand the teacher’s role one must look at the child’s needs. Children have to make sense of reading so teachers must make sure that reading - and learning to read - makes sense to children. Children learn to read by reading
(Smith, 1978, 137).

In order to engage with text so that meaning can be made, readers need an understanding of the way in which print works. In other words, they need to develop a concept of print.

The insights that “the visible marks that are written language [print] are meaningful, that there is some point in distinguishing them at all” (Smith, 1985b, 117) and that print is purposeful in that, for example, it tells a story or conveys information (Flanagan, 1995, 21) are critical to developing an understanding of the way in which print works. A concept of print also includes an understanding of “the directional rules of print,...the relationship between pictures/graphs/diagrams and print,...the elements of printed language,... and the sequence of a book” (ibid., 21). However, these understandings are not hierarchical neither is it possible to separate them into a list of items which need to be taught before pupils are allowed to engage in reading text. These insights are gained in the process of attempting to make meaning from text. “There is very little we can learn about reading without reading” (Smith, 1985b, 116).

The extract below provides an example of a teacher mediating a concept of print as she reads a story, *Blueberries for Sal*, to her pupils. Through questioning, the teacher draws the pupils' attention to the way in which books are structured and invites the pupils to make predictions about the events and characters in the story by interpreting the pictures she shows them.

- Teacher: Let's preview the pictures here. Who do you think this might be? [*She displays the endpaper and points to Sal's mother who is in the kitchen pouring blueberries into a canning jar.*]
- Pupil 1: They're going to make berry pie!
- Pupil 2: The mama.
- Teacher: And who might this be?
- Pupil 3: The - the - Sal!
- Teacher: Very good. Do you think they live in the city or the country?
- Pupils: [*overlapping comments*] Country. City. They might be both.
- Teacher: Country? What makes you think they live in the country?
- Pupil: 'Cause there's a lot of trees.
- Teacher: A lot of trees. Okay. Do you see any big, tall buildings and skyscrapers like we've talked about in our social studies book?
- Pupils: No.
- Pupil: They live in the country.
- Pupil: They live in the forest.
- Teacher: Here's the title page, *Blueberries for Sal*. This is by Robert McCloskey. He's written some other stories that we have read. Raise your hand if you're heard *Make Way for Ducklings*

(Barrentine, 1996, 39).

This teacher assists her pupils in developing their concept of print by modelling that illustrations may provide text cues (“Let’s preview the pictures here. Who do you think this might be?”), by asking questions which require pupils to draw on previous engagements with other texts (“Do you see any big, tall buildings and skyscrapers like we’ve talked about in our social studies book?”) and by talking about the different elements of the book (“Here’s the title page”). Most importantly, this teacher works at developing pupils’ concept of print within a context of meaning making.

However, as Smith (1984b) notes, in most schools, the pedagogical practices associated with the teaching of reading “rarely engage children in meaningful reading and writing activities” (Smith, 1984b, 10). Instead, reading is taught through programmes based on the assumption that “literacy can be taught to a child one predetermined skill at a time, and that a child who masters every exercise to a criterion level will eventually become a reader”(ibid., 10). Within this understanding of the reading process, meaning-making is the final ‘skill’ to be learned in the process of learning to read.

In *Children’s Literacy in Latin America*, Ferreiro (1992) discusses the failure of this “mechanistic” view of literacy within the context of a fifty percent failure rate in the first year of school in Latin America. A mechanistic view of literacy

is devoid of any actual linguistic content regarding the written word, makes a systematic confusion between writing and the reproduction of graphic forms and also confuses a true reading act (which implies interpretation to be real) with the reproduction out loud of a series of letters

(Ferreiro, 1992, 43).

Perera (1984) picks up on this view and highlights how very little such practices have to do with reading and writing (and thus, to the concept of print which underpins these activities) by reminding us that although many people may master the sound-symbol correspondence, many do not go on to become self-regulating (independent) readers (Perera, 1984, 273). Ferreiro argues that rather than assisting young children from disadvantaged social groups to acquire literacy, mechanistic views of literacy and their resulting methodologies actually impede children’s learning (Ferreiro, 1992, 42).

Smith (1984b) supports this view when he states that “none of the drills, exercises and tests of formal programmatic instruction demonstrate that written language [print] is meaningful, or useful” (Smith, 1984b, 10). If teachers do not provide pupils with accurate models of the way in which print - and literacy - work, then it is hardly surprising that many pupils fail to develop the ability to engage with print in a way which supports the development of their higher mental functions. As Frank Smith writes,

children will fail to learn to read who do not want to read, who cannot make sense of it, or who find the price of learning too high. *They will fail if they get the wrong idea of what reading is about*

(Smith, 1978, 9, my emphasis).

Thus, engaging with print is essentially a meaning-making activity and assisting pupils' performance as they learn to engage with print must reflect this. Smith (1978) emphasises the way in which the non-visual information we have acquired assists us in the process of reading by limiting the number of interpretations possible from the visual information with which we are confronted. He goes further to explicate the reading process by arguing that reading is about asking questions of written text whilst understanding or meaning-making is achieved as these questions are answered (*ibid.*, 105 -107). Gallimore and Tharp put it differently:

Reading and writing prepare the child for receiving schooled concepts. Reading is both the condition and the process of acquiring meaning. To learn to read is to learn to comprehend, and to teach reading means to teach comprehension
(Gallimore and Tharp, 1990, 194).

There is common agreement within this perspective that the teaching of reading should be directed at the creation of meaning from text right from the initial stages of reading instruction. Thus, it is within a context of providing opportunities for pupils to make meaning from text that teachers mediate a concept of print.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

This study is a descriptive analysis of the interaction between pupils and teachers in linguistically diverse classrooms. Its purpose is to explicate what it is that teachers do and say in order to teach a concept of print in multilingual classrooms.

Since the study hopes to provide a detailed picture of a few teachers' classroom practice, the study is most comfortably situated within a qualitative research paradigm. Qualitative research places "an emphasis on holistic and qualitative information, and the purposes of research are to provide understanding and an interpretative account of educational phenomena" (Keeves, 1988a, xvi). Four case studies together with data collection techniques, which assist with the creation of a detailed description and analysis, comprise the study.

In *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Stake identifies three types of case study viz. intrinsic, instrumental and collective (Stake, 1994, 237). This project takes the form of an instrumental case study in which

a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or refinement of theory. The case is of secondary interest; it plays a supportive role, facilitating our understanding of something else

(Stake, 1994, 237).

It also draws on collective case study methods which Stake defines as "instrumental study extended to several cases" (ibid., 237). It is the intention of the project to contribute to current understandings of the tasks of teaching and learning in multilingual classroom settings. Thus each of the cases is selected and described because it is able to contribute to the understanding of a particular phenomenon rather than because the case itself is of intrinsic interest. Four cases - rather than one - have been selected for study since this will allow for comparison across the cases which, in turn, will add to the 'thickness' of the description.

3.1 The Sample

3.1.1 The Selection of Schools and Teachers

I chose to select schools from those that previously fell under the control of the House of Assembly (historically ‘white’ schools) and House of Representatives (historically ‘coloured’ schools). In terms of my teaching experience, I am most familiar with the socio-historic circumstances of these schools. They are also becoming increasingly multilingual in pupil composition (see Chapter 1 for details). This means that while the home language of some of the pupils matches the language of instruction of the school, increasing numbers of pupils in these schools learn through a language which is not their own. It is precisely this situation that I wish to describe.

Schools which previously fell under the Department of Education and Training (historically ‘black’ schools) were excluded from this study for two reasons. In the Western Cape, the medium of instruction in Grade One is Xhosa. As I do not speak or understand this language sufficiently well to translate classroom interactions myself, I would have had to rely on the accuracy of an interpreter’s translation and to take into account the possibility of another layer of interpretation between mine and the actual classroom interactions. Secondly, Grade One classrooms in historically ‘black’ schools are generally not as linguistically diverse in nature as Grade One classrooms in other schools. Even though in some historically ‘black’ schools, children may learn through the medium of English, the home language of the majority of the children is Xhosa so there is little diversity in terms of the home language composition of the pupils.

Having made the decision to select only ex-House of Assembly and ex-House of Representatives schools, criteria which affected my final selection of schools were:

- the extent to which a school would allow me ease of access to its Grade One teacher/s during the first six months of 1997
- the proximity of a school to Cape Town since I had neither the time nor financial resources to travel long distances
- the extent to which a school’s Grade One classes were linguistically diverse
- the extent to which a school enjoyed a good reputation in terms of the reading ability

of the majority of its pupils. In other words, I wanted to locate examples of potentially good practice.

I began the process of selecting individual schools by asking colleagues to recommend teachers whose practice they respected. At the same time, I approached the principals of high schools which have reputations as 'good' schools (based on their matriculation results) and asked them to identify which of their main feeder schools they considered to be institutions of quality teaching and learning. Based on this investigation I identified ten primary schools - five ex-House of Assembly and five ex-House of Representatives schools - for possible inclusion in the study.

The next step was to attempt to arrange classroom visits to the Grade One classrooms of these schools. I was unable to visit all ten schools and five schools had to be excluded from the study without initial classroom visits taking place (see Appendix A for details). All Grade One classrooms in the five remaining schools were visited. Four teachers were finally selected for inclusion in the study.

3.1.2 A Description of the Sample

While each teacher teaches at a different school, all four teachers are Grade One teachers at schools in which the medium of instruction is English. In addition to English, these teachers speak and understand Afrikaans. They all have pupils in their classes whose home language they do not speak or understand themselves. Schools 1 and 3 use the *Longman Book Project* (Maskew Millar Longman) for reading instruction in Grade One, while Schools 2 and 4 use the *Kathy and Mark* series (Nisbet Publishers).

Teacher A teaches at an ex-House of Assembly school (School 1) situated in an upper middle class, historically 'white' residential area. She has thirty-two children in her class. The home languages in this classroom are Xhosa, Chinese, Afrikaans, Afrikaans and English, and English. The home language spoken by the majority of children in this class is English and Teacher A uses only English in the classroom. Teacher A spends between six and eight hours per week on literacy (reading and writing) activities.

Teacher B teaches at an ex-House of Assembly school (School 2) which was previously attended by 'white' working class children. School 2 is situated in an historically 'white' residential area although this area was 'mixed' long before the repealing of the Group Areas Act. Teacher B has thirty-eight children in her class. Most children in the class speak Xhosa (sixteen children) or English (eighteen children) as their home language. The home languages of the other children are French, French and English, and, Afrikaans and English. Teacher B uses English in almost all her interactions with the pupils. (She does sing some songs in Xhosa and she uses Xhosa in some of her purely social interactions with her pupils.) She has a Xhosa speaking assistant who spends part of the day in her classroom. The assistant acts as translator for the teacher. Teacher B spends approximately four hours per week on literacy activities.

Teacher C teaches at an ex-House of Representatives school (School 3) situated in a middle class, historically 'coloured' residential area. This teacher has forty children in her class, twenty of whom speak English as their home language. The home languages of the other children are English and Afrikaans, Xhosa, Afrikaans and Xhosa, and Afrikaans. While Teacher C uses English as the medium of instruction, she has begun to obtain the Xhosa translation of some words from the stories that she teaches. Teacher C spends approximately six hours per week on literacy activities.

Teacher D teaches at an ex-House of Representatives school (School 4) situated in a largely working class, historically 'coloured' residential area. She has thirty-two children in her class, twenty-five of whom speak English as their home language. The other children speak Afrikaans or Xhosa as their home language. Teacher D teaches in English and spends approximately five hours per week on literacy activities.

Table A below summarises the above information and includes details of the teachers' classroom teaching experience.

TABLE A: SAMPLE INFORMATION

	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
School	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4
Grade	1	1	1	1
Teaching experience at this grade	5 years	12 years	3 years	12 years
Total teaching experience	5 years	33 years	30 years	17 years
No. of pupils	32	38	40	32
Pupils' home languages*	Xhosa (1), English (24), Afrikaans (2), Afrikaans/English (3), Chinese (2)	Xhosa (16), English (18), Afrikaans/English (2), French (1), French/English (1)	Xhosa (3), English (19), English/Afrikaans (13), Afrikaans/Xhosa (1), Afrikaans (4).	Xhosa (4), English (23), Afrikaans (5)
Language of instruction	English	English	English	English
Reading instruction programmes used	Longman Book Project	Kathy and Mark	Longman Book Project	Kathy and Mark

* The number of children who speak these languages as home languages is reflected in brackets after the language.

3.2 Data collection techniques

The study makes use of a variety of data collection techniques in order to ensure the level of detail appropriate to case study. In total, seven different instruments were used for data collection. Four of these were used to gather data which focuses on the way in which teachers organise their classrooms and utilise reading resources; what teachers intend to teach and why they choose to teach these things; and how they teach so that their pupils develop reading strategies which enable them to become independent readers (see 3.2.1 and 3.2.3 below). The other three instruments were utilised in order to attempt to establish the causal relation between what teachers teach (what they say and do) and what their pupils learn (see 3.2.4 and 3.2.5). Each of the techniques and instruments is described below.

3.2.1 Classroom Observation

The classroom observations spanned a five month period (February to June 1997) and each teacher was observed teaching a reading lesson at least three times during this period. Observation which is non-interventionist in character was used in this study. In other words, the observer neither manipulated nor stimulated the subjects (Adler and Adler, 1994, 378).

Before each observation began, a structured pre-observation schedule was completed. The information recorded on this schedule was intended to be used to contextualise the data collected during the observation session. Table B sets out the information to be collected with the pre-observation schedule.

TABLE B : PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1	How many children are present?
2	How are they seated? (Indicate non-English speakers with a X)
3	How are the children grouped?
4	Is this a small group lesson or a whole class lesson?
5	If it is a small group lesson, what are the other children doing?
6	What is the teacher teaching?
7	What are the intended learning outcomes?
8	Are there books available to the children?
9	What languages are these books written in?

In addition to the pre-observation schedule, a structured observation schedule was used. The first lesson that I observed each teacher teach was used to assist with the drawing up of the observation schedule for use in later observation sessions. The observation schedule was used to structure my observations since “without *some* perspective or, at the very least, a set of animating questions, there is nothing to report. Contrary to crude empiricists, the facts *never* speak for themselves” (Silverman, 1993, 36, original emphasis). The observation schedule, then, was used to identify particular instances of teacher talk (saying) and behaviour (doing) during the course of a reading lesson. Inasmuch as it focuses the observer’s attention on the teacher’s approach to the teaching of reading, and talk and behaviour associated with the

creation of a zone of proximal development, the schedule narrows the scope of the observation. However, it does not seek to describe in any detail, the instances in which the zone of proximal development was created. This is the purpose of the video observation schedule described later in this section (3.2.2). The categories and items on the classroom observation schedule are detailed in Table C below.

TABLE C: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE: EXPLORING THE INITIAL TEACHING OF READING IN MULTILINGUAL CLASSES	
<p>1. SETTING THE SCENE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> teacher states purpose of reading activity <input type="checkbox"/> teacher engages children's attention <input type="checkbox"/> teacher gives instructions <input type="checkbox"/> children work in small groups with teacher <input type="checkbox"/> children work in small groups without teacher <input type="checkbox"/> children work in pairs <input type="checkbox"/> children work individually 	<p>2. APPROACH TO TEACHING OF READING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> teacher focuses on teaching phonic knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> teacher demonstrates reading in linguistic units <input type="checkbox"/> teacher focuses on look-and-say/word recognition <input type="checkbox"/> teacher focuses on meaning of words <input type="checkbox"/> children have to repeat words (drill) <input type="checkbox"/> teacher focuses on creating meaning from text/story as a whole <input type="checkbox"/> children read whole sentences <input type="checkbox"/> children read extended text <input type="checkbox"/> teacher demonstrates reading in units of meaning <input type="checkbox"/> teacher interacts with print/text, models enjoyment
<p>3. TEACHING THE CONVENTIONS OF PRINT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> indicates left → right approach <input type="checkbox"/> indicates structure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> sentence <input type="checkbox"/> question <input type="checkbox"/> punctuation <input type="checkbox"/> indicates title and author <input type="checkbox"/> indicates page numbers 	<p>4. STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH UNKNOWN WORDS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> teacher tells children to sound out words <input type="checkbox"/> children sound out words <input type="checkbox"/> teacher tells children to match unrecognised word with those in word-box/controlled vocabulary list <input type="checkbox"/> children refer to word-box/controlled vocabulary list <input type="checkbox"/> teacher tells children to use illustrations for cues <input type="checkbox"/> children use illustrations as print cues <input type="checkbox"/> teacher demonstrates how to use context to 'guess' unfamiliar words <input type="checkbox"/> children use context to 'guess' unfamiliar words <input type="checkbox"/> teacher models predictive behaviour

activities

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE: EXPLORING THE INITIAL TEACHING OF READING IN MULTILINGUAL CLASSES	
<p>5. CREATING AND USING THE ZPD</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> chooses materials of appropriate level <input type="checkbox"/> 'unpacking' from a child's response <input type="checkbox"/> opens up from another child's comment <input type="checkbox"/> elaborates on pupil response, <input type="checkbox"/> uses questioning to probe children's understanding <input type="checkbox"/> translates key words into home languages of child/ren <input type="checkbox"/> speaks in the home language of child/ren as well as in the language of instruction <input type="checkbox"/> builds on children's knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> participates with children to maximise participation <input type="checkbox"/> collaborates in working out an understanding of the text <input type="checkbox"/> makes explicit the way in which a child/children have interacted with text <input type="checkbox"/> addresses class <input type="checkbox"/> addresses group <input type="checkbox"/> addresses individuals 	<p>6. ELICITING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> silence <input type="checkbox"/> factual recall questions <input type="checkbox"/> display questions <input type="checkbox"/> predictive questions <input type="checkbox"/> imaginative questions <input type="checkbox"/> open-ended questions <input type="checkbox"/> asks opinion <input type="checkbox"/> keeps seeking right answer <input type="checkbox"/> invites comment on story/activity/responses <input type="checkbox"/> to individual <input type="checkbox"/> to group <input type="checkbox"/> to class
<p>7. MANAGING ERROR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> gives opportunity for self-correction <input type="checkbox"/> acknowledges error, calls for explanation <input type="checkbox"/> uses error to teach/repair <input type="checkbox"/> asks children to decide right/wrong with no comment <input type="checkbox"/> unobtrusive error correction <input type="checkbox"/> unnecessary error correction <input type="checkbox"/> ignores error (positive) <input type="checkbox"/> ignores error (negative) 	<p>8. TALKING ABOUT TEXT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> establishes link between activity and world <input type="checkbox"/> establishes links between text and world <input type="checkbox"/> establishes links between child and world <input type="checkbox"/> establishes links between text and other texts

3.2.2 Video Analysis

Each of the lessons observed was also recorded on video. All of the teachers were recorded on video teaching a reading lesson at the beginning of March, in mid-April and in mid-June. As Teacher A begins with reading instruction almost at the beginning of the year, she was also recorded teaching a reading lesson early in February.

"Mechanical recording, using either audiotape or videotape, allows for repeated observation" (Galton, 1988, 475) and thus, video taping in the context of this study was designed to enable me to identify instances of teaching and learning which may have been missed during the

classroom observation. The video analysis was conducted by means of a schedule.

This schedule is the most important instrument in the study since it is used to identify instances in which teachers create - or attempt to create - a zone of proximal development. It also enables the observer to identify instances in which the teacher blocks learning. Since this study understands learning to be the result of the creation of and mediation in the zone of proximal development, and teaching to be the art of the creation of and mediation in the zone of proximal development, the video observation schedule is central to explicating what it is that teachers say and do.

The schedule used in this study is based on a schedule designed by the Primary Education Project (PREP) and tested by Debby Evans in 1996. The original observation schedule, *Observation Schedule for Story Charts: A Sequencing Task*, was designed to be used in a study of five teachers using a task involving the sequencing of story charts to teach reading (Evans, 1997, 5). Table D sets out the observation schedule as adapted for this study.

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR THE TEACHING OF A CONCEPT OF PRINT

1. ORGANISATION AND PLANNING

- meta-language (states purpose, engages attention, gives instructions etc.)	
- seating, grouping	
- placement of pictures/text (ease of access)	
- pace : too slow..... too fast..... appropriate.....
- challenge: material selected suitable for pupils' level of development	
- mismanages task	
- unfamiliar with steps in task	

2. MODELLING (Teacher models appropriate behaviour)

- reads in units of meaning	
- reads in linguistic units	
- indicates left → right approach	
- indicates structure (eg sentence, punctuation, capitals)	
- interacts with print/text; models enjoyment	
- models predictive behaviour	
- creates sense of anticipation	
- models strategies for comprehension	
- does not guide learner in applying strategies	
- no appreciation of teaching reading strategies	

TABLE D:
VIDEO
OBSERVATION
SCHEDULE

3. ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS/MAKING LINKS ("works with")

Part - Whole

- uses picture cues	
- backwards and forwards relations	
- establishes internal relations eg within picture	
- returns to whole story	

Life - World

- establishes relationships/links between	
class → world.....
text → world.....
child → world.....
text → other text.....
- mentions the purpose of reading/in books/in school/ in life	

Understanding of the extended text

- internal coherence of text	
- repetitive cues	
- sequence of events	
- prediction	
- makes statements about story structure	

4. INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES ("works through")

Eliciting Strategies

- gestures	
- silence	
- clozure	
- questions: retrieval.....
display.....
inferential.....
predictive.....
imaginative.....
open-ended.....
asks opinions.....
- to individual	
- to class/group	
- keeps seeking right answer	
- invites comment on story and on responses	

Shifting control

- allows spontaneous responses from children	
- expects children to help each other	
- relinquishes control for peer interaction/comments	
- relinquishes control entirely (when pupils engage in task)	
- acknowledges contributions of pupils	
- allows peer correction of errors	
- blocks shift of control, takes over / tells / emphasises correct pronunciation etc.	

Managing error

- gives opportunity for self-correction	
- acknowledges error, calls for explanation	
- uses error to teach / 'repair'	
- asks pupils to decide right/wrong with no comment	
- unobtrusive error correction	
- unnecessary error correction	
- ignores error: positive
negative

5. TRANSACTIONAL RESPONSES ("teacher responds to")

Response

- acknowledges/affirms responses	
- makes encouraging comments	
- takes the learner seriously	
- builds on pupils' knowledge	
- accepts predictions from pupils' view points	
- participates with pupils to maximise participation	
- confirms / disconfirms previous predictions / 'guesses'	
- collaborates in working out an understanding of the text	
- addresses class/group	
- addresses individuals	

Feedback

- 'unpacking' from a pupil's response	
- opens up from another pupil's comment	

Evans explains:

The observation schedule...consists of five categories with a range of components in each category related to the effective teaching of reading...Included as the last components of [some] categories are 'blocks and obstacles' - teacher behaviours or comments which limit learners being able to engage in more learning and/or autonomous action. The components of the schedule are in line with findings of research in cognitive education philosophy and its accompanying methodologies, which highlight the importance of metacognition, mediated learning, self-regulation, strategy instruction and the importance of teaching for transfer

(Evans, 1997, 20 -21).

It was intended that the data collected through the use of the video and classroom observation schedules be read alongside one another so as to achieve the 'thickness' associated with qualitative research.

3.2.3 Teacher Questionnaire

"A questionnaire is a self-report instrument used for gathering information about variables of interest to an investigator" (Wolf, 1988, 478). After observing the second of Teachers B, C and D's lessons and Teacher A's third lesson, individual questionnaires were drawn up as a way of probing the teacher's understanding of the task of teaching reading in a multilingual environment. The questionnaires consisted mainly of open-ended questions which required responses which were explanatory and/or descriptive.

A set of general questions was repeated in each teacher's questionnaire. These questions focus on gathering general information relating to teaching experience, approach to the teaching of reading and understanding of the demands of teaching in a linguistically diverse classroom. Table E sets out the questions which appear in Part One of each teacher's questionnaire.

TABLE E : GENERAL QUESTIONS FROM TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES

1	How many years have you been teaching?
2	How many years have you been teaching at this school?
3	How many years have you been teaching Grade One/Sub A?
4	Describe your approach to the teaching of reading.
5	Describe the materials you use in your classroom to teach reading. (Give your opinion of the usefulness of each of the types of material.)
6	How well do you think the children in your class should be able to read by the end of the year? Write down the most important things that you expect your pupils to be able to do (as readers) by the end of the year.
7	How many languages do you speak and understand? Please name them.
8	How many of these languages do you use to teach in your classroom?
9	<p>Do you teach reading differently now that you have pupils in your class whose home language/s you do not speak or understand?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If you teach reading differently, explain what the differences in your classroom practice and/or approach are and why you have changed your approach and/or practice. • If you do not teach reading differently, explain why you have chosen to keep your approach and/or classroom practice the same.
10	Are there any other changes you have made in your classroom now that you have a multilingual class?

Part One is followed by questions which are more specific in nature. These questions focus on more particular aspects of the teachers' reading instruction programmes. Each questionnaire includes some questions which arose from the lessons observed. These questions ask the teachers to explore, in detail, the purpose behind the activities they used in their reading lessons. Tables F, G, H and I set out the questions which appear in Part Two of each teacher's questionnaire.

TABLE F: SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FROM TEACHER A's QUESTIONNAIRE

1	<p>In the first lesson that I watched you teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the children played "Bingo" with the words in their word boxes. What were you teaching in using this game? What did you intend the children to be able to do or understand by the end of this activity? • the children built sentences (using words from their word boxes) that you called out. What were you teaching in this activity? What did you intend the children to be able to do or understand by the end of this activity? • the children made up their own sentences from words in their word boxes. Then they cut out these words from a sheet with all the words you had taught them so far and pasted the sentences into their books. What were you teaching in this activity? What did you intend the children to be able to do or understand by the end of this activity?
2	<p>In the first lesson I watched, all the children were doing the same activity. Why did you choose to teach the class as a whole?</p>
3	<p>In the second lesson I watched you teach, you had a small group of children on the mat. You informed me that you felt these children needed additional assistance with their reading.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why did you choose to teach them in a small group? • The children had to make sentences from the words in their word boxes. You called out the sentences that you wanted them to make. What were you teaching in this activity? What did you intend the children to be able to do or understand by the end of this activity?
4	<p>You began teaching reading almost at the beginning of the year. Please explain why you did this.</p>
5	<p>How many non-English speakers do you have in your top reading group? How many non-English speakers do you have in your weak reading group? What reasons would you give for this.</p>
6	<p>Do the children take books home to read. If so, what kinds of books do they take home?</p>
7	<p>The non-English speaking children in your class sit amongst the English speaking children. What are your reasons for grouping the children in this way?</p>
8	<p>Do you think the non-English speaking children in your class will learn to read as well as the English speaking children by the end of the year? Give a reason/s for your response.</p>
9	<p>Is there anything else about your classroom practice and/or about the lessons I observed that you would like to comment on?</p>

TABLE G: SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FROM TEACHER B's QUESTIONNAIRE

1	<p>In the first lesson I watched you teach, the children did a number of activities. Please explain what you were teaching in each one of the activities listed below. Also explain what you intended the pupils to be able to do or to understand by the end of the activity.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The children who were not on the mat with you completed a worksheet called "My Body". They had to correctly make up the boy's body. • The children read from the class news book - first in English, then in Xhosa. • The weak reading group worked from <i>Steps to Reading Book 1</i> (page 20). First they had to identify the differences between two pictures. Then you said the names of the pictures on the next page and they had to identify the one which begins with a different sound. • The top reading group worked on <i>Steps To Reading Book 2</i> (p 19). They had to match words which looked the same, remember the words and then point to them. Then they had to name the pictures on the next page and identify the one which begins with a different sound.
2	<p>In the second lesson I watched you teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the children completed a dominoes activity. What did you intend the children to learn through this activity? • the weak reading group worked on <i>Steps to Reading Book 2</i> (p 4 and 5). They had to identify which picture starts with a different sound and which picture faces in a different direction. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this group lesson? • the top group had three sentences to focus on: Come Mark; Come here; I can jump. The children had to read the sentences on the board and on flashcards, identify individual words and create a different sequence for the sentences. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this group lesson?
3	<p>How many non-English speakers do you have in your top reading group? How many non-English speakers do you have in your weak reading group? What reasons would you give for this?</p>
4	<p>Do the children take books home to read? If so, what kinds of books do they take home?</p>
5	<p>The non-English speaking children in your class sit amongst the English speaking children. What are your reasons for grouping the children in this way?</p>
6	<p>Do you think the non-English speaking children in your class will learn to read as well as the English speaking children by the end of the year? Give a reason/s for your response.</p>
7	<p>In what month did you begin teaching reading to your top group?</p>
8	<p>When do you think your weak group will begin with reading instruction?</p>
9	<p>Please explain why you spend a good deal of time preparing children to begin reading instruction.</p>
10	<p>Please describe the role that Ms Williams plays in your classroom.</p>
11	<p>Is there anything else about your classroom practice and/or about the lessons I observed that you would like to comment on?</p>

TABLE H: SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FROM TEACHER C's QUESTIONNAIRE

1	In the first lesson I watched you teach, you introduced the children to characters from <i>The Toy Shop</i> . You gave the children a picture of each character with the character's name at the top of the page and word strips with the same words on them. You asked the children to match each strip to the correct picture. What were you teaching in this activity? What did you intend the children to be able to do or understand by the end of this activity?
2	In the second lesson I watched you teach, you taught small groups of children on the mat. Why did you choose to teach the class in this way?
3	How many non-English speakers do you have in your top reading group? How many non-English speakers do you have in your weak reading group? What reasons would you give for this?
4	Do the children take books home to read? If so, what kinds of books do they take home?
5	The non-English speaking children in your class sit amongst the English speaking children. What are your reasons for grouping the children in this way?
6	Do you think the non-English speaking children in your class will learn to read as well as the English speaking children by the end of the year? Give a reason/s for your response.
7	In what month did you begin teaching reading to your top group?
8	When do you think your weak group will begin with reading instruction? (Or, when did they begin?)
9	Please explain why you spend a good deal of time preparing children to begin reading instruction.
10	Is there anything else about your classroom practice and/or about the lessons I observed that you would like to comment on?

TABLE I: SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FROM TEACHER D's QUESTIONNAIRE

1	<p>In the first lesson that I saw you teach,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the children had to complete a worksheet which required them to copy shapes. What did you intend the children to learn by doing this activity? • the red reading group (Xhosa and Afrikaans speaking children) spent some time on the mat with you. They had to respond correctly to instructions that you called out. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this small group lesson? • the next reading group had to read sentences on flashcards (Come here Mark; Come and jump; Kathy can jump) and then match these sentences with the same sentences written on other flashcards. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this small group lesson? • the top reading group read <i>Kathy and Mark</i> for the first time. You pointed out the authors' names, the page numbers, the way the text moves from left to right and the detail in the pictures. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this small group lesson?
2	How many non-English speakers do you have in your top reading group? How many non-English speakers do you have in your weak reading group? What reasons would you give for this?
3	Do the children take books home to read? If so, what kinds of books do they take home?
4	The non-English speaking children in your class sit separately from the English speaking children. What are your reasons for grouping the children in this way?
5	Do you think the non-English speaking children in your class will learn to read as well as the English speaking children by the end of the year? Give a reason/s for your response.
6	In what month did you begin teaching reading to your top group?
7	When do you think your weak group will begin with reading instruction?
8	Please explain why you spend a good deal of time preparing children to begin reading instruction.
9	Is there anything else about your classroom practice and/or about the lessons I observed that you would like to comment on?

The questionnaires were given to the teachers at the end of the lessons observed in mid-April. The teachers were asked to complete them so that I could collect them when I visited their classrooms in mid-June. This arrangement was intended to facilitate the collection of the questionnaires while simultaneously allowing the teachers sufficient time to complete them.

3.2.4 Miscue Analysis

Miscue analysis "is a technique for examining and evaluating the development of control of the reading process in learners" (Goodman, 1977, 11). This technique provides a window on a reader's process of constructing meaning from text by considering the errors that the reader makes as he/she reads unfamiliar text. The errors (or miscues) are considered in terms of their graphic or phonic similarity to the text; or their semantic or syntactical acceptability within the

structure of the text (Burke, 1977, 23).

Eleven stories were initially chosen for the purposes of this study. (An additional text was added after April. See Chapter 4 for details.) The texts were prepared for the recording of miscues and the stories graded in terms of difficulty. (The story titles and their grading may be found in Appendix B.) Conducting a miscue analysis of each pupil's reading would have been too time consuming and produced too much data, therefore I asked each teacher to identify her three best and three weakest readers. Where a teacher did not include any non-English speakers in these categories, I asked to listen to at least two of these children (in addition to the six she had already identified) reading. After the classroom observation sessions in April and June, a miscue analysis was conducted of these selected children's reading behaviour.

3.2.5 Indicators of Pupils' Concept of Print

In addition to a miscue analysis, a schedule was designed to measure pupils' concept of print. This schedule is a list of reading behaviour indicators which was tested at the end of the data collection phase (June 1997) of this study. The schedule draws heavily on an inventory developed by Erica Kesin (1995) and tested by PREP in 1995/6. Kesin's inventory of reading behaviours was developed as a tool for measuring the degree of independence in reading displayed by pupils in Grades One, Two and Three. Thus, this inventory has been adjusted to include those reading behaviours which pupils might be expected to display by June of their first year of schooling. Table J sets out the contents of the schedule.

**TABLE J : SCHEDULE OF INDICATORS FOR
MEASURING PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT**

	ITEM	YES	NO	COMMENT
1	Identifies front of book			
2	Identifies the title			
3	Identifies the author			
4	Points to print			
5	Identifies where text begins			
6	Shows print moves from left-right			
7	Demonstrates return sweep			
8	Matches word by word			
9	Identifies first and last part of story			
10	Identifies bottom of picture			
11	Identifies beginning of sentence			
12	Identifies end of sentence			
13	Identifies a question			
14	Identifies left page before right			
15	Shows one and two letters			
16	Shows one and two words			
17	Turns pages appropriately			
18	Holds book appropriately			
19	Can point to the page numbers			

The above schedule is treated as a summative assessment of pupils' concept of print and is added to the data collected through miscue analysis which is treated as a formative assessment.

3.2.6 Pupil Interviews

Structured pupil interviews were conducted during my final contact with those pupils whom I had observed reading. The purpose of these interviews is to establish any link between the

home language/s of the pupils and their experience of reading in the home, and their reading ability as displayed by their performance on the schedule of indicators of a concept of print and in the miscues they make when reading unfamiliar text. Table K sets out the questions which pupils were asked.

TABLE K : QUESTIONS USED IN PUPIL INTERVIEWS

1. What language/s do you speak at home?
2. What languages do your parents speak at home?
3. Do your parents read?
4. Do you take books home (from school) to read?
5. Who listens to you read at home?
6. Do you read other books at home?
7. Where do you get these books from?
8. In what languages are these books?
9. Do you get books from the library?

3.3 Describing and analysing the data

This study seeks to explicate what it is that four teachers say and do as they teach a concept of print in their linguistically diverse classrooms. In other words, the study seeks to provide a descriptive analysis of *how* these teachers teach a concept of print. Thus, the tools used for analysis need to assist with the development of layers of interpretation.

The first analytical tool is the observation schedule used in the video analysis - *Observation Schedule for the Teaching of a Concept of Print* (see Table D). This instrument enables the researcher to identify the presence or absence of teacher mediation in the reading process.

Evans explains:

Many of the components in the observation schedule are desired behaviours for effective teaching and learning, and more specifically, for effective teaching of reading, which, if present, indicate a contribution towards more effective mediation, better self-monitoring and self-managing practices on the part of the pupils in their learning (metacognition and auto-regulation) and better

conceptual development due to a move away from the view of learning as a largely rote activity

(Evans, 1997, 24).

The five categories in this schedule, 'organisation and planning', 'modelling', 'establishing relationships/making links', 'interactional strategies' and 'transactional responses', capture the elements critical to a teacher's success in creating and using the zone of proximal development in the teaching of reading. The components (items and sub-items) of the categories name the talk and behaviour that teachers employ as they engage in the business of teaching reading. The schedule also provides for the recording of 'blocks to learning' created by the teacher. In this study, an instance or block is used to refer to the use of (rather than the number of times) a particular teacher behaviour within a teaching episode. In other words, whether an instance or block occurs is of more significance than the number of times it occurs within any one episode. The schedule was used to identify instances in which each teacher successfully created or attempted to create the zone of proximal development during an episode in the course of a lesson. The schedule was also used to identify where she created 'blocks' to learning. The number of instances as well as the number of 'blocks' were counted.

The next step was to describe the teacher talk and behaviour in the zone of proximal development more fully. By paying careful attention to the video schedule, teaching episodes from each of the teachers' lessons were selected and transcribed. "The production and use of transcripts are essentially 'research activities'. They involve close, repeated listenings to recordings which often reveal previously unnoted recurring features of the organisation of talk [and interaction]" (Silverman, 1993, 117). The transcribed episodes serve as exemplars of the teachers' practice as recorded on the video observation schedule.

The final stage in the process of analysis consists of a comparative analysis of what the teachers say and do as well as what the outcomes are of what they say and do. The comparative analysis draws on those aspects of the instruments which relate to the teachers' understanding and practice of the task of teaching a concept of print in linguistically diverse classrooms, as well as to those aspects which relate to pupil outcomes in relation to a concept of print.

3.4 Limitations

The research design used in this study is aimed at providing a descriptive analysis of four cases. Whilst these cases may indicate where further research is needed, it is not possible to generalise the conclusions reached to other teachers in other linguistically diverse classrooms.

Since the study seeks to describe teachers' practice in teaching a concept of print within a Vygotskian theoretical understanding of teaching and learning, the design of the instruments reflects this theoretical bias.

While the classroom observation schedule does provide some data on the teachers' practice when using approaches to reading which draw on theoretical perspectives other than a psycholinguistic one, the instruments are primarily designed to create data on what teachers say and do when teaching a concept of print as defined by this study.

Finally, the focus of this study is the teaching of a concept of print. Whilst a conceptual understanding of print is considered by this study to be critical to success in reading, it is assumed that understanding the way in which print works is not reading itself. Engagement with text which falls outside of the teaching of a concept of print is not considered by this study.

Having set out the research design and data collection methods, an analysis of the data follows.

CHAPTER 4: A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section (4.1) records the process by which the data for this study was created. The second section (4.2) provides a tabular analysis of the data created. The data is tabulated (Tables L - FF) according to the instruments used for data collection as described in the previous chapter.

4.1 Creating the data

4.1.1 Classroom observations

All the lessons observed for this study took place between February and June in the same school year. I observed four lessons in Teacher A's classroom and three lessons in each of the classrooms of Teachers B, C and D. When a whole class lesson was taught, I sat at the side of the classroom. When teachers taught small group lessons on the mat, I sat on the outside of the circle.

At the beginning of each lesson, I completed most items on the pre-observation schedule. However, items 6 ('What is the teacher teaching?') and 7 ('What are the intended learning outcomes?') often had to be completed at the end of the lesson when the pupils were engaged in written tasks at their tables. An example of a completed pre-observation schedule can be found in Appendix C.

For all the lessons other than the first one in each teacher's classroom, I completed the classroom observation schedule. (Each teacher's first lesson was used to assist me in defining the categories and items of this schedule.) This instrument is intended to supplement the video observation schedule so I noted only the presence of particular items rather than the regularity with which they occurred. Since most of the lessons involved teachers teaching more than one

small group of pupils, the presence of items in each category of the classroom observation schedule were noted separately for each small group lesson. An example of a completed classroom observation schedule can be found in Appendix D. Recording my observations in this way, would allow me to describe what teachers do when they teach multilingual groups of pupils and what they do when teaching groups of pupils who speak only English as their home language or as one of their home languages.

Each lesson was also recorded on video by someone other than myself. However unobtrusive both I and the camera operator attempted to be, our presence is likely to have had some effect on the teachers and their performance. This is true also of the presence of a video camera since all the teachers expressed slight anxiety initially about their teaching being recorded on video. It is my assumption that the presence of a researcher, camera operator and video camera is likely to have influenced the teachers' performance positively since the teachers would be inclined to provide examples of what they deem as good classroom practice (Hull, 1991, 100).

4.1.2 Video observations

I watched each of the video recorded lessons three times in order to ensure that I marked the video observation schedule accurately. As I watched each lesson, I recorded the evidence of instances of each item or sub-item in each category on the schedule. (For a definition of an instance see Chapter 3.) I used numbers to differentiate between instances of items evident in the small group lessons and ticks (✓) to represent those instances in whole class instruction. An example of a completed video observation schedule can be found in Appendix E.

Having completed the video observation schedule, I watched each lesson a fourth time in order to transcribe sections of each lesson which might be used to illustrate and explicate the data created on both the classroom and video observation schedules. (The transcripts will be used in a further level of analysis undertaken in the next chapter.) An example of a transcription of a lesson can be found in Appendix F.

4.1.3 Teacher questionnaires

The teacher questionnaires were handed to the teachers at the end of the penultimate lesson that I observed. Each teacher was asked to complete the questionnaire by the time I returned to observe the final lesson for this study. Thus, the teachers had approximately six weeks within which to complete the questionnaire. All questionnaires were completed.

Further analysis of the questionnaires will take into account that a constraint of the questionnaire as a data collection instrument is that the teachers may have reflected what they thought I wanted them to record rather than their true opinions or experience. Thus, it is possible that the questionnaire responses reflect elements of what teachers regard as 'correct' theory and good practice alongside recordings of their actual theories and practice.

4.1.4 Miscue analysis

Each of the teachers was initially asked to identify the three weakest and three best readers in their classes. However, I had to ask all of the teachers except Teacher C to include an additional pupil so that I was able to conduct a miscue analysis of the reading of both English-speaking and non-English speaking pupils from the group of weak readers.

A miscue analysis of the selected pupils' reading behaviour was conducted in April and in June. Initially eleven texts had been prepared for this purpose. However, only four of these were used as the others were too easy for some pupils and too difficult for others. Only the texts which could yield miscues were ultimately used. An additional text, *The Shrinking of Treehorn*, (see Appendix B for further details) was added to the texts used in June as one pupil appeared to need a more challenging text than had initially been prepared for this study.

A Xhosa speaking interpreter was used for some pupils at School 2 (Teacher B) in April and June and in School 4 (Teacher D) in June. This was necessary since some of the pupils spoke in Xhosa about the pictures when they were asked to read the story. The interpreter translated the pupils' responses to the pictures.

4.1.5 Indicators of pupils' concept of print

The schedule of indicators was completed in June at all four schools. Pupils who had been selected for the purposes of a miscue analysis of their reading behaviour were also used in this test. Because the pupils' performance in this test was dependent on their ability to understand and act on instructions, Afrikaans and Xhosa was used to give instructions and ask questions to those pupils for whom Afrikaans or Xhosa is their home language and whose control of English is limited. I was able to speak to the pupils in Afrikaans but had to rely on an interpreter for the Xhosa speakers in Schools 2 (Teacher B) and 4 (Teacher D). In the cases where an interpreter was used, the results of the pupils' performance on the test are influenced by the degree of accuracy in the translation of my instructions and questions.

4.1.6 Pupil interviews

The same pupils who I had observed reading, were interviewed in June. Again, I had to rely on a Xhosa speaking interpreter for some of the pupils in Schools 2 and 4. The effect of translation on the results of the interviews is potentially the same as described above.

4.2 Analysing the data

4.2.1 Pre-observation schedule

The purpose of the pre-observation schedule was to contextualise the data collected by the other instruments used in this study. Thus, the data created by means of the pre-observation schedule will not be the subject of a detailed analysis. The data created does, however, provide useful information which supplements the reading of other data.

Tables L, M, N and O provide a summary of the responses to five of the questions on the pre-observation schedule. The pre-observation schedule responses are presented in edited form in a separate table for each teacher. The numbering of the items in the description column corresponds directly to the following questions from the schedule:

1. How many children are present?
2. Is this a small group or a whole group lesson?
3. If it is a small group lesson, what are the other children doing?

4. Are there books available to the children?
5. What languages are these books written in?

TABLE L: PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE RESPONSES - TEACHER A

<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Description</i>
1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 32 pupils 2. Whole class lesson 4. Yes 5. English
2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 32 pupils 2. Two small group lessons 3. A worksheet which teaches 'word recognition'. Reading along with (listening to) a story tape. 4. Yes 5. English
3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 32 pupils 2. Whole class and two small group lessons 3. Completing the speech bubble "In the, I can see" based on a story the class has read and doing an appropriate drawing for the speech bubble. 4. Yes 5. English
4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 34 (number of pupils increased) 2. Small group lesson 3. Completion of unfinished worksheets from earlier in the day. Own writing about 'myself' in "My brag book". 4. Yes 5. English

Table L suggests that Teacher A uses a mixture of whole class and small group teaching for reading instruction. Most tasks provided by the teacher develop the pupils' concept of print (reading along with a story tape; completing sentences based on a story which has been read and doing their own writing).

TABLE M: PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE RESPONSES - TEACHER B

<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>1</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 38 2. Two small group lessons 3. A worksheet - colour, cut and make up a person from separate body parts 4. Yes 5. English and a few in Xhosa
<i>2</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 38 pupils 2. Two small group lessons 3. A worksheet - dominoes (matching words or pictures which are identical) 4. Yes 5. English and a few in Xhosa
<i>3</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 33 pupils 2. Small group lesson 3. A worksheet - matching words with pictures 4. Yes 5. English and a few in Xhosa.

Table M suggests that Teacher B teaches reading in small groups only. The pupils were provided with reading tasks which emphasize the processing of visual information. Teacher B is the only teacher who provides books in her classroom in a language other than English.

TABLE N: PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE RESPONSES - TEACHER C

<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>1</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 12 pupils (the other pupils had gone to a ballet performance) 2. Whole class lesson 3. n/a 4. No 5. n/a
<i>2</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 40 pupils 2. Two small group lessons 3. Worksheets - (i) identify the letter 'd' (ii) identifying the number of particular objects in a picture 4. No 5. n/a
<i>3</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 36 pupils 2. Three small group lessons 3. Different tasks for each reading group. Top group: identifying words with the letter 'a' in a series of sentences; drawing pictures to support text based on a story read. Middle group: underlining all the words in a series of sentences that pupils are unable to read and rewriting these words on the back of the page. Weak group: drawing pictures for three random sentences (I can do this, I can jump, I can hop). 4. Yes 5. English

Table N suggests that Teacher C uses small group teaching for the purposes of reading instruction. With the exception of one task in lesson three (drawing pictures to support text

based on a story read), the pupils were provided with decontextualised reading tasks. Most of the tasks focus the pupils' attention on individual words or letters. During the period February to April, there were no books available to the pupils in this classroom.

TABLE O: PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE RESPONSES - TEACHER D

<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>1</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 32 pupils 2. Three small group lessons 3. A worksheet - copying arrangements of shapes 4. Yes 5. English
<i>2</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 32 pupils 2. Two small group lessons 3. Worksheets - (i) matching a selection of toys to a boy or girl (ii) matching patterned mittens which "reinforces a sound for the letter 'm' " 4. Yes 5. English
<i>3</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 31 pupils 2. Three small group lessons 3. Different tasks for each reading group - Top group - worksheets: (i) pupils had to write down the name of several objects; (ii) unscrambling letters to make words. Middle group: (i) pupils had to write down the name of several objects; fill in the missing word (familiar and given) to complete four unrelated sentences. Weak group: draw a picture relating to a told story. 4. Yes 5. English

Table O suggests that Teacher D teaches reading in small groups only. She supplied a variety of tasks. However, most of these tasks focus on the processing of visual information, or on reinforcing phonic knowledge or the recognition of particular words. Only one activity focuses on meaning-making viz. drawing a picture relating to a told story.

4.2.2 Classroom observation schedule

The purpose of the data created by means of the classroom observation schedule is to add to that created by means of the video observation schedule. The classroom observation schedule was designed to capture the elements of the teachers' practice which might not fall within the definition of developing pupils' concept of print used in this study. The data created by this schedule describes some of the detail of what teachers say and do which cannot be captured by the video observation schedule.

The first five categories of the classroom observation schedule have been selected for analysis.

The remaining three categories are excluded here since the data created in these categories proved to be identical to that of the video observation schedule. Thus, only those categories which can assist with a thicker description have been chosen for analysis.

For the purposes of analysis, the data created by the classroom observation schedule is organised into three further categories. Table P below indicates how the categories on the classroom observation schedule are organised to create categories of analysis for description.

TABLE P: CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

<i>Categories of analysis</i>	<i>Classroom observation schedule categories</i>
(i) Setting the scene	1. Setting the scene
(ii) What the teachers teach	2. Approach to teaching of reading 3. Teaching the conventions of print 4. Strategies for dealing with unknown words
(iii) How the teachers teach	5. Creating and using the ZPD

A tabular analysis of each of the categories of the classroom observation schedule was made in order to describe how teachers (i) set the scene for learning, (ii) what they teach and (iii) how they teach. Tables Q, R, S, T and U below provide detail of the teachers' practice in each of the first five categories named on the classroom observation schedule. The horizontal axis of each table reflects the items in each of the classroom observation schedule categories. The vertical axis reflects the teachers and the number of the lesson observed. An 'm' is used to refer to parts of a lesson (or a lesson) in which the teacher was teaching a multilingual group of pupils. An 'e' is used to refer to parts of a lesson (or a lesson) in which the teacher was teaching a group of pupils who have English as their home language or one of their home languages. (Although Teacher B teaches in small groups, all of these groups are multilingual.)

(i) Setting the scene

This category describes how teachers group their pupils for learning and what they do at the outset of the lesson to help focus the pupils' attention on the learning task. It is assumed that effective teachers engage in planning their lessons and organising the learning environment before the lesson begins.

The category on the classroom observation schedule which is used to describe this category of analysis is 'setting the scene'. The items in this category are as follows:

1. teacher states purpose of reading activity
2. teacher engages children's attention
3. teacher gives instructions
4. children work in small groups, with teacher
5. children work in small groups, without teacher
6. children work in pairs
7. children work individually.

The numbers of the items in Table Q correspond to those above. The # indicates the presence of an item during the course of a lesson.

TABLE Q: SETTING THE SCENE

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Category items</i>						
		<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>A</i>	<i>2M</i>		#	#	#			#
	<i>3M</i>		#	#	#			
	<i>3E</i>		#	#	#			
	<i>4M</i>		#	#	#			
<i>B</i>	<i>2M</i>		#	#	#			
	<i>3M</i>		#	#	#			
<i>C</i>	<i>2M</i>		#	#	#			#
	<i>2E</i>				#			#
	<i>3M</i>			#	#			
	<i>3E</i>			#	#			
<i>D</i>	<i>2E</i>				#			#
	<i>3M</i>	#	#	#	#			
	<i>3E</i>			#	#			

Table Q reflects that all the teachers make use of small group instruction for the teaching of reading. None of the teachers designed lessons in which the pupils worked in small groups or pairs without the teacher. This suggests that the teachers wish to maintain control of the

learning process. Teachers A and B consistently engage the pupils' attention at the beginning of the lesson and give the pupils instructions. Teachers C and D do so less often. In all of the lessons observed, only one instance of a teacher stating the purpose of a reading activity is recorded (Teacher D in lesson 3M). Stating the purpose of an activity is a tool essential to helping pupils to strategise the demands of the task.

(ii) What the teachers teach

This category of analysis describes the understanding of print which is mediated to the pupils. It contains the following categories from the classroom observation schedule: approach to teaching of reading, teaching the conventions of print, strategies for dealing with unknown words. The items in each of the categories are listed before each corresponding table.

The items in the category 'approach to teaching of reading' are as follows:

1. teacher focuses on teaching phonic knowledge
2. teacher demonstrates reading in linguistic units
3. teacher focuses on look-and-say/word recognition ✓
4. teacher focuses on meaning of words
5. children have to repeat words (drill) ✓
6. teacher focuses on creating meaning from text/story as a whole
7. children read whole sentences
8. children read extended text
9. teacher demonstrates reading in units of meaning
10. interacts with print/text; models enjoyment.

TABLE R: APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF READING

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Category Items</i>									
		<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>A</i>	<i>2M</i>	#		#	#			#			
	<i>3M</i>						#	#	#	#	#
	<i>3E</i>				#		#	#	#		#
	<i>4M</i>	#	#					#	#		#
<i>B</i>	<i>2M</i>	#	#	#		#		#			
	<i>3M</i>			#	#		#				
<i>C</i>	<i>2M</i>	#		#		#					
	<i>2E</i>	#		#	#						
	<i>3M</i>	#						#			
	<i>3E</i>	#		#		#		#			
<i>D</i>	<i>2E</i>								#		
	<i>3M</i>			#		#					
	<i>3E</i>							#	#		

When compared with the teaching practices which count as mediating a concept of print in terms of this study (items 2, 7, 8, 9 and 10), Teachers B and C appear to focus mainly on teaching phonic knowledge and word recognition and make some use of drill irrespective of whether they are teaching English-speaking or multilingual groups of pupils. Teacher D makes some use of drill and demonstrates a focus on the teaching of word recognition when teaching multilingual groups of pupils. This teacher only creates opportunities for some of the readers in English-speaking groups to read extended text. Teacher A teaches some phonics and word recognition but does not make use of drill. She demonstrates the highest incidence of those teaching practices which count as mediating a concept of print in terms of this study and presents reading as a meaning-making activity to both English-speaking and multilingual groups of pupils (items 7, 8, 9 and 10).

The items in the category 'teaching the conventions of print' are as follows:

1. indicates left → right approach
2. indicates structure: sentence [2.1]
question [2.2]

punctuation [2.3]

3. indicates title and author
4. indicates page number

The numbers of the items in Table S correspond with those above. The # indicates the presence of an item during the course of a lesson.

TABLE S: TEACHING THE CONVENTIONS OF PRINT

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Lesson</i>	<i>Category items</i>					
		<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>			<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
			<i>2.1</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>2.3</i>		
<i>A</i>	<i>2M</i>	#	#			#	
	<i>3M</i>					#	#
	<i>3E</i>					#	#
	<i>4M</i>						
<i>B</i>	<i>2M</i>	#				#	#
	<i>3M</i>					#	
<i>C</i>	<i>2M</i>	#					
	<i>2E</i>	#					#
	<i>3M</i>						
	<i>3E</i>	#					
<i>D</i>	<i>2E</i>				#		#
	<i>3M</i>	#					
	<i>3E</i>					#	#

All of the teachers indicate the left to right movement of print and that pages in books are numbered. In addition to this, Teachers A and B regularly focus the pupils' attention on the title and author. Teacher D does this in one of the lessons observed. Teacher C is not recorded as indicating the title and author in any of her lessons. This is not surprising given that a book (a photocopied version) was used as learning material in only one small group lesson during the second lesson. There is consistently low incidence of attention given to sentence structure and punctuation across all of the teachers' lessons. No patterns of teacher behaviour with multilingual groups or with English-speaking groups emerge in this category.

Items 3 and 4 were included in this category as this was a strategy used in Teacher A's classroom during the first lesson I observed in which I gathered information needed to draw up the classroom observation schedule. It was, however, not evidenced again in the other lessons. All the teachers tell their pupils to sound out words (phonics) as a means of identifying unknown words. Teacher A is, however, the only teacher who teaches strategies which count in terms of this study. She teaches pupils to use illustration for cues, how to predict and how to use context to 'guess' unfamiliar words.

(iii) How the teachers teach

This category of analysis assumes that the creation of the zone of proximal development and effective mediation within the zone are prerequisites for learning. It contains the 'creating and using the ZPD' category from the classroom observation schedule. The items in this category are:

1. chooses materials of appropriate level
2. 'unpacking' from a child's response
3. opens up from another child's comment
4. elaborates on pupil's response
5. uses questioning to probe children's understanding ✓
6. translates key words into the home language of children ✓
7. speaks in the home language of child/ren as well as in the language of instruction
8. builds on children's knowledge
9. participates with children to maximise participation
10. collaborates in working out an understanding of the text
11. makes explicit the way in which a child/ren have interacted with text
12. addresses class
13. addresses group
14. addresses individuals.

The numbers of the items in Table U correspond to those above. The # indicates the presence of an item during the course of a lesson.

TABLE U: CREATING AND USING THE ZPD

Teacher	Lesson	Category items													
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
A	2M	#								#					#
	3M	#	#			#								#	#
	3E				#										#
	4M	#								#				#	
B	2M								#						
	3M	#		#										#	
C	2E														#
	2M						#								
	3E														
	3M														
D	2E														
	3M														
	3E														

The table indicates particularly low levels of these behaviours across all of the teachers' lessons. The table indicates that there were no instances of the creation of the ZPD in relation to a concept of print in Teacher D's lessons. This suggests that no new learning about print took place during these lessons. Teacher C is the only teacher who uses translation into the pupils' home language as a means of creating the ZPD. None of the materials selected by Teachers C and D were considered to be of an appropriate level (item 1). However, the instrument used did not allow for the recording of whether the materials were too advanced to enable learning to take place (beyond the pupil's potential level of development) or whether they were too simple and thus presented no new learning possibilities (aimed at pupils' actual level of development in relation to the task).

Teacher A displays the use of some of the behaviours necessary for creating the ZPD (unpacking from a child's response, elaborates on pupil's response, uses questioning to probe children's understanding, and participates with children to maximise participation) while

Teacher B displays the use of two behaviours only. The low level of recorded items suggests that Teachers A and B rely on a limited number of techniques in order to create the ZPD. No patterns of teacher behaviour with multilingual groups or with English-speaking groups can be established from this data.

4.2.3 Video observation schedule

The video observation schedule enables a close examination of what teachers say and do in their classrooms as they provide reading instruction. The schedule consists of five categories: organisation and planning, modelling, establishing relationships/making links, interactional strategies, and transactional responses. Instances of the evidence of the items in each category have been recorded. Each of these categories is analysed below.

The data is presented in tabular form. Tables V, W, X, Y, Z and AA provide details of the teachers' behaviour in each of the categories named on the video observation schedule. The horizontal axis of each table reflects the items in each of the video observation schedule categories. The vertical axis reflects the teachers and the number of the lesson observed. An 'm' is used to refer to parts of lessons (or a lesson) in which the teacher was teaching a multilingual group of pupils. An 'e' is used to refer to parts of a lesson (or a lesson) in which the teacher was teaching a group of pupils who have English as their home language or one of their home languages. The numbers on each table reflect the number of instances a particular item was identified in a lesson.

(i) Organisation and planning

This category reflects the level of the teachers' planning. It also reflects their ability to select materials and activities which are appropriate to the task of developing children's concept of print and which are sufficiently challenging so that they develop children's abilities to act on text. The items in this category are:

1. meta-language (states purpose, engages attention, gives instructions etc.)
2. seating, grouping

3. placement of pictures/text (ease of access)
4. pace : too slow [4.1]
 too fast [4.2]
 appropriate [4.3]
5. challenge: material selected suitable for pupils' level of development
6. mismanages task
7. unfamiliar with steps in task

The last two items in this category represent blocks to learning. The numbers of the category items in Table V correspond with those above.

TABLE V: ORGANISATION AND PLANNING

Teacher	Lesson	Category items									
		1	2	3	4.1	4.2	4.3	5	6	7	
A	1M	8	1	1			2	1			
	2M	6	1	1			1	1			
	3M	5	2	2			1	1			
	3E	1	1	1			1				
	4M	4	1	1			2	1			
B	1M	2	2	1	1					1	
	2M	2	2	1	1					1	
	3M	3		1	1						
C	1M	1	1	1	2					2	1
	2M		1	1						1	1
	2E		1							1	
	3M		1	1	1					1	
	3E	1	2	2	2					2	
D	1M		1							1	
	1E	1	1		2					2	
	2E	1	1							1	
	3M	1	1	1						2	
	3E	1	1	1	1					1	

Table V indicates that all the teachers pay attention to the seating and grouping of their pupils. Most reading lessons in these Grade 1 classrooms appear to be small group lessons which take

place on a mat with the pupils either seated in a circle with the teacher or in front of the teacher.

Table V suggests that Teacher A paces her lessons well and ensures that pupils have physical access to the text being used. Teacher A regularly engages the pupils' attention and gives them instructions. It also appears that she does this more often when she is teaching multilingual groups of pupils. However, this trend may be influenced by the lack of challenge in the material used with the English-speaking pupils. Since this material was not sufficiently challenging for them, the pupils were able to engage with the text largely independently.

Teachers B, C and D all display evidence of mismanaging the reading task in lessons given to both English speaking and multilingual groups of pupils. 'Mismanages task' is used here to refer to a teacher's lack of understanding of the reading process which has resulted in the selection of activities inappropriate to the teaching of a concept of print. It is apparent that the pace of Teacher B's lessons is too slow but in Teacher C and D's lessons, it is often difficult to discriminate between an inappropriate pace and insufficient challenge in the activities which are also often inappropriate to developing children's concept of print.

In general, Table V suggests that these four teachers are moderately to well prepared and organised in their presentations. It is possible that it is this behaviour which leads them to be described (and referred to me) as 'good teachers' by their colleagues and superiors.

(ii) Modelling

This category reflects the teachers' ability to provide demonstrations of the ways in which proficient readers interact with text. "By watching the performance of the teacher and mentally processing what and how a task is performed, pupils can mimic the activity and learn by doing so" (Evans, 1997, 27).

The items in this category are:

1. reads in units of meaning
2. reads in linguistic units

3. indicates left → right approach
4. indicates structure (eg sentence, punctuation, capitals)
5. interacts with print/text; models enjoyment
6. models predictive behaviour
7. creates sense of anticipation
8. models strategies for comprehension
9. does not guide learner in applying strategies
10. no appreciation of teaching reading strategies.

The last two items in this category represent blocks to learning. The numbering of the category items in Table W correspond with the numbers above.

TABLE W: MODELLING

Teacher	Lesson	Category Items									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	1M	1	1	3	1	1					
	2M	1	1	7	4	1					
	3M			2	2				1		
	3E					1					
	4M		2	2	1	3	2				
B	1M	2		2						2	2
	2M	1		2						1	2
	3M						1			1	1
C	1M									2	2
	2M										1
	2E										2
	3M										2
	3E										1
D	1M									1	1
	1E									1	1
	2E					1				1	1
	3M										2
	3E						1				1

Table W suggests that Teacher A provides an adequate model of reading behaviour in all of her

lessons with multilingual groups of pupils. This, however, is not the case with the English-speaking group lesson although the lack of modelling displayed here may well be a result of the lack of challenge in the material - no teacher demonstration is required since the pupils are already able to make meaning from the text independently.

Teacher B provides an interesting mixture of blocking the learning process in all of the lessons observed, whilst still providing some modelling of reading as a meaning-making activity (items 1 and 6) and of the left-to-right movement of print. This teacher began her first two lessons with pupils reading their own writing in the class news book or in their own news books. It is within the context of these episodes that instances of items 1 and 3 were recorded. Having provided this model of reading, the teacher then moved on to 'reading readiness' or word recognition activities.

Both Teachers C and D fail to teach reading strategies which assist pupil's developing concept of print both in the lessons in which English speaking pupils are taught and in those in which multilingual groups of pupils are taught. Teacher D, does, however, afford some of the English-speaking readers (the 'top' four readers) the opportunity to engage with extended text. It is within these episodes that Teacher D is able to provide brief demonstrations of predictive behaviour and reading as a pleasurable activity.

(iii) Establishing relationships/making links

Analysis of this category reflects the extent to which the teachers work with text so as to develop pupils' understanding of the way in which texts are structured and meaning is constructed. There are three items in this category: part-whole, life-world, and understanding of the extended text. Each item has a number of sub-items:

1. Part - Whole
 - 1.1 uses picture cues
 - 1.2 backwards and forwards relations
 - 1.3 establishes internal relations eg within picture
 - 1.4 returns to whole story

2. Life - World

2.1 establishes relationships/links between

2.1.1 class → world

2.1.2 text → world

2.1.3 child → world

2.1.4 text → other text

2.2 mentions the purpose of reading/in books/in school/ in life

3. Understanding of the extended text

3.1 internal coherence of text

3.2 repetitive cues

3.3 sequence of events

3.4 prediction

3.5 makes statements about story structure

3.6 brings background knowledge into reading situation

The numbering of the category items and sub-items in Table X corresponds with the above numbers.

TABLE X: ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS/MAKING LINKS

Teacher	Lesson	Category items														
		1				2					3					
		1	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.1.1	2.1.2	2.1.3	2.1.4	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	4
A	1M	2														
	2M															
	3M	1														
	3E	1							1						1	
	4M	1					1		2						2	1
B	1M															
	2M															
	3M	1														
C	1M	1														
	2M	1														
	2E															
	3M															
	3E							1								
D	1M															
	1E															
	2E															
	3M															
	3E															

Table X suggests that the teachers have little to no appreciation of the importance of developing children's understanding of the way in which texts (stories, in this instance) work. In the lessons observed, Teacher D did not offer any guidance to pupils in this regard. Teachers A, B and C do provide some guidance on the use of pictures as cues for print (sub-item 1.1). However, it is only Teacher A who does this explicitly and in the context of the reading of extended text. The following extract from Teacher A's third lesson (multilingual group) provides an example of how she does this:

The teacher points to the first word on the page open in front of Debbie.

Debbie: *(reading)* I'm ...

Teacher: That's it.

Debbie: a ... hungry ...

Teacher: *(pointing to the picture)* What's that?

Debbie: *(reading)* rabbit.

Teacher: Good girl.

Debbie: *(pointing to the words herself)* I like eating ... carrots.

Teacher: Well done. How did you know that says carrots?

Martine: *(Debbie points to the picture of the carrots at the same time as Martine speaks.)* She can see the picture.

Teacher: Did you look at the picture?

Debbie: *(nods)*

Teacher: That was clever. Turn over.

Table X indicates that Teacher A also makes some reference to the links between different texts that the pupils have read (item 2.1.4) and about the structure of the texts she uses (item 3.5). However, there are not sufficient instances of developing pupils' understanding of the way in which texts are structured to suggest that the teacher has identified this as a teaching goal.

The general absence of instances in this category does not allow for the establishment of trends relating to instruction provided for English speaking and multilingual groups of pupils.

(iv) Interactional strategies

This category is made up of three items: eliciting strategies, shifting control and managing error.

The sub-items of 'eliciting strategies' examine the ways in which teachers attempt to draw the pupils into participating in the lesson's activities (Evans, 1997, 70). The sub-items are:

1. Eliciting strategies

- 1.1 gestures
- 1.2 silence
- 1.3 clozure
- 1.4 questions: retrieval [1.4.1]
 - display [1.4.2]
 - inferential [1.4.3]
 - predictive [1.4.4]
 - imaginative [1.4.5]
 - open-ended [1.4.6]
 - asks opinions [1.4.7]
- 1.5 to individual
- 1.6 to class/group
- 1.7 keeps seeking right answer
- 1.8 invites comment on story and on responses.

The sub-item 'keeps seeking right answer' (1.7) is a block to learning since this type of teacher behaviour does not enable the pupils to be participants in the process of making meaning or shaping knowledge. The numbering of the category items and sub-items in Table Y corresponds with the numbers above .

TABLE Y: INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES (ELICITING STRATEGIES)

Teacher	Lesson	Category items													
		1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4				1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8			
					.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7				
A	1M				1	2	1	1			1	4	1		
	2M				1							1			
	3M		1			2	1	1	1			1	2		
	3E				1	1						1			
	4M				1										
B	1M													1	
	2M													1	
	3M	1	1				2	1				3			
C	1M				4	3	1					6	2	3	
	2M	1			4							2	2	3	
	2E													2	
	3M				1										1
	3E				1		1						1	1	
D	1M														2
	1E														3
	2E					2						2		1	
	3M				3	2						2	3	1	
	3E				2		1					1	1	1	

Table Y suggests that the chief means by which the teachers engage pupils' participation in an activity is by using questioning. However, the types of questions used and the frequency with which they are used, differs from teacher to teacher. Teachers A, C and D ask predominantly retrieval- and display-type questions. At best, these types of questions offer pupils the opportunity to use the vocabulary of the story or to practise particular linguistic structures. At worst, they merely require pupils to regurgitate information (Evans, 1997, 70). The value of inferential, predictive, imaginative, open-ended and opinion-type questions lies in their ability to model for pupils the types of questions that proficient readers may ask in order to make meaning from text. Only Teacher A asks a significant number of these questions across the four lessons observed. However, a third fewer instances of the use of this type of question (compared to retrieval- and display-type questions) are recorded for

Teacher A.

The only trend discernable for this item may be found in Teacher C's lessons where she appears to use questioning as an eliciting strategy more often with multilingual groups of pupils. (It is not possible to discern a trend in Teacher A's lessons since the level of difficulty of the text used in the 'English-speakers-only' lesson probably did not create a need for questioning.)

The sub-items of 'shifting control' indicate the extent to which teachers have moved (or are moving) away from a model of teaching in which pupils occupy passive recipient positions, to a model of teaching in which the pupils actively participate in the learning process. The sub-items in this category are:

2. Shifting control

2.1 allows spontaneous responses from children

2.2 expects children to help each other

2.3 relinquishes control for peer interaction/comments

2.4 relinquishes control entirely (when pupils engage in task)

2.5 acknowledges contributions of pupils

2.6 allows peer correction of errors

2.7 blocks shift of control, takes over / tells / emphasises correct pronunciation etc.

Item 2.7 identifies teacher behaviour which prevents pupils from engaging actively in the learning process and is thus, a block to learning. The numbering of the category sub-items in Table Z corresponds with the numbers above.

The third item in this category, 'managing error', captures the ways in which teachers respond to pupil error. "How teachers manage error or correct learners' answers can affect how children learn" (Evans, 1997, 70). Positive error management (sub-items 3.1 to 3.5, and 3.7.1) does not interfere with learning and may also become the substance of a teaching-learning interaction. On the other hand, negative error management (sub-items 3.6 and 3.7.2) interferes with learning because it detracts from the central focus of the task and/or does not utilise a teaching opportunity. The sub-items of 'managing error' are:

3. Managing error

- 3.1 gives opportunity for self-correction
- 3.2 acknowledges error, calls for explanation
- 3.3 uses error to teach / 'repair'
- 3.4 asks pupils to decide right/wrong with no comment
- 3.5 unobtrusive error correction
- 3.6 unnecessary error correction
- 3.7 ignores error: positive [3.7.1]
negative [3.7.2].

The numbering of the category sub-items in Table Z corresponds with the numbering above. Sub-items 3.6 and 3.7.1 represent blocks to learning.

**TABLE Z: INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES (SHIFTING CONTROL;
MANAGING ERROR)**

Teacher	Lesson	Category items														
		2							3							
		2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	
															.1	.2
A	1M	3	3	1	1					1	1		1			
	2M								1	1			1			1
	3M	1												1		
	3E								1				2			
	4M	1	1											3		
B	1M							2					1			
	2M							1								
	3M	2						1	1		1	1				1
C	1M							3						4		
	2M						1	1						5		
	2E							1						2		
	3M							4						1		
	3E							1	1					1		
D	1M							1								
	1E							4								
	2E							1						1		
	3M							2								
	3E	1						1						1		

Table Z suggests that Teachers B, C and D operate predominantly within a traditional transmission model of teaching. The number of blocks to the learning process were recorded: Teacher B - four blocks; Teacher C - ten blocks; Teacher D - nine blocks. Thus, Table Z suggests that these teachers do not see the value of shifting control to the pupils. Teacher A provides eleven instances of behaviours which encourage the active participation of pupils in the learning process. However, the majority of these instances are concentrated in the first lesson observed. No trends relating to the teaching of English-only or multilingual groups of pupils are evident.

Table Z also indicates that Teachers A, B and C make use of both positive and negative error management. Teachers A and B use positive error management in the main while Teacher C uses ‘unnecessary error correction’ (thirteen instances were recorded across three lessons). Instances of unnecessary error correction are the only instances of Teacher D’s behaviour recorded for this item.

Thus, Tables Y and Z suggest that Teacher A is the most likely to successfully engage pupils in activities which may lead to learning whilst Teachers C and D maintain control in the process of transmission. Teacher B falls somewhere between these two groups since she displays a number of instances in which pupils are invited to actively participate and an almost equal number of instances in which her behaviour discourages this.

(v) Transactional response

This category examines the ways in which teachers respond to their pupils (‘response’) and the manner in which feedback on performance is given and pupils’ contributions are utilised for teaching (‘feedback’). There are several sub-items for each item:

1. Response

- 1.1 acknowledges/affirms responses
- 1.2 makes encouraging comments
- 1.3 takes the learner seriously
- 1.4 builds on pupils’ knowledge
- 1.5 accepts predictions from pupils’ view points
- 1.6 participates with pupils to maximise participation
- 1.7 confirms / disconfirms previous predictions / ‘guesses’
- 1.8 collaborates in working out an understanding of the text
- 1.9 addresses class/group
- 1.10 addresses individuals

2. Feedback

- 2.1 ‘unpacking’ from a pupil’s response
- 2.2 opens up from another pupil’s comment
- 2.3 elaborates on pupil response

2.4 comments on effort, task difficulty/ease etc.

No blocks are identified for this category. The numbering of category items and sub-items in Table AA corresponds with the above numbering

TABLE AA: TRANSACTIONAL RESPONSES.

Teacher	Lesson	Category items													
		1										2			
		1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.10	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
A	1M	1	5	3						4	3				
	2M	1	1	1			1	1			1				
	3M	2	2	1							1				
	3E	1	1	1							1			1	
	4M			1	1		1		1						
B	1M		1												
	2M														
	3M	1	1	1										1	
C	1M	1			1										
	2M	2									1				
	2E														
	3M														
D	1M														
	1E														
	2E														
	3M														
	3E														

Table AA indicates that Teachers A, B and C mostly make use of affirming and encouraging comments in response to their pupils' efforts. In order to avoid unhelpful composite scores for this item (Evans, 1997, 74), comments such as 'very good' or 'good girl' were discounted in favour of slightly more substantial comments. For example,

Teacher A:

"There you go. Alice has helped you."

Teacher B:

“Alright Chesray’s found something that’s not the same. Chesray, show me what is not the same”

Teacher C:

Nazrene reads “I’m red too.” The teachers then says, “I’m red too.”

Teacher A has the highest number of instances of response to her pupils (twenty-six in total for item 1). Approximately half of these responses are recorded as sub-items 1.1 and 1.2 (fourteen instances), while the remaining twelve instances are spread across items 1.3 to 1.8 (with the exception of 1.5). Table AA suggests that Teachers B and C perform poorly on the ‘response’ item with only four instances of response recorded across each of the teachers’ three lessons. There are no instances of response recorded for Teacher D.

The teachers’ performance on the item ‘feedback’ is the weakest of all the items on the schedule. This suggests that the teachers do not appreciate the importance of engaging in sustained dialogue with pupils in order to create the ZPD and support pupils’ performance within the zone.

The general absence of instances in this category does not allow for the establishment of trends relating to instruction provided for English speaking and multilingual groups of pupils.

4.2.4 Teacher questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire consists of both common questions which were posed to all of the teachers and different questions posed to individual teachers. Table BB summarises the teachers’ responses to the common questions. (An example of a completed teacher questionnaire can be found in Appendix G.)

The questions have been summarised into categories which are situated on the vertical axis of the table. The teachers’ responses are listed on the horizontal axis. Their responses have been edited for the purposes of this table. However, the teachers’ own words are mostly used. (Note that Table BB, because of the data captured, runs over two pages.)

TABLE BB: A SUMMARY OF THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

Categories of response	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
1. Approach to the teaching of reading	Child must enjoy reading - I vary the reading activities and teaching aids to maintain element of surprise. Begin teaching reading almost immediately because our children are 'reading ready' when they come to school. Some can already read.	Teaching of sub-skills (eg. visual sequential order; left to right eye movement; initial, medial and final sounds in phonics) needed before formal reading instruction. Non-English speaking pupils need to be able to communicate first before learning to read.	Commencement with phonics first will assist pupils with decoding words. Preparatory work needed before pupils get the reader - telling stories from a set of three or four pictures.	Must equip pupils with many skills before commencing formal reading instruction. Preparatory work needed before pupils get the reader.
2. Materials used to teach reading	Tapes, pictures, sentence strips, art pictures.	Steps to Reading Books 1 & 2, Kathy & Mark pictures, individual supplementary readers.	Pictures, flashcards, objects, worksheets with missing words, jumbled sentences.	Pictures, story strips, readers, library books, reading cards.
3. Reading material taken home by the pupils	Individual home readers, class readers.	Basic and supplementary readers.	Cards or books.	Reader.
4. Intended outcomes of the Grade One reading instruction programme	Read with confidence, fluency and expression at whatever level they read, good word attack skills, read with understanding, identify books written by familiar authors.	Positive attitude towards reading, word attack skills, interpret pictures, be able to risk and predict, top group should be able to read more fluently with comprehension.	Decode phonetic words as well as certain look-and-say words.	Recognise high frequency words, read fluently.
5. Will non-English speaking readers read as well as the English-speaking readers?	Yes, depending on home support and individual ability.	The brighter pupils and those who can communicate reasonably well will. Pupils who aren't able to speak much English will probably be slower.	No. These pupils are not exposed to other reading matter at home, do not visit libraries and are not read to by their parents.	No. Most of these pupils come from less privileged homes, interest of their parents is also lacking. There are sometimes some exceptions.
6. Languages spoken and understood	English, Afrikaans.	English, Afrikaans.	English, Afrikaans.	English, Afrikaans.
7. Languages used for teaching	English, unless an Afrikaans speaker has little English, then I use both.	English.	English, Afrikaans and some Xhosa words.	English and Afrikaans.

Categories of response	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
8. Effect of multilingual class composition on teaching of reading	Changed approach slightly because of new reading scheme, use body language, use peer teaching, provide tasks at varying levels of difficulty.	Doing more reading based on language experience and incidental reading, read sentences in English and Xhosa (where possible) - affirms home language.	Use a few Xhosa words, uses Grade 2 pupil as translators sometimes.	Have to teach basic English words.
9. Other effects of multilingual class composition	Ensure that non-English speaking pupils are seated next to pupil who can explain to them or show them what to do, repeat instructions to them where necessary.	Pupils help one another with translation, use more pictures, sometimes sing a song or say a poem in Xhosa.	More advanced pupils go over words with Xhosa speakers.	We do greeting in four languages, will teach non-Xhosa speakers some basic Xhosa words.

Teacher A's responses in categories 1 and 4 indicate that she believes that it is important to help pupils to make meaning as they read, to provide opportunities for them to experience pleasure from reading and to teach them strategies for dealing with unfamiliar words. She uses a variety of materials in the teaching of reading (categories 2 and 3) although 'real' books are noticeably absent. Teacher A reports that having a class which is multilingual in composition has not changed her approach to the teaching of reading (category 8) although she does appear to have made some adjustments to the way in which she organises the learning in her classroom (categories 8 and 9). Importantly, Teacher A believes that "dependent on home support and individual ability", the non-English speakers should learn to read as well as the English-speaking pupils in her class (category 5).

Teacher B believes that there exists a set of "sub-skills" which must be mastered before reading instruction can begin (category 1). This belief influences the nature of the intended learning outcomes that she identifies - reading with understanding is only an intended outcome for the more able readers in the class (category 4). This suggests that Teacher B believes that reading is primarily a process of decoding written language into speech. The reading materials described by Teacher B (categories 2 and 3), include preparatory materials which teach sub-skills (*Steps to Reading*) and readers with controlled vocabulary (*Kathy and Mark*). For this teacher too, real books are noticeably absent. Having a multilingual class appears to have impacted on Teacher B's reading approach and classroom practice

(categories 8 and 9). This impact is also evidenced by the presence of a Xhosa speaking teaching assistant who primarily plays an organisation and management role in the classroom. (This information is not captured on Table BB but may be found in Appendix G.) She believes that learning to communicate well in English is a prerequisite to be able to read well (in English) (categories 1 and 5).

The emphasis in Teacher C's approach to the teaching of reading is on phonics and word recognition (categories 1 and 4). Thus, the materials she uses to teach reading are not book based (categories 2 and 3). This teacher says that she sends books home with her pupils. However, it is not clear whether these are 'readers' or 'real' books. The effect of having a class which is multilingual in composition appears to have had an impact on Teacher C's classroom practice (categories 8 and 9) with pupils being assigned the main task of supporting Xhosa speakers. This teacher assumes that the non-English speaking pupils in her class will not learn to read as well as the English speakers. Some of the reasons she gives for this opinion (category 5) are contradicted by the data collected in the pupil interviews (see Appendix L).

Teacher D places emphasis on equipping pupils with pre-reading skills and on teaching word recognition (categories 1 and 4). The materials this teacher uses to teach reading include "readers" with controlled vocabulary and "library books" (categories 2 and 3). Having a multilingual class does not appear to have impacted significantly on Teacher D's approach to the teaching of reading or on her general classroom practice (categories 8 and 9). Teacher D's prediction that the non-English speaking pupils will not learn to read as well as the English speakers is based on assumptions she makes about the links between social class and literacy learning (category 5).

4.2.5 Miscue analysis and indicators of pupils' concept of print

The analysis of pupils' miscues when reading extended and unfamiliar text, and the completion of a schedule which measures pupils' concept of print provide information on pupils' reading behaviour. The data created by means of these two instruments will be reflected together on the tables which follow.

In order to assess the pupils' reading behaviour, the results of the miscue analysis of their reading were converted to percentages. (An example of a text marked with miscues can be found in Appendix H.) The method of doing this was drawn from Goodman (1979). It entailed counting the number of actual miscues and then identifying those which were "shifts to the reader's own dialect" (Goodman, 1979, 10). Since miscues which represent shifts to the reader's dialect indicate a focus on meaning-making (ibid., 10), these miscues were subtracted from the number of actual miscues thereby providing a total number of miscues. Next, the miscues which resulted in acceptable meaning and those which were successfully corrected were identified and totalled. This figure was then expressed as a percentage of the total number of miscues (excluding dialectical miscues) and represents the percentage of acceptable miscues made. This figure "is a measure of the reader's ability to keep his [sic] focus successfully on meaning" (ibid., 10).

Tables CC, DD, EE and FF present the results of the miscue analysis completed in April and in June. The vertical axis reflects the names of the pupils who were selected. The horizontal axis reflects the level of the text engaged with (Appendix B provides details of the actual texts used), the total number of miscues made by each pupil expressed as a percentage (April and June), and the percentage of these miscues which are considered to be acceptable (April and June). Where pupils did not actually read the text, a short description of the way in which they engaged with the text is given.

The schedule of indicators was completed by 'ticking' (✓) either the 'yes' or 'no' columns. (An example of a completed schedule of indicators can be found in Appendix I.) The numbers of the indicators which were not successfully identified by the pupils are detailed in the last column of Tables CC, DD, EE and FF. The indicators which correspond to these numbers are given in small font below each table.

On Tables CC, DD, EE and FF the asterisk (*) is used to denote a non-English speaker. A (t) is used to denote a pupil for whom translation was provided by a Xhosa-speaking translator.

TABLE CC: MEASUREMENT OF PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT (TEACHER A)

<i>Pupil's name</i>	<i>Miscue Analysis</i>					<i>Schedule of indicators</i>
	<i>text level</i>	<i>% miscues (April)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (April)</i>	<i>% miscues (June)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (June)</i>	<i>Indicator incorrectly identified</i>
<i>Zovuyo*</i>	1.1	18	20	7	75	13
<i>Kan*</i>	1.1	39	45	34	53	3, 13
<i>Debbie*</i>	1.1	46	20	16	56	10
<i>Jessica</i>	1.1	11	18	11	18	none
<i>Toni</i>	1.3	11	25	5	25	none
<i>Zaitoon</i>	5	4	45	3	50	none
<i>Camilla</i>	5 (April) 6 (June)	0.7	50	0.8	25	none

Indicators: (1) Identifies front of book (2) Identifies the title (3) Identifies the author (4) Points to print (5) Identifies where the text begins (6) Shows print moves from left-right (7) Demonstrates return sweep (8) Matches word by word (9) Identifies first and last part of story (10) Identifies bottom of picture (11) Identifies beginning of sentence (12) Identifies end of sentence (13) Identifies a question (14) Identifies left page before right (15) Shows one and two letters (16) Shows one and two words (17) Turns pages appropriately (18) Holds book appropriately (19) Can point to the page numbers

Table CC indicates that pupils selected from Teacher A's class read texts of varying degrees of difficulty. The pupils which Teacher A identified as her 'best readers' read texts which are considerably more complex than those read by her 'weakest readers'. (See Appendices J and K for texts described as levels 1.1 and 6 on the above table.) The percentage of miscues recorded in June is generally lower than in April. Importantly, the percentage of the miscues considered acceptable increases from April to June. The most substantial increase in the percentage of acceptable miscues can be seen in the three non-English speaking pupils' reading. The four English-speaking pupils were able to successfully complete all the tasks on the schedule of indicators. The non-English speakers scored satisfactorily on this test.

TABLE DD: MEASUREMENT OF PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT (TEACHER B)

<i>Pupil's name</i>	<i>Miscue Analysis</i>					<i>Schedule of indicators</i>
	<i>text level</i>	<i>% miscues (April)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (April)</i>	<i>% miscues (June)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (June)</i>	<i>Indicator incorrectly identified</i>
Lungelo (t)	1.2(April) 1.1 (June)	Looks at pictures and says words and phrases in Xhosa and English.		Looks at pictures and says sentences in Xhosa and English.		6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14
Pepe* (t)	1.1	98	33	84	6	8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
Franscina	1.1	38	52	32	6	9, 13
Lungile* (t)	1.1	Looks at pictures and says words and phrases in Xhosa and English.		16	38	9
Theo*	1.1 (April) 1.3 (June)	21	50	14	10	none
Lisa	1.1	25	21	25	29	9, 13
Dylan	1.1	32	11	13	29	9, 13

Indicators: (1) Identifies front of book (2) Identifies the title (3) Identifies the author (4) Points to print (5) Identifies where the text begins (6) Shows print moves from left-right (7) Demonstrates return sweep (8) Matches word by word (9) Identifies first and last part of story (10) Identifies bottom of picture (11) Identifies beginning of sentence (12) Identifies end of sentence (13) Identifies a question (14) Identifies left page before right (15) Shows one and two letters (16) Shows one and two words (17) Turns pages appropriately (18) Holds book appropriately (19) Can point to the page numbers

Table DD indicates that the pupils selected from Teacher B's class are reading texts which are graded at level 1.1. Only one pupil is able to read the most difficult book at this level. In April, two pupils spoke about the pictures when they were asked to read the story. By June one of these pupils was able to read the text with a low percentage of miscues. The percentage of miscues made by the other pupils in June was lower than in April. However, the percentage of acceptable miscues was also substantially lower. Theo was the only pupil able to successfully complete all the tasks on the schedule of indicators. None of the others was able to correctly identify the first and last part of the story read. Five of the pupils were unable to identify a question. Two Xhosa-speaking pupils achieved low scores on the schedule of indicators test.

TABLE EE: MEASUREMENT OF PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT (TEACHER C)

<i>Pupil's name</i>	<i>Miscue Analysis</i>					<i>Schedule of indicators</i>
	<i>text level</i>	<i>% miscues (April)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (April)</i>	<i>% miscues (June)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (June)</i>	<i>Indicator incorrectly identified</i>
<i>Zola*</i>	1.1	98	11	75	17	8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
<i>Christopher*</i>	1.1	45	34	68	26	3, 8, 9
<i>Ayesha</i>	1.2(April) 1.1 (June)	Looks at the pictures and says sentences in English.		93	55	2, 8, 9
<i>Jason</i>	1.1	79	34	36	45	5, 9, 10, 13, 15, 16
<i>Labeka</i>	1.3	41	3	28	19	3, 9
<i>Ryan</i>	1.1	20	73	18	40	3, 9, 13

Indicators: (1) Identifies front of book (2) Identifies the title (3) Identifies the author (4) Points to print (5) Identifies where the text begins (6) Shows print moves from left-right (7) Demonstrates return sweep (8) Matches word by word (9) Identifies first and last part of story (10) Identifies bottom of picture (11) Identifies beginning of sentence (12) Identifies end of sentence (13) Identifies a question (14) Identifies left page before right (15) Shows one and two letters (16) Shows one and two words (17) Turns pages appropriately (18) Holds book appropriately (19) Can point to the page numbers

Table EE indicates that all the pupils selected from Teacher C's class are reading texts graded at level one. In April, one pupil spoke about the pictures when asked to read the story. By June, this pupil attempted to read the text albeit with a very high percentage of miscues. The percentage of miscues made by the English-speakers and the Xhosa-speaker was lower in June than in April. However, for two of these pupils the percentage of acceptable miscues also decreased. The percentage of miscues made by Christopher increased substantially between April and June while the percentage of acceptable miscues decreased. Two pupils (one English speaker and one Xhosa speaker) achieved low scores on the schedule of indicators test. None of the pupils was able to correctly identify the first and last part of the story read. Half of the pupils were unable to identify the author or a question and were unable to match the words on the page to what they were reading.

TABLE FF: MEASUREMENT OF PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT (TEACHER D)

<i>Pupil's name</i>	<i>Miscue Analysis</i>					<i>Schedule of indicators</i>
	<i>text level</i>	<i>% miscues (April)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (April)</i>	<i>% miscues (June)</i>	<i>% acceptable miscues (June)</i>	<i>Indicator incorrectly identified</i>
<i>Shadley*</i>	1.1	Looks at the pictures and tells his own story in Afrikaans.		Looks at the pictures and tells his own story in Afrikaans.		3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19
<i>Lwando* (t)</i>	1.1	Looks at pictures and says words in Xhosa and English.		Looks at pictures and says words in Xhosa and English.		2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 13, 17, 19
<i>Yolanda* (t)</i>	1.1	Looks at pictures and says words in Xhosa and English.		Looks at pictures and says words in Xhosa and English.		6, 7, 8, 10, 13, 15, 16
<i>Taryn</i>	1.1	54	33	71	25	3, 4, 8, 9, 13, 16
<i>Mohamien</i>	1.1	21	25	21	25	2, 3, 9, 13, 16
<i>Warda</i>	1.1	25	21	16	44	5, 9, 12, 13, 15
<i>Kareemah</i>	1.1	18	30	7	25	9, 13

Indicators: (1) Identifies front of book (2) Identifies the title (3) Identifies the author (4) Points to print (5) Identifies where the text begins (6) Shows print moves from left-right (7) Demonstrates return sweep (8) Matches word by word (9) Identifies first and last part of story (10) Identifies bottom of picture (11) Identifies beginning of sentence (12) Identifies end of sentence (13) Identifies a question (14) Identifies left page before right (15) Shows one and two letters (16) Shows one and two words (17) Turns pages appropriately (18) Holds book appropriately (19) Can point to the page numbers

Table FF indicates that the pupils selected from Teacher D's class are all reading the first of the texts graded at level one. In both April and June, the three non-English speaking pupils looked at the pictures and spoke about them when asked to read the story. These pupils also achieved very low scores on the schedule of indicators test. The percentage of miscues made by one of the English speaking pupils increased in June but this figure decreased in the case of two other pupils. Only one pupil produced a higher percentage of acceptable miscues in June. Three of the four English speaking pupils achieved low scores on the schedule of indicators test. None of these pupils was able to identify the first and last part of the story read or a question.

4.2.6 Pupil interviews

The purpose of pupil interviews in this study was to explicate the impact of socio-economic factors on pupils' reading ability. However, within the prescribed length of this dissertation it has not been possible to explore this link. Instead the data created by this instrument has been drawn on to exemplify or contradict the data created by other instruments.

The responses received to the questions asked during the structured interviews are presented in Table HH in Appendix L. (An example of an interview questionnaire sheet can be found in Appendix M.) The table is followed by a brief discussion of the data.

The above chapter provided a tabular analysis of the data collected by the seven instruments used in this study. A theoretical analysis of the data is undertaken in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: A FURTHER ANALYSIS

This chapter provides a theoretical analysis of the data presented in Chapter 4. It is divided into five sections. The first four sections (5.1 - 5.4) utilise the theoretical constructs of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and a concept of print together with the items on the video observation schedule to interrogate the data created by this instrument. Transcriptions of parts of the teachers' lessons are used to illustrate the argument and, where appropriate, links are made with the data created by other instruments in the study. Data on each teacher is discussed separately. The fifth section (5.5) provides a comparative analysis of the teachers' classroom practice (what they do) in teaching a concept of print. The analysis links what teachers do, to their understandings of appropriate practice (what they say) and to the outcomes of their teaching.

5.1 Teacher A

Teacher A displays a total of one hundred and sixty instances in which she develops her pupils concept of print across the five categories of the video observation schedule. Five instances of 'blocks to learning' were also recorded. One hundred and sixty instances may be regarded as a significant number of instances.

The highest number of instances of developing pupils' concept of print are noted for the category **organisation and planning** (forty-seven instances; see Table V). The challenge presented by materials used in lessons is particularly important in relation to the creation of the ZPD and thus, for the creation of opportunities for learning. Teacher A chooses materials appropriate to the teaching of a concept of print. In the main the materials aim at her pupils' potential level of development thus providing her with an opportunity to increase the pupils' understanding of print. (The notable exception to this is the material chosen for the small group lesson given to English-speakers. A discussion of this may be found in Chapter 4.) Therefore, Teacher A's practice demonstrates the Vygotskian principle that "learning which is orientated toward developmental levels that have already been reached is ineffective ... [and] that the only 'good learning' is that which is in advance of development." (Vygotsky, 1978, 89).

Modelling is the main category of behaviour used by Teacher A (thirty-seven instances; see Table W) for developing her pupils' concept of print. In assisting her pupils' performance in the ZPD, she models multiple strategies for making meaning from text (item 8, Table W). The data collected for the category 'strategies for dealing with unknown words' on the classroom observation schedule (Table T) supports this. Table T indicates that Teacher A models 'sounding out' (phonics), the use of picture cues, the use of context and the use of prediction as strategies for readers to access unfamiliar words. Teacher A provides a model of reading as a meaning-making activity. The extract below is an example of this. The extract shows how she demonstrates that both phonic knowledge and a consideration of context can be used as strategies for comprehension (item 8). In the extract, the pupils are reading the story *Mai Ling in the Toy Shop*.

Kan begins to read the text "Come on, Gary. I want to get a toy." while the teacher points to the words in Kan's book. She reads "Come on, Gary. I want to..." and gets stuck on the next word "get".

Teacher: Try and sound it out.

Kan: G - i - t.

Teacher: G - e - t.

Kan & Teacher: *(teacher nods her head)* Get.

Teacher: I want to get...

Kan: a...

Teacher: a

Kan looks at the next word.

Teacher: What did she want to get?

Kan: A teddy bear.

Teacher: She wanted to get a toy, yes. She wanted to get a toy. Let's read it again.

Teacher & Kan: *(reading)* Come on, Gary. I want...

Kan: *(teacher points to words) ...to...*

Teacher: Get.

Kan: ...get...

The teacher waits and points to the next word.

Kan: ...a toy.

Teacher: Good girl.

In terms of Tharp and Gallimore's theory of performance assistance mechanisms (1988) discussed in Chapter 2, Teacher A both models and instructs the pupils in this extract. In other words, as the teacher reads with the pupil and points to the words for her, she models the directional rules of print (item 3) by pointing to words in the sentence. She models reading in units of meaning ("I want to get...", item 1), reading in linguistic units ("I want to get ... a", item 2) and models that print is meaningful ("What did she want to get?"). In instructing the pupil, she models interacting with print as a meaning-making activity.

Models of reading as a meaning-making activity are provided in all of Teacher A's lessons irrespective of whether she is working with her weakest or most able readers; with English speaking or non-English speaking pupils. The extract below is another example of how interaction with text as a meaning-making activity is modelled when she comments while reading a story to her pupils.

Teacher: *(showing a picture from the book to the pupils)* I just love this picture it's so colourful.

and a little later,

Teacher: *(reading)* "She is a beautiful doll with lovely dark skin and lovely dark hair. The old man lets his grandchildren play with the doll but only if they're very careful." I think I'd love to have a doll like that.

Pupils: Me too.

Teacher: I wonder if she's a porcelain doll?

In the above extract, Teacher A models interaction with text as an enjoyable activity (“I just love this picture it’s so colourful”, item 5). Her question “I wonder if she’s a porcelain doll?” creates a sense of anticipation (item 7) and models the kinds of questions that proficient readers unconsciously ask of text in order to create meaning. By choosing to read to pupils as part of a reading lesson (an activity which none of the other teachers engages in), Teacher A demonstrates that she understands that reading to pupils provides a means of developing their concept of print.

The video observation category **establishing relationships/making links** captures the behaviours which form part of the performance assistance mechanism which Tharp and Gallimore (1988) term “cognitive structuring”. The teacher behaviours detailed in this category of the schedule help pupils “to organize the raw stuff of experience - what is before them in the text...- with other like instances” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1990, 183). The tabular analysis of the category (Table X) indicates that Teacher A pays some attention to making explicit those functions which readers perform in order to make sense of text (thirteen instances). “I wonder if she’s a porcelain doll” is an example of the way in which she makes links between the text and the world (sub-item 2.1.2). However, the lowest number of instances are recorded for this category. By neglecting to place more emphasis on making the implicit explicit, Teacher A limits the concept of print which she mediates to her pupils.

A total of thirty-six instances were recorded in the category **interactional strategies** with most of these instances (thirteen) falling within the sub-item ‘questions’ (1.4). As noted earlier in the discussion of Table Y in Chapter 4, Teacher A asks predominantly retrieval (1.4.1) and display (1.4.2) type questions. The extract below illustrates the teacher’s use of these types of questions in her reading lessons. In the extract, the pupils have finished reading the story, *Who’s there?* and have been instructed to close their books.

Teacher: What did they find in the nest?

Four pupils put up their hands. The teacher points to Coila.

Coila: A chirpy bird.

Teacher: A chirpy bird. What is a chirpy bird? What does that mean?

Coila: He cheeps. He chirps.

Teacher: He chirps. He's quite noisy, hey?

Camilla is miming a bird that is chirping.

Teacher: There we go. Look at Camilla. She's doing it perfectly. Camilla, what was in the kennel?

Camilla: A bouncy dog.

Teacher: Okay. Tell me, where did they find ... the big, scary, snake?

Coila: Um ... at the edge of the woods.

In terms of the way in which Tharp and Gallimore (1988) define questioning as a performance assistance mechanism, Teacher A uses questioning (as illustrated in this extract) as a means of assessing her pupils' actual level of development in relation to the cognitive process of extracting events or content from text ("What did they find in the nest", "What is a chirpy bird? What does that mean?"). "If a child can do such-and-such independently, it means that the functions for such-and-such have matured in her [sic]" (Vygotsky, 1978, 86). Thus, Teacher A's use of questioning as a means of assessment fails to create a ZPD and thus, also fails to act as a strategy for creating an opportunity for learning.

However, when Teacher A asks assistance-type questions (Table Y), she begins to demonstrate to pupils the types of questions which proficient readers might (unconsciously) ask of a text. In other words, she guides pupils to interrogate the text. For example, she reads a story to the pupils and then says "I am going to choose three people to tell me what they liked about this book". In a later lesson, she refers to the last page of a book on which the word 'you' is written in large letters and is followed by an exclamation mark. She draws the pupils' attention to this and calls for an explanation - "They've written the word nice and big. What do you think you're meant to do with it?" Unfortunately, while these kinds of questions (and others the teacher asks) may count as assistance-type questions, the infrequency with which such questions are asked indicates that Teacher A is probably not fully aware of the possibility of

questioning as a means of creating the ZPD and of supporting pupils' performance within the zone.

The item, 'shifting control' (item 2, Table Z) indicates the extent to which teachers provide opportunities for "learning to shift from the teacher to the pupil" (Evans, 1997, 16). Thus this category indicates the extent to which pupils are provided with opportunities to practise the mental functions required by a task in order that these functions may become self-regulating. Teacher A demonstrates eleven instances in which control of the learning shifts to the pupils. The following extract is one of the eleven instances recorded. It provides an example of how Teacher A shifts the control to her pupils by allowing spontaneous responses (sub-item 2.1) from them and allowing them to assist each other (sub-item 2.2):

Kate is attempting to build the sentence "I am a dog".

Teacher: What are you missing, Kate?

Kate: 'a'

Teacher: Okay. What other word could we use? I am what 'dog'?

Camilla: Who is missing an 'old'?

Teacher: *(to Camilla)* Sh! *(to Kate)* What could you put? I am what kind of dog?

Alice: She could put "I...I... *(indistinct)*

Teacher: Okay, but she's missing 'a' so what could we put? What...

Alice: You could put "I am the dog".

Teacher: There you go, Kate. Alice has helped you. "I am the dog."

Camilla: You could also put "I am the old dog".

Teacher: Right.

In this extract, Teacher A exhibits four of the behaviours within the item 'shifting control': she allows spontaneous responses from the pupils (Camilla: "Who is missing an 'old'?", sub-item

2.1), she expects the pupils to help each other (“Alice: She could put “I.I. *indistinct*”, sub-item 2.2), she relinquishes control for peer interaction (Camilla: “You could also put ‘I am the old dog’.”, sub-item 2.3) and she acknowledges the contributions of the pupils (“There you go, Kate. Alice has helped you.”, sub-item 2.5).

This extract is taken from the first lesson observed which was the only lesson observed in which the pupils worked in mixed ability groups. The concentration of instances of ‘shifting control’ in this lesson indicates the role that more capable peers can play in assisting performance in the ZPD. However, no instances of Teacher A utilising this resource for performance assistance were recorded in any of her other lessons. This may be because pupils were grouped according to ability.

The item, ‘managing error’ (item 3, Table Z) is the only item on the video observation schedule in which Teacher A displays instances of blocking pupils’ learning. Although the instances of negative error management are low in relation to instances of positive error management, her understanding of what constitutes an error reveals part of her understanding of the reading process. In the extract which follows, the teacher concentrates the pupil’s attention on pronunciation:

Teacher: Yes, well done. Okay let’s read it together.

Kan & Teacher: (*teacher says each word slightly behind Kan*) I - am - on

Kan: De

Teacher: The

Kan: De

Teacher: The

Kan: De

Teacher: (*signals to Kan to watch the movement of her mouth*) The

- Kan: The
- Teacher: Good (*points to next word*)
- Kan: Dinosaur
- Teacher: Right.

The point to note is that the teacher does not credit the evidence of meaning-making on the part of the pupil (an acceptable miscue). Instead she only provides correction (“The”, sub-item 3.6). By not crediting the evidence of meaning-making before correcting the error in pronunciation, the teacher implies that ‘De’ is an unacceptable error. Through negative error management, then, Teacher A provides a model of reading which is different to the one provided in other parts of the lessons observed.

The quality of a teacher’s response to pupil effort is critical in terms of pupils’ ability to “construct their own understandings by self-correcting, adjusting an answer to do better, to discover by themselves the rules and principles of [written] language” (Evans, 1997, 74). Tharp and Gallimore (1988) understand response to pupil performance (see their category ‘feeding back’ in Chapter 2) to provide the opportunity for pupils to redefine their performance in terms of a pre-determined standard. The category **transactional responses** details the behaviours which reflect these understandings of teacher response. Twenty-seven instances were recorded for Teacher A in this category with fourteen of these recorded for the sub-items ‘acknowledges/affirms responses’ (1.1) and ‘makes encouraging comments’ (1.2). (See Table AA and the discussion following the table for examples of these sub-items.) While affirming pupil responses and offering encouraging comments are clearly important, they are primarily aimed at acknowledging that a pupil’s performance on a task is acceptable in terms of the demands of the task. It is the other sub-items within the item ‘response’ and within the item ‘feedback’ which are aimed at the creation of the ZPD and/or the assistance of performance in the zone.

The following extract provides an example of one of the twenty-six instances recorded for Teacher A for the item ‘response’. The pupils have been instructed to make sentences from

individual words that they have encountered in reading *The Toy Shop*. Teacher A responds to a pupil's attempt to construct the sentence 'I am a dinosaur' in a manner which assists the pupil's performance in her ZPD on this task.

Teacher: Let's see how we're doing here. Let's see what we've got so far.

The teacher points to 'I'.

Kan: I

Teacher: I (*points to next word*)

Kan: Am

Teacher: Yes (*points to next word*)

Kan: (*says something indistinct*)

Teacher: No. 'On'. That's the new one, remember - 'on'. Right.

Kan & Teacher: (*reading*) I am on...

Kan: a

Teacher: (*pointing to the next word*) Do we need this one?

Kan: (*shakes her head*)

Teacher: No. We don't need this one. (*removing 'a'*) Right. Let's try again. I...

Kan: (*with teacher pointing*) am - on - the

Teacher: (*pointing to empty space*) Dinosaur

Kan looks for 'dinosaur'. She picks it up and places it after 'the'.

Teacher: Yes, well done. Okay let's read it together.

It is Teacher A's response to Kan (a Chinese speaker) that creates the opportunity for learning in this extract. She affirms the pupil's responses to the task ("Yes", "Yes, well done.", sub-item 1.1), encourages her ("Right. Let's try it again.", sub-item 1.2), participates in the task

(“Do we need this one?”, sub-item 1.6) and confirms (“We don’t need this one.”) and disconfirms the pupil’s predictions or guesses (“No. ‘On’. That’s the new one, remember.”, sub-item 1.7).

Of the twenty-seven instances recorded for **transactional responses**, only thirteen instances of responding to pupil effort in a manner which assists pupils’ performance and/or creates a ZPD were recorded (Table AA). Only one instance is recorded for the item ‘feedback’. This data suggests that Teacher A understands there to be a relationship between teacher response to pupil performance and the future performance of pupils. However, the fact that she does not employ this consistently as a teaching tool suggests that she may not fully understand that it is the quality of a teacher’s response to pupil performance which determines whether such a response results in learning on the part of the pupil. To highlight this point further, a comparative example from the literature is given. The example suggests that the teacher has a clear understanding of the role which teacher response has to play in assisting pupils to move towards their potential level of development within a task:

Teacher: [reading and pointing to the words] *There’s a spot on my skirt. There’s a spot on my pants, cause I fell in the dirt.*

Chris: It looks like mud.

Teacher: Would it make sense if it says mud?

Children: Yes

Isaac: It’s D ... dirt.

Terry: If you don’t know what the words say, you can look at the pictures and see if the pictures tell.

Teacher: Look at the words and the pictures. [nods] That’s good. Here’s another one. *There’s a spot on my sweater.*

Chris: It doesn’t look like a sweater. [pause] It doesn’t look like a spot.

Teacher: Does it look like a shirt?

Children: [all at once] Yes. Well maybe. No.

Teacher: So we have to look at the words to figure it out

(Dahl and Freppon, 1995, 62).

Here the pupils are engaged in developing an understanding of a specific text (“There’s a spot on my pants, cause I fell in the dirt.”) as well as an understanding of the ways in which text works (“So we have to look at the words to figure it out.”). The teacher’s responses to the pupils’ comments support the pupils’ developing understanding of the relationship between print and illustrations whilst emphasising how both are linked to the creation of meaning from a text. In terms of the category under discussion, this teacher displays instances of the following items and sub-items: affirms responses (“Look at the words and the pictures.” [nods], sub-item 1.1), makes encouraging comments (“That’s good.”, sub-item 1.2), unpacking from a pupil’s response (“Would it make sense if it says mud?”, sub-item 2.1), opens up from another pupil’s comment (“Does it look like a shirt?”, sub-item 2.2) and elaborates on pupil response (“So we have to look at the words to figure it out.”, sub-item 2.3).

From the above discussion it may be concluded that, in terms of a Vygotskian theory of teaching and learning, Teacher A creates a significant number of opportunities in which her pupils are able to develop a concept of print and then provides appropriate assistance to them. However, what her pupils are able to learn about print is somewhat restricted by Teacher A’s failure to make explicit the ways in which texts work and the limited manner in which she responds to pupil effort.

5.2 Teacher B

Thirty-nine instances of Teacher B developing her pupils’ concept of print were recorded across the five categories of the video observation schedule. A total of eighteen ‘blocks to learning’ were also recorded.

The tabular analysis of the video observation schedule undertaken in Chapter 4 reveals that the highest concentration of instances for Teacher B falls within the category, **organisation and planning** (Table V). Despite more than adequate lesson preparation and good classroom organisation, none of the material selected for the lessons observed was recorded as being sufficiently challenging in terms of developing pupils' concept of print. Classroom materials and tasks with which pupils are able to interact without assistance are unable to provide for the possibility of learning since what the material and task are expected to teach has already been learned by pupils.

Eight instances of Teacher B employing **modelling** as a means of developing her pupils' concept of print were recorded (Table W). These instances were all recorded in the parts of the lessons in which the teacher used pupils' writing as reading material. Below is an example of how Teacher B models reader interaction with print using her pupils' writing:

Lungile: *(reading)* I went to the Waterfront.

Teacher: *(showing the pupils Lungile's picture)* I went to the Waterfront.

Lungile: *(reading)* This is me.

Teacher: *(showing the pupils Lungile's picture and pointing to the text as she reads)* This is me.

Lungile: *(reading)* We ran races.

Teacher: *(showing the pupils Lungile's picture and pointing to the text as she reads)* We ran races.

In using pupils' writing as reading material the teacher models the relationship between writing and reading. In this extract, she also demonstrates the left to right movement of text (when she points to the text as she reads) and the relationship between illustrations and text (when she shows Lungile's picture to the pupils as she reads). However, modelling a concept of print is limited to these episodes since most of the lesson time is utilised for the 'preparation' of pupils for reading. In her response to the question on the questionnaire which asked teachers to describe their approach to the teaching of reading (Table BB), Teacher B provides a list of

‘sub-skills’ which she claims need to be taught before reading instruction can begin. This understanding of learning to read translates into classroom practice in which Teacher B provides exercises in which pupils identify the initial sounds of words they hear and in which they are expected to develop visual discrimination. An example of this can be seen in the extract below:

Teacher: Teacher’s going to say the names of the pictures now and I want you to point. Point with your finger. (*naming the objects in the first line of the page*) Ball. Bat. Basket. Boat. Car. Now you say it with Teacher. Point.

Pupils with teacher: Ball. Bat. Basket. Boat. Car.

Teacher: Now I want you to listen to the first sound. Listen carefully. Point to the pictures.

Pupils with teacher: Ball.

Teacher: No, you must listen. You mustn’t say it now. You must listen. Just listen. (*emphasising the first sounds*) Ball. Bat. Basket. Boat. Car. (*to Tando*) Are you pointing?

The above extract provides an example of Teacher B creating a ‘block’ to learning. She displays no appreciation for teaching reading strategies (item 10) as pupils are required to identify the sounds of words based on what they hear the teacher saying. Since this study understands that “there is very little we can learn about reading without reading” (Smith, 1985b, 116), it is in the episodes like the one above that nine ‘blocks to learning’ are recorded in the category **modelling**. Drills and exercises demanding the sound and shape of letters and words in isolation from text do not count as demonstrations of a concept of print within this study. (Although Teacher A also teaches phonic knowledge, she does so exclusively in the context of reading text.) Teacher B provides limited modelling of a concept of print.

The tabular analysis of the category **establishing relationships/making links** reveals that there is only one instance across the three lessons observed in which Teacher B makes explicit the relationship between the illustrations and print in texts (an illustration of a horse appears in the

text and the teacher asks “Now, what is Kathy going to ride”). Given that Teacher B makes no use of extended text for the teaching of reading (Table R), virtually no opportunities arise for her to utilise the behaviours of this category.

For the category **interactional strategies** (Tables Y and Z), eleven instances were recorded across the three items. Seven blocks to learning were also recorded. The low number of instances and high number of blocks (in relation to instances) as well as the items and sub-items for which these were recorded indicate that Teacher B does not use questioning as a means of assessing pupils’ actual development in relation to tasks provided or as a means of creating learning opportunities. However, since the tasks provided were lacking in challenge for the pupils, there were relatively few opportunities in which it would have been possible to create a ZPD.

Five instances were recorded for the category **transactional responses**. Since in three of the instances recorded Teacher B merely acknowledged a pupil’s contribution or offered encouragement, this data suggests that Teacher B does not understand how teacher response to pupil effort creates opportunities for new learning.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that, in terms of a Vygotskian theory of teaching and learning, Teacher B makes limited use of the ZPD as a teaching tool and creates very few opportunities in which her pupils may develop a concept of print. Furthermore, her emphasis on exercises which supposedly teach the sub-skills of reading prior to reading, results in an inaccurate demonstration of the way in which texts work, and accounts for the high number of blocks (eighteen) recorded.

5.3 Teacher C

Thirty-eight instances of Teacher C developing her pupils’ concept of print were recorded across the five categories of the video observation schedule. However, a total of fifty-two ‘blocks to learning’ were also recorded.

The number of instances recorded (thirteen instances) for the category **organisation and planning** indicate that like Teachers A and B, Teacher C's lessons are well prepared and she displays good classroom organisation skills. However, the nine 'blocks to learning' also recorded for this category indicate that Teacher C misunderstands the task of teaching reading. This teacher makes no use of extended text (Table R). Instead she uses flash cards with words written on them ("castle"; "Gary"), labels ("the duck"; "the doll") and contrived sentences which make use of controlled vocabulary ("The fat cat is bad."; "In the bag went Bad Fat Cat. "). These materials are inappropriate to the developing of pupils' concept of print.

There are no instances of **modelling** recorded for Teacher C. Instead, ten 'blocks to learning' are recorded in this category (Table W).

Table R exemplifies that Teacher C focuses almost exclusively on teaching word recognition and phonic skills in her reading lessons. The extract below indicates the extent to which an emphasis placed on drilling phonic knowledge complicates - and thus, interferes with - learning to read. In this example, the pupil is required to 'sound out' a word that she is already able to read and to recognise the shape of letters in terms of previous associations made between letters and objects and animals.

Nadia attempts to read the sentence "In the bag went Bad Fat Cat".

Nadia: (reading) In...

Teacher: What's after 'in'?

Nadia rubs her face with her hands and looks at the page in front of her.

Teacher: No, because she had a birthday yesterday and she went to bed too late and she didn't even bother to read. 'The', my kookoo. Come now.

Nadia: (reading) the...

Teacher: Sound it. (to another pupil) Just put it there. Thank you. (to Nadia) Sound it.

Nadia: (reading) ...bag...

Teacher: Sound it.

Nadia: d...

Teacher: Is that a bat with the ball or a donkey on the back?

Nadia doesn't answer the question. She rubs her face with her hands.

Teacher: Ryan. What's that, Gary? A bat with the ball in front or a donkey on the back?

Gary: A bat.

Teacher: A bat with the ball so it must be a...?

Neither Gary nor Nadia responds.

Teacher: A bat with a ball must have a ...?

Nadia: B (*phonic sound*)

Teacher: B, so sound it for us.

Nadia: (*reading*) ...bag (*looks at teacher*) ... went (*looks at teacher*) ...
Bad (*looks at teacher*) ... Fat (*looks at teacher*) ... Cat (*looks at teacher*).

Rather than modelling the application of phonic knowledge to unfamiliar words as a strategy for accessing unfamiliar print, pupils are being taught that reading is an abstract process of recognising letters and 'sounding out' words. In other words, phonic skills are being taught out of the context of real text. Smith (1985) makes the following comment about the type of modelling provided by Teacher C:

None of the drills, exercises, and tests of formal programmatic instruction demonstrate that written language is meaningful or useful; their only purposes are their own instructional ends. The only reason for the child to attend to the task is to get it over with, to get a mark, or because the teacher says so

(Smith, 1985b, 139).

What Teacher C fails to realise is that phonic skills are best taught in the context of engaging with print in order to make meaning:

[Phonic knowledge] is developed during discussions about easy story books, in reading aloud ... If a teacher of reading can make it easy for the child to be successful at getting messages from texts, this is the experience out of which the child will be able to construct inner strategic processes including phonological awareness

(Clay, 1991, 322).

The task of recognising individual and isolated words and sounds of letter groups is a difficult one for readers since no context is provided with which to make sense of the words or letters (Flanagan, 1995; Smith, 1975). Moreover, “directing attention to only one source of information used by the reader of text can produce problems ... [since it] distort[s] a complex process unless its learning becomes patterned with other key variables and opportunities are provided to work on the interplay between variables” (Clay, 1991, 314).

The task of word recognition is further complicated in Teacher C’s classroom by the terms she uses for single words. In the first lesson observed, pupils were required to recognise the words on labels for pictures. The extract below provides an example of the different ways in which Teacher C referred to these words within a single episode - ‘sentence’, ‘two words’ and ‘word’.

Teacher: Put your finger on the word ‘the’. Okay, now let’s read that sentence, those two words.

Pupils & teacher: *(reading)* The duck.

Teacher: Let’s read the other two words. Come on.

Pupils & teacher: *(reading)* The doll.

The teacher instructs the pupils to find the picture of the bear and then this character’s label.

Teacher: Show me the word ‘bear’. Put your finger on the word ‘bear’. Only the word ‘bear’. Lovely Christopher.

A little later:

Teacher: Okey-dokes. Let's read that word for me.

Pupils with teacher: *(reading)* The bear.

Teacher: Once more.

Pupils with teacher: *(reading)* The bear.

Understanding the abstract notion of a word is important to understanding the conventions of print which, in turn, is part of conceptualising print. Without an understanding of what constitutes a word, pupils are unlikely to understand the reason for the spaces between words in written language. Teacher C's inaccurate and changing definition of what constitutes a word can only serve to complicate pupils' understandings of the way in which print is structured.

Although eighteen instances were recorded for the category **interactional strategies**, thirty-three 'blocks to learning' were also recorded within this category (Tables Y and Z). The predominance of display ("Where's the bear?", sub-item 1.4.1) and retrieval ("Listen we've had [this word] in our reader. So what is it?", sub-item 1.4.2) questions asked suggests that Teacher C views questioning as an assessment strategy rather than as a teaching one. The use of questions as a strategy for seeking the correct answer (assessment) creates a block to learning. Ten such blocks to learning are recorded on Table Y. In the extract below, Teacher C is working with Zola, a Xhosa speaker. She uses questioning in order to elicit the correct English label for a picture. However, the pupil's responses indicate that the questions asked serve only to create cognitive confusion in the pupil since she is already familiar with the English word (doll) for the character in the picture.

Teacher: Who can tell me the names of some of the characters we met in 'The Toy Shop'.

Pupils put up their hands. The teacher looks at Ray.

Ray: The doll.

Teacher: We met the doll. And what did we call the doll?
Can you remember?

The pupils do not respond.

Teacher: I.. I... Idoli (*Xhosa for 'doll'*) Right, Zola?

Zola: Idoli.

Teacher: Idoli. So who is this, Zola? A...

Zola: ... doll.

Teacher: Remember, I'm going to say it in Xhosa. You're going to say it in English, if you don't understand, okay? (*pointing to the doll in the picture, looks at Zola and waits*) Who is this, Zola?

Zola: Idoli.

Teacher: And now say it in English for us.

Zola is silent.

Teacher: The...

Zola: ...doll.

Teacher: Doll. The doll.

It must be assumed that Teacher C makes use of the Xhosa word for 'doll' (idoli) in order to assist the pupil in transferring to English as the language of instruction. While it may be effective practice to translate key words into the home language of non-English speakers in order to assist them with learning through English, Zola does not provide any evidence of needing such support (Teacher: "So who is this, Zola. A...", Zola: "doll."). In other words, the ability to name this character in English forms part of the actions which Zola is already able to perform independently. She does not require other regulation. The teacher however, does not appear to recognise this and thus insists on Zola linking the Xhosa word to its English equivalent ("Remember I'm going to say it in Xhosa. You're going to say it in English, if you don't understand, okay? Who is this, Zola?"). Furthermore, while her question "And what did we call the doll?" is aimed at seeking the right answer (sub-item 1.7), the way in which this question is phrased conceals the correct answer since it implies that a first name for the doll

is what is sought (rather than the Xhosa word for ‘doll’). Thus, the interactional strategy of eliciting used by Teacher C in this extract creates a ‘block’ to learning.

The extent to which Teacher C maintains control (ten instances, Table Z) and utilises negative management of error (thirteen instances, Table Z) create further blocks to learning. The extract below provides an example of the way in which Teacher C deflects the pupils’ attention from making meaning (acceptable miscue) and, instead, reduces the already limited opportunities for reading to a mechanical process of accurate word identification:

The teacher indicates that Stanley should read his card which has the words “old man” written on it..

Stanley: The old man.

Teacher: Where do you see ‘the’? What do the two words say?

Stanley: Old man.

Teacher: Old man.

Had the teacher commented affirmatively on the meaning made in Stanley’s response before she alerted him to the number of words on the card, this response would have been regarded as a positive management of error (uses error to teach, sub-item 3.3). However, it is the absence of positive feedback which results in the teacher’s management of error creating a ‘block’ to learning.

The low number of instances recorded for the categories **establishing relationships** (three instances, Table X) and **transactional responses** (four instances, Table AA) suggest that Teacher C fails to understand the importance of mediating an understanding of the ways in which text works or of teacher response to pupil effort as a mechanism for creating and utilising the ZPD.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that, in terms of a Vygotskian theory of teaching and learning, Teacher C fails to create opportunities for her pupils to develop their concept of

print. Furthermore, the materials she selects for the teaching of reading and her exclusive emphasis on the development of pupils' phonic knowledge and word recognition skills results in an impoverished demonstration of the way in which print works and thus impede the pupils' progress toward further self-regulation.

5.4 Teacher D

Twenty-four instances of Teacher D developing her pupils' concept of print were recorded across the five categories of the video observation schedule. However, a total of thirty-five 'blocks to learning' were also recorded.

The eleven instances recorded in the category **organisation and planning** (Table V) all relate to the level of preparation evident in Teacher D's lessons and the extent to which she displays effective classroom management skills. The high number of 'blocks to learning' recorded in this category reveal the extent of Teacher D's misunderstanding of the task of developing pupils' concept of print (item 7). The extract below is taken from the first reading lesson observed in which Teacher D was providing what she terms 'language enrichment' for the non-English speaking pupils in her class. Her notion of 'language enrichment' is well illustrated in this extract, and may be regarded as a misunderstanding of the task.

The teacher is sitting on the mat with the children.

Teacher: Okay. Listen to me. Stand up (*teacher indicates 'up' with her hands*).

Pupils stand up.

Teacher: Sit down.

Pupils sit down.

Teacher: Stand up again.

Pupils stand up.

Teacher: Stand on (*Three children begin to sit down. The teacher motions for them to stand up.*) Stand on one leg (*teacher*

demonstrates).

Pupils stand on one leg.

Teacher: *(completing the action)* Put your foot down.

Pupils put their feet down.

Teacher: Put your hand on your head.

While some may argue that non-English speaking pupils need to learn to communicate in English before they begin to read in English, the language provided in the above extract is a poor example of the argument. The teacher does not expose pupils to the richness or the rhythm of the language nor the purpose for the communication. Instead, this activity - and other similar ones used by Teacher D - focus on mastery of the language for its own sake. As Fitzgerald has already reminded us, “the ‘listening-speaking first’ approach ... [is] based on early research on the mechanics of language and language learning, and on earlier views of reading and writing as symbol-to-speech translation” (Fitzgerald, 1993, 640) and this approach “minimizes the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading, and writing” (ibid., 640). What Teacher D fails to understand is that texts can mediate language and she can mediate language through text. In other words, she fails to realise that “the provision of context-embedded, cognitively demanding tasks will ensure a higher degree of success in facilitating and assessing [these] children’s learning” (Gregory and Kelly, 1994, 208) and that “reading and writing competencies can only be acquired through actually engaging in sustained reading and writing” (Wells and Chang-Wells, 1992, 75).

Most of the materials (flash cards with individual words written on them, sentence strips and readers) selected by this teacher are inappropriate for the teaching of reading. Only those pupils who are regarded by Teacher D as being her ‘best’ readers are afforded the opportunity of reading extended text (as supplementary materials), albeit at a very elementary level. Teacher D’s choice of reading material reflects her belief in the necessity of preparing pupils before they are given their ‘reader’ (Table BB). The materials selected do not provide a model of the ways in which print works since they are examples of decontextualised language.

Of the remaining number of instances recorded for Teacher D, two instances of **modelling** were recorded in the small group lessons she taught her ‘best’ readers (Table W). The lack of modelling displayed in her other lessons may be partly attributable to the inappropriateness of the materials chosen for the lesson. In addition to a failure to model appropriate reading strategies (item 10), Teacher D provides inappropriate demonstrations of the ways in which texts work. An example of this can be found in her second lesson in which she teaches pupils about the purpose of the full stop and comma in texts - the purpose of the full stop is to indicate that the reader should “stop” and the purpose of the comma is to indicate that the reader should “pause a little”. Teacher D also provides a model of reading as memorising when she asks pupils “Can you remember what the last [sentence] says?”. Thus, the modelling provided by Teacher D mediates *misconceptions* about print and text to the pupils.

Teacher D asks predominantly display (“Why are you stopping after ‘Kathy’?”), sub-item 1.4.2) and retrieval (“What colour was the brown house?”, sub-item 1.4.1) type questions for the purposes of assessment only. Thus, questioning is not used as a mechanism to create the ZPD for pupils. The use of questioning by Teacher D together with the high number of ‘blocks to learning’ recorded for the category **interactional strategies** (Tables Y and Z) suggests that there are no opportunities created for pupils other than for the ‘best’ readers to develop their concept of print. Instead, pupils are subjected to unhelpful explanations. An example of misleading intervention is when, in response to pupils pausing for too long when they see a comma in a sentence, this teacher says: “You mustn’t stop for a very long while, okay. You mustn’t stop and keep quiet...you stop for a little while”. Poor interactional strategies are further illustrated by the senseless drilling of pupils in the example below:

Teacher: ‘Cos what must we do if we see Mr Full Stop? We must.....?’

Pupils: ... stop.

Teacher: We must?’

Pupils: ... stop.

Teacher: We must?’

Pupils: ... stop.

Teacher: Now let me see if you can read it. And you stop every time you see Mr Full Stop. Do you think you can do that?

Pupils: Yes.

Rather than teaching about the conventions of print, Teacher D uses the teaching of the conventions of print as a vehicle for teaching what she considers to be appropriate classroom behaviour (Teacher: “We must...?” Pupils: “...stop.” Teacher: “We must...?” Pupils: “...stop”). Thus, rather than providing other regulation for their developing concept of print, Teacher D concentrates on pedagogical regulation of the pupils’ behaviour.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that, in terms of a Vygotskian theory of teaching and learning, Teacher D fails to create opportunities for learning (the ZPD) and thus fails to mediate a concept of print to the pupils in her class. Teacher D misunderstands the task of teaching reading and this misunderstanding translates into classroom practice which provides an inappropriate demonstration of the way in which print works.

5.5 A comparative analysis

Table GG presents a summary of particular aspects of the instruments in this study which relate to the teachers’ understanding of the task of teaching a concept of print in linguistically diverse classrooms (teacher questionnaire), the teachers’ practice (video observation schedule) and the pupil outcomes related to a concept of print (miscue analysis and schedule of indicators of pupils’ concept of print).

The horizontal axis reflects each of the teachers. The vertical axis reflects the four instruments used to make a comparative analysis viz. the number of blocks and instances recorded for each of the five categories of the video observation schedule, the results of the miscue analysis, the pupil scores on the schedule of indicators of pupils’ concept of print test, and categories 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 of the table which presents the teachers’ responses to the questionnaire (Table BB).

TABLE GG: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

	Teacher A		Teacher B		Teacher C		Teacher D	
VIDEO OBSERVATION SCHEDULE:								
Organisation and planning	47 instances; 0 blocks		14 instances; 2 blocks		13 instances; 9 blocks		11 instances; 7 blocks	
Modelling	37 instances; 0 blocks		8 instances; 9 blocks		0 instances; 10 blocks		2 instances; 9 blocks	
Establishing relationships	13 instances		1 instances		3 instances		0 instances	
Interactional strategies	36 instances; 5 blocks		11 instances; 7 blocks		18 instances; 33 blocks		11 instances; 19 blocks	
Transactional responses	27 instances		5 instances		4 instances		0 instances	
Total no. of instances recorded	160		39		38		24	
Total no. of blocks recorded	5		18		52		35	
MISCUE ANALYSIS:								
	April	June	April*	June*	April**	June	April***	June***
Level 1.1 - % miscues	11 - 39	11 - 34	21 - 98	13 - 84	20 - 98	18 - 75	18 - 54	7 - 71
% acceptable miscues	18 - 45	18 - 75	11 - 52	6 - 29	3 - 73	17 - 55	21 - 33	25 - 44
Level 1.3 - % miscues	11	5	n/a	14	41	28	n/a	n/a
% acceptable miscues	25	25	n/a	10	3	19	n/a	n/a
Level 5 - % miscues	0.7 - 4	3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
% acceptable miscues	45 - 50	50	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Level 6 - % miscues	n/a	0.8	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
% acceptable miscues	n/a	25	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
SCHEDULE OF INDICATORS OF PUPILS' CONCEPT OF PRINT:								
19	4		1		0		0	
18	2		1		0		0	
17	1		3		1		1	
less than 17	0		1 (13); 1 (12)		3 (16); 2 (13)		2 (14); 1 (13); 1 (12); 1 (10); 1 (8)	
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE:								
Approach to teaching of reading	whole → part		part → whole		part → whole		part → whole	
Materials used - preparatory	no		yes		yes		yes	
- readers	yes		yes		no		yes	
- real books	no		no		yes		yes	
- pictures	yes		yes		yes		yes	
- sentence strips	yes		no		yes		yes	
- other	tapes		none		objects; flash cards		reading cards	
Reading with understanding as a learning outcome	yes		only for top group of readers		no		no	
Same expectations of English and non-English speaking pupils	yes		yes		no		no	

* Scores for 2 pupils (April) and 1 pupil (June) could not be calculated as these pupils spoke about the pictures and thus, did not read the print.

** Scores for 1 pupil (April) could not be calculated as this pupil spoke about the pictures and thus, did not read the print.

*** Scores for 3 pupils (April) and 3 pupils (June) could not be calculated as pupils spoke about the pictures instead of reading the print.

5.5.1 Video observation schedule

Teacher A appears to display the highest number of instances and lowest number of 'blocks to learning' across the five categories of the video observation schedule. She is the only teacher to display sufficient instances to suggest that the ZPD is used as a tool for teaching and that the teaching of reading is focussed on developing pupils' concept of print. By comparison, Teacher B displays a considerably lower number of instances and a significantly higher number of 'blocks to learning'. This suggests that there are few opportunities for pupils in her class to develop their concept of print. Teachers C and D also display low numbers of instances. However, unlike Teacher B, the number of 'blocks to learning' recorded are greater than the number of instances recorded. Thus, with these teachers it is the absence of instances and presence of 'blocks to learning' which are of significance. The absences and presences suggest that these teachers create relatively few opportunities for their pupils to develop their concept of print and that the opportunities for learning created are countered by instances in which pupils are prevented from taking control of the learning and/or in which an inaccurate conceptual understanding of print is mediated.

5.5.2 Miscue Analysis

A comparison of the results of the miscue analysis suggests that Teacher A's pupils are the only ones to maintain or improve on the accuracy with which they read and on their ability to make meaning from print. Teacher A's class is also the only one within which a range of reading levels is evident and within which pupils display an acceptable level of miscues in relation to the texts that they read.

The pupils in Teacher B and C's classes display a decrease in the percentage of miscues made as well as a decrease in the number of miscues which may be considered acceptable. This suggests that while pupils in these classes are able to read texts with increased accuracy in June, they are less able to maintain a focus on making meaning from print. This further suggests that reading instruction has interfered with pupils' instinctive drive to make meaning from text and has caused them to focus on word-perfect reading.

The pupils in Teacher D's class demonstrate an increase in the percentage of miscues made

as well as an increase in the percentage of these miscues which may be considered acceptable. However, when reading these results it is important to note that three (non-English speakers) of the seven pupils tested were still unable to read print in June. The results suggest that English-speaking pupils are less able to read print accurately in June although the miscues that they make alter the meaning of the text less than those made in April. In terms of the non-English speakers, the results suggest that there is no development of pupils' ability to read print in English. It is only for Teacher D that the results of the miscue analysis show a clear difference between the achievements of non-English speaking pupils and English speaking pupils. This is in line with the data which shows that an impoverished understanding of print ("Stand up. Sit down.") is mediated to non-English speaking pupils.

5.5.3 Schedule of indicators of pupils' concept of print

Only the pupils in Teacher A's class scored satisfactorily as a group on this test. This result suggests that pupils in this class have developed a concept of print according to the instrument devised as a reasonable outcome of six months of instruction. The majority of pupils (five out of seven) tested in Teacher B's class demonstrate satisfactory scores on this test although only one pupil completed all the tasks correctly. This result suggests that Teacher B has had some success in developing some pupils' understanding of the elements of print. Only one pupil in each of Teacher C and D's classes performed within the satisfactory range on this test. Since the majority of pupils in these classes are unable to complete the tasks in this test at a satisfactory level, it can be concluded that these pupils have a weak understanding of print and the way in which texts work even though they have had six months reading instruction.

5.5.4 Teacher questionnaire

Teachers B, C and D all describe their approaches to the teaching of reading in what is summarised as a 'part-to-whole' approach. In this approach, 'sub-skills' are taught first, then letters, then diagraphs, then single words, then phrases and sentences and finally meaning (Flanagan, 1995, 12). Their description of their approach is reflected in the materials that they report using for the teaching of reading (viz. preparatory material, readers, flash cards and reading cards) as well as by the materials that they do not use. While Teachers C and D claim to use real books as reading materials in their classrooms, the pre-observation schedules

completed for each of Teacher C's lessons (Table C) reveal that real books were only in evidence in the third lesson. Furthermore, neither Teacher C nor Teacher D used these materials when teaching reading.

By contrast, Teacher A describes her approach to the teaching of reading as what may be summarised as being chiefly a 'whole-to-part' approach. This approach is "concept driven - in other words, the learner needs to have a concept of written language and its functions in order to read" (ibid., 12). This approach is reflected in the materials she uses and does not use. However, the success of a 'whole-to-part' approach requires at least some use of real books as instructional materials and these are not used in Teacher A's classroom for this purpose.

Only Teacher A defines an ability to read with understanding as an intended learning outcome for all her pupils. This corresponds with her teaching approach. Teacher B defines it as an intended outcome for only her most able readers thereby suggesting that this is the highest level of skill to be acquired. This corresponds with her 'part-to-whole' approach to the teaching of reading. Neither Teacher C nor D quotes reading with understanding as an intended learning outcome. Again this corresponds with a 'part-to-whole' understanding of the process of learning to read.

Both Teachers A and B state that they have the same expectations (in terms of reading ability) of the English speaking and non-English speaking pupils in their classes. Teachers C and D, however, indicate that they expect non-English speakers to be less able readers. Teacher expectation of pupil achievement is widely known to impact on pupils' achievement in real terms. "Expectation does not guarantee learning, of course, but it makes it possible. Expectation that learning will *not* take place almost inevitably produces that effect" (Smith, 1985b, 124, original emphasis).

5.5.5 A further discussion of the findings

A critical understanding of effective teaching is that what pupils can do with assistance from others, provides an insight into what they will be able to perform independently in the future

(Vygotsky, 1978, 85). In this understanding teachers can begin to delineate what they *must* do in order to create opportunities for learning in their classrooms. Pupils “cannot be left to learn on their own; teachers cannot be content to provide opportunities to learn and then assess outcomes” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 21). For Vygotsky, teaching *is* the creation and utilisation of the ZPD. Thus where the ZPD is not created or performance is not assisted within the zone, learning cannot occur. Since self regulation is only possible once the mental functions necessary to a task have been internalised, pupils are bound to dependency on other regulation if learning does not take place. In Vygotskian terms then, teachers’ effectiveness in developing pupils’ concept of print is inextricably linked to the ways in which they model, explain, question, correct and extend pupils’ thinking in relation to the materials they provide. As Tharp and Gallimore explain: “[teachers] must learn the professional skills of assisting performance and learn to apply them at a level far beyond that required in private life” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, 43).

Within this definition of effectiveness, the empirical data suggests that Teacher A is the most effective of the four teachers in the study both in terms of her practice (as recorded on the video observation schedule) and in terms of her pupils’ achievements (as recorded by the miscue analysis and on the schedule of indicators of pupils’ concept of print). The data provides examples of how her teaching is aimed at ‘the buds’ of development (Vygotsky, 1978, 86) irrespective of whether she is working with English-speakers or non-English speakers.

Teachers are often quick to link pupil achievement in reading to the home background of pupils (category 5, Table BB). Smith (1978) challenges this assumption:

The majority of children grow up in a world in which they are surrounded by print, almost all of it meaningful...it is a mistake to equate the written language environment of children with the number of books they see in their homes. Children do not *need* the supposed advantage of “literate” parents - unless it is falsely assumed that children who do not come from “literate” backgrounds will somehow be incapable of learning to read

(Smith, 1978, 133, original emphasis).

Within this understanding then, the results achieved by Teacher A’s pupils cannot simply be attributed to the fact that they all own their own books and see people in their homes reading

(Table HH, Appendix L). In the case of Teacher A, the literacy activities in the pupils' homes probably support what pupils learn about print in the classroom. In the case of the other teachers, the opposite is true - what pupils learn about print in the classroom probably contradicts what they learn about print in their homes (as reflected in Table HH).

The empirical data in this study suggests that developing pupils' concept of print necessitates an understanding (on the part of the teacher) of reading as a social activity which is primarily focussed on making meaning. In addition, the data suggests that knowledge about how it is that proficient readers make meaning from text - in other words, what strategies they employ - is also of critical importance. Irrespective of how skilled teachers may be in terms of using the ZPD as a tool for teaching, unless they base their instruction on an understanding of reading as a meaning-making activity and on knowledge about how readers make meaning from text, they will simply mediate misunderstandings of the ways in which print and texts work to their pupils. Evidence of the mediation of misunderstandings of print may be seen in the results obtained by the pupils of Teachers B, C and D. Rather than assisting their pupils' developing concept of print, the teaching by these teachers has interfered with the pupils' ability to make meaning from text. These pupils have been taught to "approach reading in ways that will have the effect of always making it difficult or impossible" (Smith, 1978, 9). Teachers B, C and D appear to be considerably less effective in terms of both their practice (as recorded on the video observation schedule) and in terms of their pupils' achievements (as recorded by the miscue analysis and on the schedule of indicators of pupils' concept of print). These teachers appear to have an inadequate understanding of how children learn and of what is involved in the reading process.

It is both the concept of print which is mediated to pupils and the extent to which Teacher A creates and utilises the ZPD as a means of mediating this conceptual understanding that results in the effective teaching of reading to all pupils in her class. By contrast then, it is a misunderstanding of the way in which print and texts work and the translation of this into a misunderstanding of the task of teaching children to read as well as the lack of opportunities created for new learning that result in Teachers B, C and D being ineffective in the teaching of reading.

The empirical data also suggests that teachers are conscious of the need to draw on pedagogical practices appropriate to teaching linguistically diverse classes (see Table BB and the discussion following this table). However, the data also suggests that in the cases of Teachers A and B the strategies on which they draw are largely ones related to classroom organisation and management. In the cases of Teachers C and D, the data suggests that they are aware that non-English speaking pupils require additional performance assistance in order to create a bridge between their home language and the language of instruction. However, the pedagogical practices on which they draw (translating key words in the case of Teacher C and 'language enrichment' in the case of Teacher D) are inappropriate to this task. It would appear that the pedagogical practices of these two teachers create confusion about the task of reading in English rather than support it.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS

This chapter identifies the limitations of this study (6.1) and details the main conclusions possible from the study (6.2).

6.1 Limitations of the study

The research study provides a detailed descriptive analysis of four specific cases. Since the cases are not taken to be representative of all teachers in linguistically diverse classrooms, it is not possible to generalise the findings.

The study draws from a psycholinguistic understanding of reading (see Chapter 2) and defines the theoretical construct, 'concept of print' within this understanding. The instruments utilised in this study therefore created data which in the main related to this understanding of a concept of print. Furthermore, the study focuses on the ways in which teachers develop pupils' concept of print. Teaching which was aimed at developing other conceptual understandings or reading skills was ignored in this study.

The study measures teacher effectiveness in terms of the categories on the video observation schedule and the theoretical construct of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The study assumes that in order for teachers to develop pupils' concept of print effectively, they need to display the behaviours listed on the video observation schedule. Since the video observation schedule is constructed within a Vygotskian understanding of teaching and learning, the study assumes that effective teaching is that which is aimed at pupils' potential level of development in relation to a task (Vygotsky, 1978, 89).

The data was analysed in terms of categories. Information which fell outside of these categories was disregarded.

The study focuses on teacher talk (what they say) and behaviour (what they do). The impact of socio-economic factors on pupils' developing concept of print and what they learn about

print outside of the classroom are largely ignored in the study.

6.2 Findings

The study was aimed at describing what teachers say and do when teaching a concept of print in linguistically diverse classrooms. It needed to access information on teachers' understandings of the task of teaching a concept of print in multilingual classrooms as well as information on the ways in which these understandings were translated into classroom practice and, in turn, into pupil outcomes. Thus the research design was constructed to support these aims.

In terms of the definitions of a concept of print and effective teaching used in the study, it is possible to claim that the research design has supported the achievement of the study's aims. However, in order to create an even thicker description of what it is that teachers do, additional instruments which capture the translation into practice of other understandings of print would have to be designed and utilised.

The empirical data suggests that teachers' understandings of print and the process of learning to read impact on their classroom practice. The materials which they select for the purposes of teaching reading as well as the understanding of print which is mediated to pupils are both influenced by the teacher's understanding of the nature of text, and the ways in which text and therefore, print, works.

The empirical data also suggests that the understanding of teaching and learning (pedagogical knowledge) on which teachers draw impacts on the teaching strategies they utilise in the classroom. In terms of how this study defines teaching and learning, the extent of teachers' effectiveness appears to relate to the employment of Vygotskian principles of teaching and learning, and thus, to their ability to create and utilise the ZPD in their lessons.

An analysis of the empirical data suggests that all four teachers are attempting to adjust their practice to suit the needs of pupils in linguistically diverse classrooms. However, the data also

suggests that the changes in classroom practice effected by these teachers have been largely of a superficial nature. This may be attributable to a lack of available appropriate pedagogical practices on which to draw and/or a lack of local relevant research knowledge. In the South African literature surveyed in this study, no evidence of case studies which explicate teaching practices in linguistically diverse classrooms was found. Such research is critical to the formation of a body of appropriate pedagogical knowledge and to improving teaching practice in linguistically diverse classrooms in South Africa.

Finally, from the analysis of the data it would appear that an inability to speak and understand the languages of all the pupils in the class might be shown to have some impact on a teacher's effectiveness in teaching a concept of print. However, and more importantly in the context of this study, the teacher's understanding of print and text is extremely influential in how and what is mediated (what teachers say and do) to pupils in terms of reading acquisition. It is apparent that three of the four teachers in this study display fundamental confusions about what reading is. The study concludes that because concepts about print govern pupils' attention to print, the mediation of a conceptual understanding of print using the ZPD is central to effective reading instruction in linguistically diverse classrooms.

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APPENDIX A**Reducing the number of schools to be included in the study**

Ten schools were initially identified for inclusion in the study. Before initial classrooms visits had been arranged, it was necessary to exclude five of the schools. The reasons for this are recorded below.

- School 6: A particular teacher had been identified at this school. She had agreed to be part of the study but then had to withdraw due to ill health.
- School 7: The principal failed to return any of my phone calls and I was not permitted to speak to her when I phoned.
- School 8: The principal indicated that much of the first term was spent “pegging children for reading levels”. He would only consider participating in the study after the children had been “pegged”. This would have been too late for this study.
- School 9: The principal informed me that the Grade One class had considerably more children in than anticipated (55 instead of 40). She felt that the teacher was feeling too pressurised to participate and suggested that I contact the school again later in the first term. As with School 8, this would have been too late for this study.
- School 10: A particular teacher had been identified at this school. She had agreed to be part of this study but then had to withdraw as she decided to take a term’s leave.

After the initial classroom visits had taken place, School 5 was excluded from the study on the grounds that its Grade One class was not sufficiently linguistically diverse (Home language distribution: 1 Xhosa, 1 Xhosa/Afrikaans, 1 Japanese/English, 32 English).

APPENDIX B

Titles used for miscue analysis graded in terms of difficulty from 1 (easiest) to 6 (most complex)

- 1
 - 1.1 *Today* (The PREP Pack, 1995. Cape Town, Maskew Millar Longman.)
 - 1.2 *Good for us* (The PREP Pack, 1995. Cape Town, Maskew Millar Longman.)
 - 1.3 *Kids in the Night* (The PREP Pack, 1995. Cape Town, Maskew Millar Longman.)

- 2
 - My New Sister* (The PREP Pack, 1995. Cape Town, Maskew Millar Longman.)
 - Sandwiches* (The PREP Pack, 1995. Cape Town, Maskew Millar Longman.)

- 3
 - The Very Hungry Caterpillar* by Eric Carle (1974. Harmondsworth, Puffin.)

- 4
 - The Wind and the Sun* by Tomie De Paola (1978. Aylesbury, Ginn & Co.)
 - The Hungry Giant* by Joy Cowley and June Melser (1980. Auckland, Shortland.)

- 5
 - Herbert and Harry* by Pamela Allen (1990. Harmondsworth, Puffin.)
 - Elmer* by David McKee (1989. London, Hodder and Stroughton.) [pages 1 - 22]
 - Hot Hippo* by Mwenye Hadithi (1987. Kent, Knight Books.)

- 6
 - The Shrinking of Treehorn* by Florence Parry Heide (1971. Harmondsworth, Puffin.)
[pages 27 - 31]

APPENDIX C

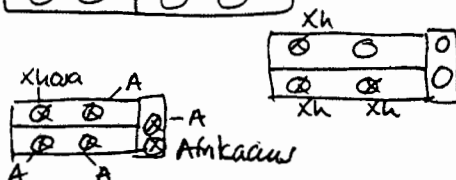
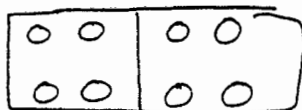
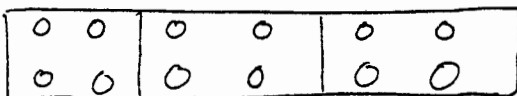
PRE-OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Date: 22/4/97

School:

1. How many children are present? 32

2. How are they seated? (Indicate non-English speakers with a X)



3. How are the children grouped?

According to ability.

4. Is this a small group lesson or a whole class lesson? Small group lessons

5. If it is a small group lesson, what are the other children doing?

Worksheet - matching. Working on this individually at tables. Play with 'educ toys' eg plastic ukapes when finished.

6. What is the teacher teaching?

2 top groups - full stop and comma - 'Mr full stop' 'Mr Comma'

worksheet:

7. What are the intended learning outcomes?

Aware of full stop - will stop b/w sentences. aware of

comma - shorter pause.

8. Are there books available to the children? *yes*

9. What languages are these books written in? *English*

**OBSERVATION SCHEDULE: EXPLORING THE INITIAL TEACHING OF
READING IN MULTILINGUAL CLASSES**32 Gp1**1. *Setting the scene***

- ✓ teacher states purpose of reading activity
- ✓ teacher engages children's attention
- ✓ teacher gives instructions
- ✓ children work in small groups, with teacher
- children work in small groups without teacher
- children work in pairs
- children work individually

2. *Approach to teaching of reading*

- teacher focuses on teaching phonic knowledge
- teacher demonstrates reading in linguistic units
- ✓ teacher focuses on look-and-say/word recognition
- teacher focuses on meaning of words
- ✓ children have to repeat words (drill)
- teacher focuses on creating meaning from text/story as a whole
- ✓ children read whole sentences
- children read extended text
- teacher demonstrates reading in units of meaning
- interacts with print/text; models enjoyment

3. *Teaching the conventions of print*

- ✓ indicates left → right approach
- indicates structure
 - sentence
 - question
 - punctuation
- ✓ indicates title and author
- ✓ indicates page numbers

4. *Strategies for dealing with unknown words*

- ✓ teacher tells children to sound out words
- children sound out words
- ✓ teacher tells children to match unrecognised word with those in word-box/controlled vocabulary list
- children refer to word-box/controlled vocabulary list
- teacher tells children to use illustrations for cues
- children use illustrations as print cues
- teacher demonstrates how to use context to 'guess' unfamiliar words
- children use context to 'guess' unfamiliar words
- children 'guess' unfamiliar words without use of context
- teacher models predictive behaviour

3 2 6p1

5. *Creating and using the ZPD*

- chooses materials of appropriate level
- 'unpacking' from a child's response
- opens up from another child's comment
- elaborates on pupil response
- uses questioning to probe children's understanding
 - translates key words into the home language of child/ren
 - speaks in the home language of child/ren as well as in the language of instruction
 - builds on children's knowledge
- participates with children to maximise participation
- collaborates in working out an understanding of the text
- makes explicit the way in which a child/children have interacted with text

- addresses class
- addresses group
- addresses individuals

6. *Eliciting strategies*

- silence
- factual recall questions
- display questions
- predictive questions
- imaginative questions
- open-ended questions
- ask opinions
- keeps seeking right answer
- invites comment on story/activity/responses

- to individual
- to group
- to class

7. *Managing Error*

- gives opportunity for self-correction
- acknowledges error, calls for explanation
- uses error to teach/repair
- asks children to decide right/wrong with no comment
- unobtrusive error correction
- unnecessary error correction
- ignores error (positive)
- ignores error (negative)

8. *Talking about text*

- establishes links between activity and world
- establishes links between text and world
- establishes links between child and world
- establishes links between text and other text

APPENDIX E

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR THE TEACHING OF A CONCEPT OF PRINT

Teacher D
12/6/97

1. ORGANISATION AND PLANNING

- meta-language (states purpose, engages attention, gives instructions etc.)	1 3
- seating, grouping	1 3
- placement of pictures/text (ease of access)	1 2 3
- pace : too slow..... too fast..... appropriate.....	3
- challenge: material selected suitable for pupils' level of development	
- mismanages task	1 2 3
- unfamiliar with steps in task	

2. MODELLING (Teacher models appropriate behaviour)

- reads in units of meaning	
- reads in linguistic units	
- indicates left → right approach	
- indicates structure (eg sentence, punctuation, capitals)	
- interacts with print/text; models enjoyment	
- models predictive behaviour	3
- creates sense of anticipation	
- models strategies for comprehension	
- does not guide learner in applying strategies	
- no appreciation of teaching reading strategies	1 2 3

3. ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS/MAKING LINKS ("works with")

Part - Whole

- uses picture cues	
- backwards and forwards relations	
- establishes internal relations eg within picture	
- returns to whole story	

Life - World

- establishes relationships/links between class → world..... text → world..... child → world..... text → other text.....
- mentions the purpose of reading/in books/in school/ in life	

Understanding of the extended text

- internal coherence of text	
- repetitive cues	
- sequence of events	
- prediction	
- makes statements about story structure	
- brings background knowledge into reading situation	

4. INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES ("works through")

- gestures	
- silence	
- clozure	
- questions	
- questions: retrieval.....	11133
display.....	11
inferential.....	3
predictive.....	
imaginative.....	
open-ended.....	
asks opinions.....	
- to individual	113
- to class/group	1113
- keeps seeking right answer	13
- invites comment on story and on responses	

Shifting control

- allows spontaneous responses from children	3
- expects children to help each other	
- relinquishes control for peer interaction/comments	
- relinquishes control entirely (when pupils engage in task)	
- acknowledges contributions of pupils	
- allows peer correction of errors	
- blocks shift of control, takes over / tells / emphasises correct pronunciation etc.	123

Managing error

- gives opportunity for self-correction	
- acknowledges error, calls for explanation	
- uses error to teach / 'repair'	
- asks pupils to decide right/wrong with no comment	
- unobtrusive error correction	
- unnecessary error correction	3
- ignores error: positive	
negative	

5. TRANSACTIONAL RESPONSES ("teacher responds to")

- acknowledges/affirms responses	
- makes encouraging comments	
- takes the learner seriously	
- builds on pupils' knowledge	
- accepts predictions from pupils' view points	
- participates with pupils to maximise participation	
- confirms / disconfirms previous predictions / 'guesses'	
- collaborates in working out an understanding of the text	
- addresses class/group	
- addresses individuals	

Feedback

- 'unpacking' from a pupil's response	
- opens up from another pupil's comment	
- elaborates on pupil response	
- comments on effort, task difficulty/ease etc.	

APPENDIX F

TEACHER A

24 April 1997

11h00 - 11h27

32 pupils

Extracts from lesson 3 observed.

The class are doing a theme called "The Jungle". As part of the theme each pupil is 'writing' her own book called "Let's go into the jungle". These books contain activities which the teacher has developed. There are two pages which have the speech bubble 'In the, there's a' and these have been completed by the pupils who have drawn a picture to go with each speech bubble. The same procedure has been followed for the next speech bubble, 'I'm a, I like eating' . This speech bubble has been repeated four times. The speech bubble, 'In the, I can see.....' appears in the books the pupils have been reading.

The lesson begins with the teacher taking the pupils into "the jungle" in the passage outside her classroom. The pupils are invited by the teacher to try to find the animals which are hidden behind the trees. (The pupils have made large paintings of trees which have been pasted on the wall. The teacher has hidden pictures of the characters from "Let's Go Into the Jungle" by Rod Campbell behind them.) Individual pupils are asked to predict what they think the animals are, based on the portion of the picture which they can see. When they have found all the animals, the teacher and pupils go back into the classroom.

EXTRACT 1

The pupils are seated on the mat. The teacher has written up a list of places (during a previous brainstorm with the pupils) and of animals (with pictures) on the board. The teacher asks the pupils to use these words to make sentences which fit the following format: ' In the, I can see' .

Zovuyo: I can see...a...a...a zoo um

Teacher: Okay. What you want to say: In the zoo, I can see...?

Zovuyo: a crocodile.

Teacher: A crocodile. Fine. Let's have Jessica.

Jessica: I can see a monkey.

Teacher: A monkey. Okay, where can you see the monkey?

- Jessica: *(indistinct)*
- Teacher: Okay. Where can you see him? *(pointing to the list on the board)* Choose a word from here.
- Jessica: In the jungle.
- Teacher: In the jungle. In the jungle, I can see a monkey. Remember you need to say the first part where you can see it. Let's have Tia.
- Tia: I can see my puppy sleeping in a basket.
- Teacher: Okay. Let's have Tammy.
- Tammy: In the woods, I can see a lion.

Another eight pupils share their sentences and then the teacher gives each pupil a piece of paper with "In the, I can see...." written on it. The pupils are reminded that they have had one of these before and told that they should choose different words to complete this one. They are told to paste these into their "Let's go in the jungle" books and are reminded that they can use the words on the board and/or "Let's Go Into the Jungle" to help them complete the task.

A reading group comes to the mat. This is reported to be the weakest reading group in the class and it consists of 2 Chinese-speaking pupils (Debbie and Kan), 1 Xhosa-speaking pupil (Zovuyo) and 3 English speaking pupils. The teacher is seated on the mat with the pupils in a circle. She hands each pupil a copy of the book "The Hungry Animals" by Rod Campbell.

EXTRACT 2

The teacher focuses the pupils attention on the title and author and asks them to read these details. Then she instructs them to turn to page 2. She asks Raesa to read.

- Raesa: *(reading)* I'm a hungry caterpillar. I like eating ... leaves.
- Teacher: Well done. Before we turn over, just look at that first word. *(to Zovuyo)* Z, you're not on the right page. *(to the group)* This first word, what does it say?
- Pupils: I'm.
- Teacher: How do you know that it says 'I'm'?
- Jessica: *(pointing to the text)* Because of the apostrophe here.
- Teacher: What is an apostrophe for?
- Martine: It means that they've taken away the ... um
- Teacher: The...?

Jessica & Raesa: A

Teacher: The 'a'. Well done. If it wasn't an apostrophe, what two words would be there?

Pupils: *(one pupil, then two more)* A.

Teacher: What two words, not letters?

Pupils: A.

Teacher: What two words. *(pauses)* I ...

Pupils: Am.

Teacher: Am. Well done. Okay, let's turn over.

Jessica reads next.

EXTRACT 3

Teacher: Okay, Debbie you're going to try.

Debbie: *(shaking her head)* I can't.

Teacher: You're going to try. Come.

The teacher points to the first word on the page open in front of Debbie.

Debbie: *(reading)* I'm ...

Teacher: That's it.

Debbie: a ... hungry ...

Teacher: *(pointing to the picture)* What's that?

Debbie: *(reading)* rabbit.

Teacher: Good girl.

Debbie: *(pointing to the words herself)* I like eating ... carrots.

Teacher: Well done. How did you know that says carrots?

Martine: *(Debbie points to the picture of the carrots at the same time as Martine speaks.)*
She can see the picture.

Teacher: Did you look at the picture?

Debbie: (nods)

Teacher: That was clever. Turn over.

The other pupils read until the story is finished.

EXTRACT 4

On the last page of the book, "you" is written in large letters. After the last pupil has finished reading, the teacher draws the pupils' attention to this.

Teacher: They've written the word nice and big. What do you think you're meant to do with it

The pupils looking at the page with 'YOU' on it.

Teacher: Can you see? The other writing is small. Look here ... *(to Kan as she takes her book)* Can I just show them, Kan? *(Showing the pupils the previous page)* This writing is small *(turning the page)* and then here when you read, it's really big.

Raesa: It's the end of the book.

Teacher: It's the end of the book but what do you think you're meant to do when you read that?

Pupils look at the text.

Teacher: Okay, I tell you what, I'm going to read...

Kan: *(pointing to the text in the teacher's book)* I don't know how to read that line. I can't read that line.

Teacher: *(to Kan)* That's okay.

Kan: I just know how to ...

Teacher: Do you think you must read it softly? *(reading)* 'I like eating *(softly)* you'.

Martine: *(shakes her head)*

Teacher: How do you think you should read it?

Martine: *(reading)* I like eating *(a little louder)* you.

Teacher: *(loudly)* You! Okay - loud. Okay, let's go back to the beginning - page 2.

The pupils read the story again. Each pupil has a turn to read.

EXTRACT 5

Debbie: *(reading)* I am a hungry monkey. I like eating bananas.

Teacher: Okay, before you turn over. *(pointing to 'I'm')* Does this say 'I am' here?

Debbie: No.

Teacher: What does it say?

Debbie: I'm

Teacher: Mm-hm. That's better. I'm a hungry monkey.

Once the pupils have finished reading the story, this small group lesson ends.

Next, the top reading group comes onto the mat. This group consists of 6 English-speaking pupils. They sit in a circle with the teacher. The teacher gives each pupil a copy of "Who's there?" by Rod Campbell.

The pupils each have a turn to read some of the text until the story is finished. Then, they read it again.

EXTRACT 6

The teacher instructs the pupils to close their books.

Teacher: Tell me, what did they find in the burrow?

Four pupils raise their hands. The teacher points to Coila.

Coila: Rabbit.

Teacher: What type of rabbit?

Martine: A fluffy rabbit.

Teacher: A fluffy rabbit. Well done. What did they find in the fish pond?

All the pupils put up their hands. The teacher points to Faith.

Faith: A frog.

Teacher: A frog. What type of frog?

Faith: A jumpy frog.

Teacher: A jumpy frog. Well done. What did they find in the ...hen-house? That's an easy one.

All the pupils put up their hands. The teacher points to Danshiela.

Danshiela: A sleepy hen.

Teacher: A sleepy hen. Well done, Danshiela. What did they find in the nest?

Four pupils put up their hands. The teacher points to Coila.

Coila: A chirpy bird.

Teacher: A chirpy bird. What is a chirpy bird? What does that mean?

Coila: He cheeps. He chirps.

Teacher: He chirps. He's quite noisy, hey?

Camilla is miming a bird that is chirping.

Teacher: There we go. Look at Camilla. She's doing it perfectly. Camilla, what was in the kennel?

Camilla: A bouncy dog.

Teacher: Okay. Tell me, where did they find ... the big, scary, snake?

Coila: Um ... at the edge of the woods.

Teacher: At the edge of the woods. Where at the edge of the woods?

Toni: In the long grass.

Teacher: In the long grass. Well done.

The pupils hand in their books and the lesson ends.

APPENDIX G

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for allowing me to observe you teach. Please would you fill in the following questionnaire and return it to me when I visit your classroom again on 18 June. Thank you for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire.

I have left space for your responses. However, should you require more space than has been allocated, please feel free to use another sheet of paper.

PART 1: GENERAL

1. How many years have you been teaching? 33
2. How many years have you been teaching at this school? 15
3. How many years have you been teaching Grade One/Sub A? 12
4. Describe your approach to the teaching of reading.
 - A. Preparatory
Teaching the sub-skills needed for formal reading interpretation of pictures & pictures in visual sequential order to form stories: finding differences & similarities in pictures, letters & words: sequential order of letters: identifying initial, medial & final sounds in phonics: picture | word identification: left to right eye movement: tracking with finger: prediction: incidental reading: book education: confidence to risk
 - B. Formal Stage (I have adapted Kathy & Mark)
 1. learn story consisting of 3 sentences
 2. cut story into sentence strips
 3. Mix up sentence strips.
 4. Identify words in context
 4. cut sentence strips into words
 5. Make own sentences with words (I have made my own word holders)
 - C. Readers
 - D. Supplementary individual readers (we have a wide range)
5. Describe the materials you use in your classroom to teach reading. (Give your opinion ^{of} the usefulness of each of the types of material.)
Steps to Reading Books 1 & 2
Extremely useful, but need to be culturally South African based

The sets of pictures for Kathy & Mark Books 1 & 2 are very useful as they encourage further language and conceptual development and they help with memorising and comprehension, but culturally they are not suitable.

Our wide range of individual supplementary readers which we have graded & collected over the years are invaluable.

6. How well do you think the children in your class should be able to read by the end of the year? Write down the most important things that you expect your pupils to be able to do (as readers) by the end of the year.

Very weak readers - Kathy & Mark Book 1 level

Top group - Kathy & Mark Book 3/4 levels

1. Have a positive attitude towards reading
2. Apply word attack skills
3. Interpret pictures
4. Be able to risk & predict
5. Top group should be able to read more fluently with comprehension

7. How many languages do you speak and understand? Please name them.

English and Afrikaans

8. How many ~~languages~~ ^{languages} of these do you use to teach in your classroom?

English

9. Do you teach reading differently now that you have pupils in your class whose home language/s you do not speak or understand?

- If you teach reading differently, explain the differences in your classroom practice and/or approach are and why you have changed your approach and/or practice.
- If you do not teach reading differently, explain why you have chosen to keep your approach and/or classroom practice the same.

We are doing more reading based on language experience and incidental reading. Where possible we try to read sentences in English and Xhosa. This helps to affirm the home language. Pupils also find it fun and they show more interest. Our French pupil occasionally reads a news sentence in her own language.

10. Are there any other changes you have made in your classroom now that you have a multilingual class?

Pupils help one another with translation. I try to use more pictures when teaching. Occasionally we sing a song or say a poem in Xhosa. We are changing our posters & pictures.

End of Part 1

PART TWO : SPECIFIC

11. In the first lesson I watched you teach, the children did a number of activities. Please explain what you were teaching in each one of the activities listed below. *Also* explain what you intended the pupils to be able to do or to understand by the end of the activity.

- The children who were not on the mat with you, completed a worksheet called "My Body". They had to correctly make up the boy's body.

To help prevent learning problems - putting together body parts helps with body image and visual closure (putting letters together to make words.)

- The children read from the class news book - first in English, then in Xhosa.

This was language experience which is more meaningful to the pupils. Reading in Xhosa helps to affirm the home language of these pupils and also helps to create a positive self image

- The weak reading group worked from Steps to Reading Book 1 (page 20).

First they had to identify the differences between two pictures. Then you said the names of the pictures on the next page and they had to identify the one

which begins with a different sound.

Page 20

Through careful observation of each picture & through questioning pupils were to discover & note similarities as well as differences. The pictures should have stimulated conversation so that vocabulary development could also take place.

Page 21

The children were to give the names of the objects first. The teacher was then to repeat them & the pupils were to identify the one that began with a different sound & to say why - auditory discrimination. Attention should have been drawn to the way the sound was printed - sound / symbol association

- The top reading group worked from Steps to Reading Book 2 (p 19). They had to match words which looked the same, remember the words and then point to them. Then they had to name the pictures on the next page and identify the one which begins with a different sound.

Page 19

This page was to help develop visual discrimination & visual memory in printed word form.

Page 20

To help develop vocabulary, auditory discrimination & sound/symbol association

12 In the second lesson I watched you teach,

- the children completed a dominoes activity. What did you intend the children to learn through this activity?

This was to help develop left to right eye movement, visual discrimination & visual sequential memory.

- the weak reading group worked on Steps to Reading Book 2 (p4 and 5). They had to identify which picture starts with a different sound and which picture faces in a different direction. What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this group lesson?

Page 4

To help develop vocabulary, auditory discrimination & sound/symbol association

Page 5

This exercise was to make pupils aware of directionality

- the top group had three sentences to focus on: Come Mark; Come here; I can jump. The children had to read the sentences on the board and on flashcards,

identify individual words and create a different sequence for the sentences.

What were you teaching? What did you intend the children to be able to do or to understand by the end of this group lesson?

The sentences on the board were in story form. (visual sequential memory with picture reference for comprehension.)

The story was then broken up into sentences & the pupils had to identify the individual sentences. They could refer to the story on the board if they forgot the sentences. The sentences were then mixed up to see if they could say them & recognise them in a different sequence. Pupils were then asked to point to the individual words to see if they could identify them in context.

13. How many non-English speakers do you have in your top reading group? How many

non-English speakers do you have in your weak reading group? What reasons would you give for this.

<u>Top Group</u>	1. Parental request
5	2. English is a universal language
<u>Weak Group</u>	3. More opportunities in the job market
5	4. Many parents think that their pupils are receiving a superior education
	5. Lack of insight

14. Do the children take books home to read? If so, what kinds of books do they take home?

Basic readers + supplementary readers

A wide range of individual supplementary readers.

We have a small class library of more culturally suitable story books (a few in Xhosa) which pupils take home each week for parents to read to them

15. The non-English speaking children in your class sit amongst the English speaking children. What are your reasons for grouping the children in this way?

Pupils have to learn to socialise, to be made

aware of other cultures & to respect other cultures.

They also help one another with work & translation. It sometimes helps with discipline. (noise aspect)

16. Do you think the non-English speaking children in your class will learn to read as well as the English speaking children by the end of the year? Give a reason/s for your response.

The brighter pupils, & those who can communicate reasonably well, should be able to learn to read as well as the English speaking children, but the comprehension may not always be there. The pupils who are able to speak very little English will probably be slower.

17. In what month did you begin teaching reading to your top group?

April

18. When do you think your weak group will begin with reading instruction?

End of May

19. Please explain why you spend a good deal of time on preparing children to begin reading instruction.

If pupils have not acquired the sub skills they will be unable to do formal reading & learning problems will occur. Some pupils are more immature than others & take longer to get ready.

20. Please describe the role that Ms Williams plays in your classroom. Non-English speaking pupils need to be able to communicate first before they can learn to read.

1. Translator

2. Helped with discipline - discipline has improved because pupils understand

3. Pupils have enjoyed learning to speak a little Xhosa

4. The Xhosa speaking pupils relate to her better & there is mutual respect

5. She has helped with general organisation of lessons

6. She has helped to solve problems

7. Pupils have received more individual attention

21. Is there anything else about your classroom practice and/or about the lessons I observed that you would like to comment on?

We want to change our reading scheme to one that is more culturally suited to the pupils. I don't think Breakthrough would work with our pupils because they do not have sufficient language from which to draw. They ^{also} need more structure to begin with.

Thank you for filling in this questionnaire.

We have ^{since} bought the Sunshine Reading Scheme (Read) which is more suited to O.B.E!

APPENDIX H

TODAY17.6.97
Christopher

P1 L1 Today I ^{am going to shopping} went to the shop.

P3 L1 Today I ^{am at} went to ^{mommy's} my aunt's house.

P5 L1 Today I ^{am going} went to ^{doctor} the clinic.

P7 L1 Today I ^{a go-ing home} went to church.

P9 L1 Today I ^{am at} went to school.

P11 L1 Today I ^{am eating - fruit} went to the market.

P13 L1 Today I ^{am eating} went to the butcher.

P15 L1 Today I ^{am on a train} went to the station.

P16 L1 Today I ^{am making a car.} played. What did you do today?

APPENDIX I

Date: 17.6.97 Name of pupil: Christopher School:

SCHEDULE OF INDICATORS FOR MEASURING A CONCEPT OF PRINT

	ITEM	YES	NO	COMMENT
1	Identifies front of book	✓		
2	Identifies the title	✓		
3	Identifies the author		✓	ISBN no.
4	Points to print	✓		
5	Identifies where the text begins	✓		
6	Shows print moves from left-right	✓		
7	Demonstrates return sweep	✓		
8	Matches word by word		✓	Attempts to, points but words don't match with print
9	Identifies first and last part of story		✓	Points to dedication page & last inside of back cover of book
10	Identifies bottom of picture	✓		
11	Identifies beginning of sentence	✓		
12	Identifies end of sentence	✓		
13	Identifies a question	✓		
14	Identifies left page before right	✓		
15	Shows one and two letters	✓		
16	Shows one and two words	✓		
17	Turns pages appropriately	✓		
18	Holds book appropriately	✓		
19	Can point to the page numbers	✓		

APPENDIX J**TODAY (level 1.1)**

- P1 L1 Today I went to the shop.
- P 3 L1 Today I went to my aunt's house.
- P 5 L1 Today I went to the clinic.
- P 7 L1 Today I went to church.
- P9 L1 Today I went to school.
- P11 L1 Today I went to the market.
- P13 L1 Today I went to the butcher.
- P 15 L1 Today I went to the station.
- P16 L1 And today I played. What did you do today?

APPENDIX K

THE SHRINKING OF TREEHORN (level 6)

- P27 The bus driver looked down at Treehorn.
 ‘You do look like Treehorn, at that,’ he said.
 ‘Only smaller. Treehorn isn’t that little.’
 ‘I am Treehorn. I’m just getting smaller,’ said
Treehorn.
 ‘Nobody gets smaller,’ said the bus driver.
 ‘You must be Treehorn’s kid brother. What’s
your name?’
 ‘Treehorn,’ said Treehorn.
 ‘First time I ever heard of a family naming two
boys the same name,’ said the bus driver. ‘Guess
they couldn’t think of any other name, once they
thought of Treehorn.’
Treehorn said nothing.
- P29 When he went into class, his teacher said,
 ‘Nursery school is down at the end of the hall,
honey.’
 ‘I’m Treehorn,’ said Treehorn.

'If you're Treehorn, why are you so small?'

asked the teacher.

'Because I'm shrinking,' said Treehorn. 'I'm getting smaller.'

'Well, I'll let it go for today,' said his teacher.

'But see that it's taken care of before tomorrow.

We don't shrink in this class.'

P31

After recess, Treehorn was thirsty, so he went down the hall to the water bubbler. He couldn't reach it, and he tried to jump up high enough.

He still couldn't get a drink, but he kept jumping up and down, trying.

His teacher walked by. 'Why, Treehorn,' she said. 'That isn't like you, jumping up and down in the hall. Just because you're shrinking, it does not mean you have special privileges. What if all the children in the *school* started jumping up and down in the halls? I'm afraid you'll have to go to the Principal's office, Treehorn.'

So Treehorn went to the Principal's office.

APPENDIX L

In Table HH, the numbers of the questions appear along the vertical axis. The questions asked appear in small font below the table and correspond with the numbers used on the table. The horizontal axis represents a summary of the pupils' responses. A discussion of the data follows the table.

TABLE HH: PUPIL INTERVIEW RESPONSES

Questions	Teacher A		Teacher B		Teacher C		Teacher D	
	English-speakers (4)	Non-English speakers (3)	English-speakers (3)	Non-English speakers (4)	English-speakers (4)	Non-English speakers (2)	English-speakers (4)	Non-English speakers (3)
1.	English (3); Afrikaans & English (1)	Chinese (2); Xhosa & English (1)	English (3)	Xhosa (4)	English (3); Afrikaans & English (1)	Xhosa (1); Afrikaans (1)	English (4)	Xhosa (2); Afrikaans (1)
2.	English (1); Afrikaans & English (3)	Chinese (2); Xhosa (1)	English (1); Afrikaans & English (2)	Xhosa (4)	English (2); Afrikaans & English (2)	Xhosa (1); Afrikaans (1)	Afrikaans & English (3); Afrikaans (1)	Xhosa (2); Afrikaans (1)
3.	Yes (4)	Yes (3)	Yes (3)	Yes (4)	Yes (3); No (1)	Yes (2)	Yes (3); No (1)	Yes (1); No (2)
4.	Yes (4)	Yes (3)	Yes (3)	Yes (4)	Yes (4)	Yes (2)	Yes (4)	Yes (1); No (2)
5.	Mother (4)	Mother (2); Sister (1)	Mother (1); Mother & Aunt (1); Mother & Father (1)	Mother (3); Brother (1)	Mother (2); Mother & Father (1); Friends (1)	Mother & Sister (1); Sister (1)	Mother (1); Father (1); Mother & Father (1); Brother (1)	Sister (1); N/A(2)
6.	Yes (4)	Yes (3)	Yes (3)	Yes (3); No (1)	Yes (4)	Yes (2)	Yes (2); No (2)	Yes (1); No (2)
7.	Own (4)	Own (3)	Own (1); Library (2)	Own (3); Library (1)	Own (2); Library (2)	Library (2)	Own (1); Library (1); N/A (2)	School (1); N/A (2)
8.	English (4)	Chinese (1); Chinese & English (1); English (1)	English (2); English & Afrikaans (1)	English (4)	English (3); English & Afrikaans (1)	English (2)	English (2); N/A (2)	English (1); N/A (2)
9.	Yes (2); No (2)	Yes (1); No (2)	Yes (2); No (1)	Yes (4)	Yes (3); No (1)	Yes (2)	Yes (2); No (2)	No (3)

Questions: (1) What language/s do you speak at home? (2) What languages do your parents speak at home? (3) Do your parents read? (4) Do you take books home (from school) to read? (5) Who listens to you read at home? (6) Do you read other books at home? (7) Where do you get these books from? (8) In what languages are these books? (9) Do you get books from the library?

Table HH indicates that all the pupils selected from Teacher A's class observe their parents reading at home. They all take books home from school and own their own books. All the pupils have someone at home who listens to them read. Only three (two English speaking and one non-English speaking) pupils reported borrowing books from a library. It is worth noting the language of the books read at home by the non-English speakers: one reads books in her home language (Chinese), one reads books in her home language (Chinese) and English, the third pupil (a Xhosa speaker) reads books in English only.

Table HH indicates that all the pupils selected from Teacher B's class observe their parents reading at home. All the pupils take books home from school to read. They all have someone at home who will listen to them reading. Four of the seven pupils (one English-speaker and three Xhosa speakers) own their own books. Two English speaking pupils and four Xhosa speaking pupils borrow books from a library. The Xhosa speakers read books in English only.

Table HH indicates that all the pupils selected from Teacher C's class observe their parents reading at home and take home books to read. Five of the pupils read to a family member at home. The sixth pupil reports that she reads to 'friends'. Only two (English speaking) pupils own their own books. Five (three English speaking and two non-English speaking) pupils borrow books from the library. This contradicts the assumptions made by Teacher C on the questionnaire (see category 5 on Table BB). The non-English speakers read books in English only.

Table HH indicates that four pupils (three English speakers and one non-English speaker) observe their parents reading at home. Five pupils (four English speakers and one non-English speaker) take books home to read and all of these pupils read to a family member at home. Only four pupils (three English speakers and one non-English speaker) own their own books. Three pupils (all English speakers) report that they borrow books from a library.

APPENDIX M

PUPIL INTERVIEWDate: 17.6.97 Name: Christopher School:

1. What language/s do you speak at home?
Afrikaans
2. What languages do your parents speak at home?
Afrikaans
3. Do your parents read?
Magazines - mother
4. Do you take books home (from school) to read?
Yes
5. Who listens to you read at home?
Sister (high school)
6. Do you read other books at home?
Yes
7. Where do you get these books from?
library
8. In what languages are these books?
English
9. Do you get books from the library?
Grandfather takes him.